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A
History
OF
THE EARTH
AND
ANIMATED NATURE
BY
Oliver Gullsmith.



GOLDFINCH AND YOUNG

W. SPRENT. NEVILLE STREET. HULL.

Johnson

A

HISTORY OF THE EARTH,

AND

ANIMATED NATURE,

BY

OLIVER GOLDSMITH,

EMBRACING THE

NEW DISCOVERIES IN NATURAL HISTORY;

TOGETHER WITH A

LIFE OF THE AUTHOR,

BY WASHINGTON IRVING.

ALSO, A

CAREFULLY SELECTED AND COPIOUS INDEX TO THE WHOLE.

HULL:

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY WILLIAM SPRENT, NEVILLE-STREET.

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MDCCLIV.



P R E F A C E .

ABOUT three-quarters of a century has elapsed since "Goldsmith's History of the Earth and Animated Nature" was first published; and, although it has gone through innumerable editions, such is the charm of the work, that the sale continues undiminished. The art which Goldsmith possessed of saying everything in a pleasing manner—the fascinating ease and beauty of his style—and the simple and intelligible arrangement which he adopted—secured for his Work an extensive patronage: and well did he fulfil the correctness of Dr. Johnson's anticipation, when he said—"Goldsmith is now writing a Natural History, and he will make it as entertaining as a Persian tale."

The present edition is completed for about half the price of former editions of this size, so as it may be within the reach of all classes. It is unabridged, and has been carefully corrected, according to the improved state of science. It also contains a Biography of Oliver Goldsmith, from the pen of WASHINGTON IRVING. This is the only edition that contains an unabridged Biography.

The publisher will feel obliged by his numerous subscribers comparing this edition with any other, and he has no doubt that the preference will be given to this; which has been got up at an immense outlay, and will require an extensive sale before he becomes remunerated. He also hopes that the present subscribers will recommend the work to their circle of friends, and thus be the means of extending amusing and instructive knowledge, which is so desirable in the present state of society.

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OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

CHAP. I.

Birth and parentage Characteristics of the Goldsmith race—Poetical birthplace—Goblin house—Scenes of boyhood—Lissoy—Picture of a country parson—Goldsmith's school-mistress—Byrne, the village school-master—Goldsmith's hornpipe and epigram—Uncle Contarine—School studies and school sports—Mistakes of a night.

THERE are few writers for whom the reader feels such personal kindness as for Oliver Goldsmith, for few have so eminently possessed the magic gift of identifying themselves with their writings. We read his character in every page, and grow into familiar intimacy with him as we read. The artless benevolence that beams throughout his works—the whimsical but amiable views of human life and human nature—the unforced humour, blending so happily with good feeling and good sense, and singularly dashed at times with a pleasing melancholy—even the very nature of his mellow, and flowing, and softly-tinted style, all seem to bespeak his moral as well as his intellectual qualities, and make us love the man at the same time that we admire the author. While the productions of writers of loftier pretension and more sounding names are suffered to moulder on our shelves, those of Goldsmith are cherished and laid in our bosoms. We do not quote them with ostentation, but they mingle with our minds, sweeten our tempers, and harmonize our thoughts; they put us in good humour with ourselves and with the world, and in so doing they make us happier and better men.

An acquaintance with the private biography of Goldsmith lets us into the secret of his gifted pages. We there discover them to be little more than transcripts of his own heart and picturings of his fortune. There he shows himself the same kind, artless, good-humoured, excursive, sensible, whimsical, intelligent being that he appears in his writings. Scarcely an adventure or character is given in his works that may not be traced to his own parti-coloured story. Many of his most ludicrous scenes and ridiculous incidents have been drawn from his own blunders and mischances, and he seems really to have been buffeted into almost every maxim imparted by him for the instruction of his reader.

Oliver Goldsmith was born on the 10th of November, 1728, at the hamlet of Pallas, or Pallasmore, county of Longford, Ireland. He sprang from a respectable, but by no means a thrifty stock. Some families seem to inherit kindness and incompetency, and to hand down virtue and poverty from generation to generation. Such was the case with the Goldsmiths. "They were always," according to their own accounts, "a strange family; they rarely acted like other people; their hearts were in the right place, but their heads seemed to be doing anything but what they ought."—"They were remarkable," says another statement, "for their worth, but of no cleverness in the ways of the world." Oliver Goldsmith will be found faithfully to inherit the virtues and weaknesses of his race.

His father, the Rev. Charles Goldsmith, with hereditary improvidence, married when very young and very poor, and starved along for several years on a small country curacy and the assistance of his wife's friends.

His whole income, eked out by the produce of some fields which he farmed, and of some occasional duties performed for his wife's uncle, the rector of an adjoining parish, did not exceed forty pounds—

And passing rich with forty pounds a year.

He inhabited an old, half-rustic mansion, that stood on a rising ground in a rough lonely part of the country, overlooking a low tract occasionally flooded by the river Inny. In this house Goldsmith was born, and it was a birthplace worthy of a poet; for, by all accounts, it was haunted ground. A tradition handed down among the neighbouring peasantry states that, in after years, the house remaining for some time untenanted, went to decay, the roof fell in, and it became so lonely and forlorn as to be a resort for the "good people" or fairies, who in Ireland are supposed to delight in old crazy, deserted mansions for their midnight revels. All attempts to repair it were in vain; the fairies battled stoutly to maintain possession. A huge mis-shapen hobgoblin used to bestride the house every evening with an immense pair of jack-boots, which, in his efforts at hard riding, he would thrust through the roof, kicking to pieces all the work of the preceding day. The house was therefore left to its fate, and went to ruin.

Such is the popular tradition about Goldsmith's birthplace. About two years after his birth a change came over the circumstances of his father. By the death of his wife's uncle he succeeded to the rectory of Kilkenny West; and, abandoning the old goblin mansion, he removed to Lissoy, in the county of Westmeath, where he occupied a farm of seventy acres, situated on the skirts of that pretty village.

This was the scene of Goldsmith's boyhood—the little world whence he drew many of those pictures, rural and domestic, whimsical and touching, which abound throughout his works, and which appeal so eloquently both to the fancy and to the heart. Lissoy is confidently asserted as the original of his "Auburn" in the "Deserted Village;" his father's establishment, a mixture of farm and parsonage, furnished hints, it is said, for the rural economy of the Vicar of Wakefield; and his father himself, with his learned simplicity, his guileless wisdom, his amiable piety, and utter ignorance of the world, has been exquisitely portrayed in the worthy Dr. Primrose. Let us pause for a moment, and draw from Goldsmith's writings one or two of those pictures which, under feigned names, represent his father and his family, and the happy fireside of his childish days.

"My father," says the "Man in Black," who, in some respects, is a counterpart of Goldsmith himself, "my father, the younger son of a good family, was possessed of a small living in the church. His education was above his fortune, and his generosity greater than his education. Poor as he was, he had his flatterers poorer than himself: for every dinner he gave them they returned him an equivalent in praise; and this was all he wanted. The same ambition that actuates a monarch at the head of his army, influenced my father at the head of his table: he told the story of the ivy-tree, and that was laughed at; he repeated the jest of the two

scholars and one pair of breeches, and the company laughed at that; but the story of Taffy in the sedan-chair was sure to set the table in a roar. Thus his pleasure increased in proportion to the pleasure he gave; he loved all the world, and he fancied all the world loved him.

"As his fortune was but small, he lived up to the very extent of it: he had no intention of leaving his children money, for that was dross; he resolved they should have learning, for learning, he used to observe, was better than silver or gold. For this purpose he undertook to instruct us himself, and took as much care to form our morals as to improve our understanding. We were told that universal benevolence was what first cemented society: we were taught to consider all the wants of mankind as our own; to regard the *human face divine* with affection and esteem; he wound us up to be mere machines of pity, and rendered us incapable of withstanding the slightest impulse made either by real or fictitious distress. In a word, we were perfectly instructed in the art of giving away thousands before we were taught the necessary qualification of getting a farthing."

In the "Deserted Village" we have another picture of his father and his father's fireside:—

His house was known to all the vagrant train,
He chid their wanderings, but relieved their pain;
The long-remembered beggar was his guest,
Whose beard, descending, swept his aged breast;
The ruin'd spendthrift, now no longer proud,
Claim'd kindred there, and had his claims allow'd;
The broken soldier, kindly bade to stay,
Sat by his fire, and talk'd the night away;
Wept o'er his wounds, or tales of sorrow done,
Shoulder'd his crutch, and show'd how fields were won.
Pleased with his guest, the good man learn'd to glow,
And quite forgot their vices in their woe;
Careless their merits or their faults to scan,
His pity gave ere charity began.

The family of the worthy pastor consisted of five sons and three daughters. Henry, the eldest, was the good man's pride and hope, and he tasked his slender means to the utmost in educating him for a learned and distinguished career. Oliver was the second son, and seven years younger than Henry, who was the guide and protector of his childhood, and to whom he was most tenderly attached throughout life.

Oliver's education began when he was about three years old; that is to say, he was gathered under the wings of one of those good old motherly dames, found in every village, who cluck together the whole callow brood of the neighbourhood, to teach them their letters and keep them out of harm's way. Mistress Elizabeth Delap, for that was her name, flourished in this capacity for upwards of fifty years, and it was the pride and the boast of her declining days, when nearly ninety years of age, that she was the first that had put a book (doubtless a hornbook) into Goldsmith's hands. Apparently he did not much profit by it, for she confessed he was one of the dullest boys she had ever dealt with, insomuch that she had sometimes doubted whether it was possible to make anything of him—a common case with imaginative children, who are apt to be beguiled from the dry abstractions of elementary study by the picturings of the fancy.

At six years of age he passed into the hands of the village schoolmaster, one Thomas (or, as he was commonly and irreverently named, Paddy) Byrne, a capital tutor for a poet. He had been educated for a pedagogue, but had enlisted in the army, served abroad during the wars of Queen Anne's time, and risen to the rank of quartermaster of a regiment in Spain. At the return of peace, having no longer exercise for the sword, he resumed the ferule, and drilled the urchin populace of Lissoy. Goldsmith is supposed to have had him and his school in view in the following sketch in his "Deserted Village":—

Beside yon straggling fence that skirts the way,
With blossom'd furze unprofitably gay,
There, in his noisy mansion, skill'd to rule,
The village master taught his little school;
A man severe he was, and stern to view—
I knew him well, and every truant knew;
Well had the boding tremblers learned to trace,
The day's disasters in his morning face;
Full well they laugh'd with counterfeited glee
At all his jokes, for many a joke had he;
Full well the busy whisper circling round,
Convey'd the dismal tidings when he frown'd.
Yet he was kind, or, if severe in aught,
The love he bore to learning was in fault;
The village all declared how much he knew—
'Twas certain he could write and cipher too;
Lands he could measure, terms and tides presage,
And e'en the story ran that he could gauge:
In arguing, too, the parson own'd his skill,
For e'en though vanquish'd, he could argue still;
While words of learned length and thund'ring sound
Amaz'd the gazing rustics ranged around—
And still they gaz'd, and still the wonder grew,
That one small head should carry all he knew.

There are certain whimsical traits in the character of Byrne not given in the foregoing sketch. He was fond of talking of his vagabond wanderings in foreign lands, and had brought with him from the wars a world of campaigning stories, of which he was generally the hero, and which he could deal forth to his wondering scholars when he ought to have been teaching them their lessons. These travellers' tales had a powerful effect upon the vivid imagination of Goldsmith, and awakened an unconquerable passion for wandering and seeking adventure.

Byrne was, moreover, of a romantic vein, and exceedingly superstitious. He was deeply versed in the fairy superstitions which abound in Ireland, all which he professed implicitly to believe. Under his tuition Goldsmith soon became almost as great a proficient in fairy lore. From this branch of good-for-nothing knowledge his studies, by an easy transition, extended to the histories of robbers, pirates, smugglers, and the whole race of Irish rogues and rapparees. Everything, in short, that savoured of romance, fable, and adventure, was congenial to his poetic mind, and took instant root there; but the slow plants of useful knowledge were apt to be overrun, if not choked, by the weeds of his quick imagination.

Another trait of his motley preceptor, Byrne, was a disposition to dabble in poetry, and this likewise was caught by his pupil. Before he was eight years old Goldsmith had contracted a habit of scribbling verses on small scraps of paper, which, in a little while, he would throw into the fire. A few of these sybilline leaves, however, were rescued from the flames, and conveyed to his mother. The good woman read them with a mother's delight, and saw at once that her son was a genius and a poet. From that time she beset her husband with solicitations to give the boy an education suitable to his talents. The worthy man was already straightened by the costs of instruction of his eldest son Henry, and had intended to bring his second son up to a trade; but the mother would listen to no such thing; as usual her influence prevailed, and Oliver, instead of being instructed in some humble but cheerful and gainful handicraft, was devoted to poverty and the Muse.

A severe attack of the smallpox caused him to be taken from under the care of his story-telling preceptor, Byrne. His malady had nearly proved fatal, and his face remained pitted through life. On his recovery he was placed under the charge of the Rev. Mr. Griffin, schoolmaster of Elphin, in Roscommon, and became an inmate in the house of his uncle, John Goldsmith, Esq., of Ballyoughter, in that vicinity. He now entered upon studies of a high order, but without making any uncommon progress. Still a careless, easy facility of dis-

position, an amusing eccentricity of manners, and a vein of quiet and peculiar humour, rendered him a general favourite, and a trifling incident soon induced his uncle's family to censure in his mother's opinion of his genius.

A number of young folks had assembled at his uncle's to dance. One of the company, named Cummins, played on the violin. In the course of the evening Oliver undertook a hornpipe. His short and clumsy figure, and his face pitted and discoloured with the small-pox, rendered him a ludicrous figure in the eyes of the musician who made merry at his expense, dubbing him his little Æsop. Goldsmith was nettled by the jest, and, stopping short in the hornpipe, exclaimed—

Our herald hath proclaim'd this saying,
See Æsop dancing, and his monkey playing.

The repartee was thought wonderful for a boy of nine years old, and Oliver became forthwith the wit and the bright genius of the family. It was thought a pity he should not receive the same advantages with his elder brother Henry, who had been sent to the university; and, as his father's circumstances would not afford it, several of his relatives, spurred on by the representations of his mother, agreed to contribute towards his expense. The greater part, however, was borne by his uncle, the Rev. Thomas Contarine. The worthy man had been the college companion of Bishop Berkeley, and was possessed of moderate means, holding the living of Carrick-on-Shannon. He had married the sister of Goldsmith's father, but was now a widower, with an only child, a daughter, named Jane. Contarine was a kind-hearted man, with a generosity beyond his means. He took Goldsmith into favour from his infancy: his house was open to him during the holidays; his daughter Jane, two years older than the poet, was his early playmate; and uncle Contarine continued to the last one of his most active, unwavering, and generous friends.

Fitted out in a great measure by this considerate relative, Oliver was now transferred to schools of a higher order, to prepare him for the university; first to one at Athlone, kept by the Rev. Mr. Campbell, and, at the end of two years, to one at Edgeworthstown, under the superintendence of the Rev. Patrick Hughes.

Even at these schools his proficiency does not appear to have been brilliant. He was indolent and careless, however, rather than dull, and, on the whole, appears to have been well thought of by his teachers. In his studies he inclined towards the Latin poets and historians; relished Ovid and Horace, and delighted in Livy. He exercised himself with pleasure in reading and translating Tacitus, and was brought to pay attention to style in his compositions by a reproof from his brother Henry, to whom he had written brief and confused letters, and who told him in reply, that if he had but little to say, to endeavour to say that little well.

The career of his brother Henry at the university was enough to stimulate him to exertion. He seemed to be realizing all his father's hopes, and was winning collegiate honours that the good man considered indicative of his future success in life.

In the meanwhile, Oliver, if not distinguished among his teachers, was popular among his schoolmates. He had a thoughtless generosity extremely captivating to young hearts: his temper was quick and sensitive, and easily offended; but his anger was momentary, and it was impossible for him to harbour resentment. He was the leader of all boyish sports and athletic amusements, especially ball-playing, and he was foremost in all mischievous pranks. Many years afterward, an old man, Jack Fitzsimmons, one of the directors of the sports and keeper of the ball-court at Ballymahon, used to boast of having been schoolmate of "Noll Goldsmith," as he called him, and would dwell with vain glory on one of their exploits, in robbing the orchard of Tirlicken, an old family residence of Lord Aunaly. The exploit, however, had nearly involved disastrous consequences; for the

crew of juvenile depredators were captured, like Shakespeare and his deer-stealing colleagues; and nothing but the respectability of Goldsmith's connexions saved him from the punishment that would have awaited more plebeian delinquents.

An amusing incident is related as occurring in Goldsmith's last journey homeward from Edgeworthstown. His father's house was about twenty miles distant; the road lay through a rough country, impassable for carriages. Goldsmith procured a horse for the journey, and a friend furnished him with a guinea for travelling expenses. He was but a stripling of sixteen, and being thus suddenly mounted on horseback, with money in his pocket, it is no wonder that his head was turned. He determined to play the man, and to spend his money in an independent traveller's style. Accordingly, instead of pushing directly for home, he halted for the night at the little town of Ardlagh, and, accosting the first person he met, inquired, with somewhat of a consequential air, for the best house in the place. Unluckily, the person he had accosted was one Kelly, a notorious wag, who was quartered in the family of Mr. Featherstone, a gentleman of fortune. Amused with the self-consequence of the stripling, and willing to play off a practical joke at his expense, he directed him to what was literally "the best house in the place," namely, the family mansion of Mr. Featherstone. Goldsmith accordingly rode up to what he supposed to be an inn, ordered his horse to be taken to the stable, walked into the parlour, seated himself by the fire, and demanded what he could have for supper. On ordinary occasions he was diffident and even awkward in his manners, but here he was "at ease in his inn," and felt called upon to show his manhood, and enact the experienced traveller. His person was by no means calculated to play off his pretensions, for he was short and thick, with a pock-marked face, and an air of carriage by no means of a distinguished cast. The owner of the house, however, soon discovered his whimsical mistake, and, being a man of humour, determined to indulge it, especially as he accidentally learned that this intruding guest was the son of an old acquaintance.

Accordingly, Goldsmith was "fooled to the top of his bent," and permitted to have full sway throughout the evening. Never was schoolboy more elated. When supper was served, he most condescendingly insisted that the landlord, his wife, and daughter, should partake, and ordered a bottle of wine to crown the repast and benefit the house. His last flourish was on going to bed, when he gave especial orders to have a hot cake at breakfast. His confusion and dismay, on discovering the next morning that he had been swaggering in this free and easy way in the house of a private gentleman, may be readily conceived. True to the habit of turning the events of his life to literary account, we find this chapter of ludicrous blunders and cross purposes dramatized many years afterward in his admirable comedy of "She Stoops to Conquer, or the Mistakes of a Night."

CHAP. II.

Improvident marriages in the Goldsmith family—Goldsmith at the university—Situation of a Sizer—Tyranny of Wilder, the tutor—Pecuniary straits—Street ballads—College riot—Gallows Walsh—College prize—A dance interrupted.

While Oliver was making his way somewhat negligently through the schools, his elder brother Henry was rejoicing his father's heart by his career at the University. He soon distinguished himself at the examinations, and obtained a scholarship in 1748. This is a collegiate distinction which serves as a stepping-stone in any of the learned professions, and which leads to advancement in the University should the individual

choose to remain there. His father now trusted that he would push forward for that comfortable provision, a fellowship, and thence to higher dignities and emoluments. Henry, however, had the improvidence or the "unworldliness" of his race: returning to the country during the succeeding vacation, he married for love, relinquished, of course, all his collegiate prospects and advantages, set up a school in his father's neighbourhood, and buried his talents and acquirements for the remainder of his life in a curacy of forty pounds a year.

Another matrimonial event occurred not long afterwards in the Goldsmith family, to disturb the equanimity of its worthy head. This was the clandestine marriage of his daughter Catherine with a young gentleman of the name of Hodson, who had been confided to the care of her brother Henry to complete his studies. As the youth was of wealthy parentage, it was thought a lucky match for the Goldsmith family; but the tidings of the event stung the bride's father to the soul. Proud of his integrity, and jealous of that good name which was his chief possession, he saw himself and his family subjected to the degrading suspicion of having abused a trust reposed in them to promote a mercenary match. In the first transports of his feelings, he is said to have uttered a wish that his daughter might never have a child to bring like shame and sorrow on her head. The hasty wish, so contrary to the usual benignity of the man, was recalled and repented of almost as soon as uttered; but it was considered baleful in its effects by the superstitious neighbourhood; for, though his daughter bore three children, they all died before her.

A more effectual measure was taken by Mr. Goldsmith to ward off the apprehended imputation, but one which imposed a heavy burden on his family. This was to furnish a marriage portion of four hundred pounds, that his daughter might not be said to have entered her husband's family empty-handed. To raise the sum in cash was impossible; but he assigned to Mr. Hodson his little farm and the income of his tithes until the marriage portion should be paid. In the meantime, as his living did not amount to £200 per annum, he had to practise the strictest economy to pay off gradually this heavy tax incurred by his nice sense of honour.

The first of his family to feel the effects of this economy was Oliver. The time had now arrived for him to be sent to the university; and, accordingly, on the 11th June, 1747, when sixteen years of age, he entered Trinity College, Dublin; but his father was no longer able to place him there as a pensioner, as he had done his eldest son Henry; he was obliged, therefore, to enter him as a "sizer," or poor scholar. He was lodged in one of the top rooms adjoining a library of the building, numbered 35, where it is said his name may still be seen, scratched by himself upon a window-frame.

A student of this class is taught and boarded gratuitously, and has to pay a very small sum for his room. It is expected, in return for these advantages, that he will be a diligent student, and render himself useful in a variety of ways. In Trinity College, at the time of Goldsmith's admission, several derogatory, and, indeed, menial, offices were exacted from the sizer, as if the college sought to indemnify itself for conferring benefits by inflicting indignities. He was obliged to sweep part of the courts in the morning—to carry up the dishes from the kitchen to the fellows' table, and to wait in the hall till that body had dined. His very dress marked the inferiority of the "poor student" to his happier classmates. It was a black gown of coarse stuff without sleeves, and a plain black cloth cap without a tassel. We can conceive nothing more odious and ill-judged than these distinctions, which attached the idea of degradation to poverty, and placed the indigent youth of merit below the worthless minion of fortune. They were calculated to wound and irritate the noble mind, and to render the base mind baser.

Indeed, the galling effect of these servile tasks upon youths of proud spirits and quick sensibilities became at length too notorious to be disregarded. About fifty years since, on a Trinity Sunday, a number of persons were assembled to witness the college ceremonies; and as a sizer was carrying up a dish of meat to the fellows' table, a burly citizen in the crowd made some sneering observations on the servility of his office. Stung to the quick, the high-spirited youth instantly flung the dish and its contents at the head of the sneerer. The sizer was sharply reprimanded for this outbreak of wounded pride, but the degrading task was from that day forward very properly consigned to menial hands.

It was with the utmost repugnance that Goldsmith entered college in this capacity. His shy and sensitive nature was affected by the inferior station he was doomed to hold among his gay and opulent fellow-students, and he became at times moody and despondent. A recollection of these early mortifications induced him in after years most strongly to dissuade his brother Henry, the clergyman, from sending a son to college on a like footing. "If he has ambition, strong passions, and an exquisite sensibility of contempt, do not send him there, unless you have no other trade for him except your own."

To add to his annoyances, the fellow of the college who had the peculiar control of his studies, the Rev. Theaker Wilder, was a man of violent and capricious temper, and of diametrically opposite tastes. The tutor was devoted to the exact sciences—Goldsmith was for the classics. Wilder endeavoured to force his favourite studies upon the student by harsh means, suggested by his own coarse and savage nature. He abused him in presence of the class as ignorant and stupid; ridiculed him as awkward and ugly, and at times in the transports of his temper indulged in personal violence. The effect was to aggravate a passive distaste into a positive aversion. Goldsmith was loud in expressing his contempt for mathematics and his dislike for ethics and logic; and the prejudices thus imbibed continued through life. Mathematics he always pronounced a science to which the meanest intellects were competent.

A truer cause of this distaste for the severer studies may probably be found in his natural indolence and his love of convivial pleasures. I was a lover of mirth, good-humour, and even sometimes of fun," said he, "from my childhood." He sang a good song, was a boon companion, and could not resist any temptation to social enjoyment. He endeavoured to persuade himself that learning and dulness went hand in hand, and that genius was not to be put in harness. Even in riper years, when the consciousness of his own deficiencies ought to have convinced him of the importance of early study, he speaks slightly of college honours.

"A lad," says he, "whose passions are not strong enough in youth to mislead him from that path of science which his tutors and not his inclination have chalked out, by four or five years' perseverance will probably obtain every advantage and honour his college can bestow. I would compare the man whose youth has been thus passed in the tranquillity of dispassionate prudence to liquors that never ferment, and, consequently, continue always muddy."

The death of his worthy father, which took place early in 1747, rendered Goldsmith's situation at college extremely irksome. His mother was left with little more than the means of providing for the wants of her household, and was unable to furnish him any remittances. He would have been compelled, therefore, to leave college, had it not been for the occasional contributions of friends, the foremost among whom was his generous and warm-hearted uncle Contarine. Still these supplies were so scanty and precarious, that in the intervals between them he was put to great straits. He had two college associates from whom he would occa-

sionally borrow small sums; one was an early school-mate, by the name of Beatty; the other a cousin, and a chosen companion of his frolics, Robert (or rather Bob) Bryanton, of Ballymulvey House, near Ballymahon. When these casual supplies failed him, he was more than once obliged to raise funds for his immediate wants by pawning his books. At times he sank into despondency, but he had what he termed "a knack at hoping," which soon buoyed him up again. He began now to resort to his poetical vein as a source of profit, scribbling street-ballads, which he privately sold for five shillings each at a shop which dealt in such small wares of literature. He felt an author's affection for these unowned bantlings, and we are told would stroll privately through the streets at night to hear them sung, listening to the comments and criticisms of by-standers, and observing the degree of applause which each received.

Edmund Burke was a fellow-student with Goldsmith at the college. Neither the statesman nor the poet gave promise of their future celebrity, though Burke certainly surpassed his contemporary in industry and application, and evinced more disposition for self-improvement, associating himself with a number of his fellow-students in a debating-club, in which they discussed literary topics, and exercised themselves in composition.

Goldsmith may likewise have belonged to this association, but his propensity was rather to mingle with the gay and thoughtless. On one occasion we find him implicated in an affair that came high producing his expulsion. A report was brought to college that a scholar was in the hands of the bailiffs. This was an insult in which every gownsmen felt himself involved. A number of the scholars flew to arms, and sallied forth to battle, headed by a hair-brained fellow named Gallows Walsh, noted for his aptness at mischief and fondness for riot. The stronghold of the bailiff was carried by storm, the scholar set at liberty, and the delinquent catchpole borne off captive to the college, where, having no pump to put him under, they satisfied the demands of collegiate law by ducking him in an old cistern.

Flushed with this signal victory, Gallows Walsh now harangued his followers, and proposed to break open Newgate, or the Black Dog, as the prison was called, and effect a general jail-delivery. He was answered by shouts of concurrence, and away went the throng of madcap youngers fully bent upon putting an end to the tyranny of law. They were joined by the mob of the city, and made an attack upon the prison with true Irish precipitation and thoughtlessness, never having provided themselves with cannon to batter its stone walls. A few shots from the prison brought them to their senses, and they beat a hasty retreat, two of the townsmen being killed, and several wounded.

A severe scrutiny of this affair took place at the university. Four students, who had been ringleaders, were expelled; four others who had been prominent in the affray, were publicly admonished; among the latter was the unlucky Goldsmith.

To make up for this disgrace, he gained, within a month afterward, one of the minor prizes of the college. It is true it was one of the very smallest, amounting in pecuniary value to but thirty shillings, but it was the first distinction he had gained in his whole collegiate career. This turn of success and sudden influx of wealth proved too much for the head of our poor student. He forthwith gave a supper and dance at his chamber to a number of young persons of both sexes from the city, in direct violation of college rules. The unwonted sound of the fiddle reached the ears of the implacable Wilder. He rushed to the scene of unhallowed festivity, inflicted corporeal punishment on the "father of the feast," and turned his astonished guests neck and heels out of doors.

This filled the measure of poor Goldsmith's humiliations; he felt degraded both within college and without.

He dreaded the ridicule of his fellow-students for the ludicrous termination of his orgie, and he was ashamed to meet his city acquaintances after the degrading chastisement received in their presence, and after their own ignominious expulsion. Above all, he felt it impossible to submit to the insulting tyranny of Wilder: he determined, therefore, to leave, not merely the college, but also his native land, and to bury what he conceived to be his irretrievable disgrace in some distant country. He accordingly sold his books and clothes, and sallied forth from the college walls the very next day, intending to embark at Cork for—he scarce knew where—America, or any other part beyond sea. With his usual imprudence, however, he loitered about Dublin until his finances were reduced to a shilling; with this amount of specie he set out on his journey.

For three whole days he subsisted on his shilling; when that was spent, he parted with some of the clothes from his back, until, reduced almost to nakedness, he was four-and-twenty hours without food, inasmuch that he declared a handful of grey peas, given to him by a girl at a wake, was one of the most delicious repasts he had ever tasted. Hunger, fatigue, and destitution brought down his spirit and calmed his anger. Fain would he have retraced his steps, could he have done so with any salvo for the lingerings of his pride. In this extremity he conveyed to his brother Henry information of his distress, and of the rash project on which he had set out. His affectionate brother hastened to his relief; furnished him with money and clothes; soothed his feelings with gentle counsel; prevailed upon him to return to college, and effected an indifferent reconciliation between him and Wilder.

After this irregular sally upon life he remained nearly two years longer at the university, giving proofs of talent in occasional translations from the classics, for one of which he received a premium, awarded only to those who are the first in literary merit. Still he never made much figure at college, his natural disinclination to study being increased by the harsh treatment he continued to experience from his tutor.

Among the anecdotes told of him while at college is one indicative of that prompt but thoughtless and often whimsical benevolence which throughout life formed one of the most eccentric, yet endearing points of his character. He was engaged to breakfast one day with a college intimate, but failed to make his appearance. His friend repaired to his room, knocked at the door, and was bidden to enter. To his surprise he found Goldsmith in bed, immersed to his chin in feathers. A serio-comic story explained the circumstance. In the course of the preceding evening's stroll he had met with a woman with five children, who implored his charity. Her husband was in the hospital; she was just from the country, a stranger, and destitute, without food or shelter for her helpless offspring. This was too much for the kind heart of Goldsmith. He was almost as poor as herself, it is true, and had no money in his pocket; but he brought her to the college gate, gave her the blankets from his bed to cover her little brood, and part of his clothes for her to sell and purchase food; and, finding himself cold during the night, had cut open his bed and buried himself among the feathers.

At length, on the 27th of February, 1749, O. S., he was admitted to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, and took his final leave of the university. He was freed from college rule—that emancipation so ardently coveted by the thoughtless student, and which too generally launches him amid the cares, the hardships, and vicissitudes of life. He was freed, too, from the brutal tyranny of Wilder. If his kind and placable nature could retain any resentment for past injuries, it might have been gratified by learning subsequently that the passionate career of Wilder was terminated by a violent death in the course of a dissolute brawl; but Goldsmith

took no delight in the misfortunes even of his enemies.

He now returned to his friends, no longer the student to sport away the happy interval of vacation, but the anxious man, who is henceforth to shift for himself and make his way through the world. In fact, he had no legitimate home to return to. At the death of his father, the paternal house at Lissoy, in which Goldsmith had passed his childhood, had been taken by Mr. Hodson, who had married his sister Catherine. His mother had removed to Ballymahon, where she occupied a small house, and had to practise the severest frugality. His elder brother Henry served the curacy and taught the school of his late father's parish, and lived in narrow circumstances at Goldsmith's birthplace, the old goblin-house at Pallas.

None of his relatives were in circumstances to aid him with anything more than a temporary home, and the aspect of every one seemed somewhat changed. In fact, his career at college had disappointed his friends, and they began to doubt his being the great genius they had fancied him. He whimsically alludes to this circumstance in that piece of autobiography, "The Man in Black," in the "Citizen of the World."

"The first opportunity my father had of finding his expectations disappointed was in the middling figure I made at the university: he had flattered himself that he should soon see me rising into the foremost rank in literary reputation, but was mortified to find me utterly unnoticed and unknown. His disappointment might have been partly ascribed to his having overrated my talents, and partly to my dislike of mathematical reasonings at a time when my imagination and memory, yet unsatisfied, were more eager after new objects than desirous of reasoning upon those I knew. This, however, did not please my tutors, who observed, indeed, that I was a little dull, but at the same time allowed that I seemed to be very goodnatured, and had no harm in me."

The only one of his relatives who did not appear to lose faith in him was his uncle Contarine. This kind and considerate man, it is said, saw in him a warmth of heart requiring some skill to direct, and a latent genius that wanted time to mature, and these impressions none of his subsequent follies and irregularities wholly obliterated. His purse and affection, therefore, as well as his house, were now open to him, and he became his chief counsellor and director after his father's death. He urged him to prepare for holy orders; and others of his relatives concurred in the advice. Goldsmith had a settled repugnance to a clerical life. This has been ascribed by some to conscientious scruples, not considering himself of a temper and frame of mind for such a sacred office: others attributed it to his roving propensities, and his desire to visit foreign countries; he himself gives a whimsical objection in his biography of the "Man in Black":—"To be obliged to wear a long wig when I liked a short one, or a black coat when I generally dressed in brown, I thought such a restraint upon my liberty that I absolutely rejected the proposal."

In effect, however, his scruples were overruled, and he agreed to qualify himself for the office. He was now only twenty-one, and must pass two years of probation. They were two years of rather loitering, unsettled life. Sometimes he was at Lissoy, participating with thoughtless enjoyment in the rural sports and occupations of his brother-in-law, Mr. Hodson; sometimes he was with his brother Henry, at the old goblin mansion at Pallas, assisting him occasionally in his school. The early marriage and unambitious retirement of Henry, though so subversive of the fond plans of his father, had proved happy in their results. He was already surrounded by a blooming family; he was contented with his lot, beloved by his parishioners, and lived in the daily practice of all the amiable virtues, and the immediate enjoyment of their reward. Of the tender affection inspired in the breast of Goldsmith by the constant

kindness of this excellent brother, and of the longing recollection with which, in the lonely wanderings of after years, he looked back upon this scene of domestic felicity, we have a touching instance in the well-known opening to his poem of "The Traveller":—

Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow,
Or by the lazy Scheld or wandering Po;

Where'er I roam, whatever realms to see,
My heart untravell'd fondly turns to thee;
Still to my brother turns with ceaseless pain,
And drags at each remove a lengthening chain.
Eternal blessings crown my earliest friend,
And round his dwelling guardian saints attend:
Bless'd be that spot, where cheerful guests retire
To pause from toil, and trim their evening fire;
Bless'd that abode, where want and pain repair,
And every stranger finds a ready chair:
Bless'd be those feasts with simple plenty crown'd,
Where all the ruddy family around
Laugh at the jests or pranks that never fail,
Or sigh with pity at some mournful tale;
Or press the bashful stranger to his food,
And learn the luxury of doing good.

During this loitering life Goldsmith pursued no study, but rather amused himself with miscellaneous reading; such as biography, travels, poetry, novels, plays—everything, in short, that administered to the imagination. Sometimes he strolled along the banks of the river Inny; where in after years, when he had become famous, his favourite seats and haunts used to be pointed out. Often he joined in the rustic sports of the villagers, and became adroit at throwing the sledge, a favourite feat of activity and strength in Ireland. Recollections of these "healthful sports" we find in his "Deserted Village":—

How often have I bless'd the coming day,
When toil remitting lent its turn to play,
And all the village train, from labour free,
Led up their sports beneath the spreading tree;
And many a gambol frolick'd o'er the ground,
And sleights of art and feats of strength went round.

A boon companion in all his rural amusements was his cousin and college crony, Robert Bryanton, with whom he sojourned occasionally at Ballymulvey House in the neighbourhood. They used to make excursions about the country on foot, sometimes fishing, sometimes hunting otter in the Inny. They got up a country club at the little inn of Ballymahon, of which Goldsmith soon became the oracle and prime wit; astonishing his unlettered associates by his learning, and being considered capital at a song and a story. From the rustic conviviality of the inn at Ballymahon, and the company which used to assemble there, it is surmised that he took some hints in after life for his picturing of Tony Lumpkin and his associates: "Dick Muggins, the exciseman; Jack Slang, the horse doctor; little Aminadab, that grinds the music box, and Tom Twist, that spins the pewter platter." Nay, it is thought that Tony's drinking song at the "Three Jolly Pigeons," was but a revival of one of the convivial catches at Ballymahon:—

Then come, put the jorum about,
And let us be merry and clever,
Our hearts and our liquors are stout,
Here's the Three Jolly Pigeons for ever.
Let some cry of woodcock or hare,
Your bustards, your ducks, and your widgeons,
But of all the gay birds in the air,
Here's health to the Three Jolly Pigeons.
Toroddle, toroddle, toroll.

Notwithstanding all these accomplishments and this rural popularity, his friends began to shake their heads and shrug their shoulders when they spoke of him; and his brother Henry noted with anything but satisfaction his frequent visits to the club at Ballymahon. He emerged, however, unscathed from this dangerous ordeal, more fortunate in this respect than his comrade Bryanton; but he retained throughout life a fondness for clubs: often, too, in the course of his chequered career, he looked back to this period of rural sports and careless

enjoyments, as one of the few sunny sports of his cloudy life; and though he ultimately rose to associate with birds of a finer feather, his heart would still yearn in secret after the "Three Jolly Pigeons."

CHAP. III.

Goldsmith rejected by the Bishop—Second sally to see the world—Takes passage for America—Ship sails without him—Return on Fiddle-back—A hospitable friend—The Counsellor.

The time was now arrived for Goldsmith to apply for orders, and he presented himself accordingly before the Bishop of Elfin for ordination. We have stated his great objection to clerical life, the obligation to wear a black coat; and whimsical as it may appear, dress seems in fact to have formed an obstacle to his entrance into the church. He had ever a passion for clothing his sturdy but awkward little person in gay colours; and on this solemn occasion, when it was to be supposed his garb would be of suitable gravity, he appeared luminously arrayed in scarlet breeches! He was rejected by the bishop: some say for want of sufficient studious preparation—his rambles and frolics with Bob Bryanton, and his revels with the club at Ballymahon, having been much in the way of his theological studies; others attribute his rejection to reports of his college irregularities, which the bishop had received from his old tyrant Wilder; but those who look into the matter with more knowing eyes, pronounce the scarlet breeches to have been the fundamental objection. "My friends," says Goldsmith, speaking through his humorous representative, the "Man in Black"—"my friends were now perfectly satisfied I was undone; and yet they thought it a pity for one that had not the least harm in him, and was so very good-natured." His uncle Contarine, however, still remained unwavering in his kindness, though much less sanguine in his expectations. He now looked round for a humbler sphere of action, and through his influence and exertions Oliver was received as tutor in the family of a Mr. Flinn, a gentleman of the neighbourhood. The situation was apparently respectable; he had his seat at the table, and joined the family in their domestic recreations and their evening game at cards. There was a servility, however, in his position, which was not to his taste: nor did his deference for the family increase upon familiar intercourse. He charged a member of it with unfair play at cards. A violent altercation ensued, which ended in his throwing up his situation as tutor. On being paid off he found himself in possession of an unheard-of amount of money. His wandering propensity and his desire to see the world were instantly in the ascendency. Without communicating his plans or his intentions to his friends, he procured a good horse, and with thirty pounds in his pocket made his second sally forth into the world.

The worthy niece and housekeeper of the hero of *La Mancha* could not have been more surprised and dismayed at one of the Don's clandestine expeditions, than were the mother and friends of Goldsmith when they heard of his mysterious departure. Weeks elapsed, and nothing was seen or heard of him. It was feared that he had left the country on one of his wandering freaks, and his poor mother was reduced almost to despair, when one day he arrived at her door almost as forlorn in plight as the prodigal son. Of his thirty pounds not a shilling was left; and instead of the goodly steed on which he had issued forth on his errantry, he was mounted on a sorry little pony, which he had nicknamed *Fiddle-back*. As soon as his mother was well assured of his safety, she rated him soundly for his inconsiderate conduct. His brothers and sisters, who were tenderly

attached to him, interfered, and succeeded in mollifying her ire; and whatever lurking anger the good dame might have, was no doubt effectually vanquished by the following whimsical narrative, which he drew up at his brother's house and despatched to her.

"My dear mother, if you will sit down and calmly listen to what I say, you shall be fully resolved in every one of those many questions you have asked me. I went to Cork, and converted my horse, which you prize so much higher than *Fiddle-back*, into cash, took my passage in a ship bound for America, and, at the same time, paid the captain for my freight and all the other expenses of my voyage. But it so happened the wind did not answer for three weeks; and you know, mother, that I could not command the elements. My misfortune was, that, when the wind served, I happened to be with a party in the country, and my friend the captain never inquired after me, but set sail with as much indifference as if I had been on board. The remainder of the time I employed in the city and its environs, viewing everything curious, and you know no one can starve while he has money in his pocket.

"Reduced, however, to my last two guineas, I began to think of my dear mother and friends whom I had left behind me, and so bought that generous beast *Fiddle-back*, and bade adieu to Cork with only five shillings in my pocket. This, to be sure, was but a scanty allowance for man and horse towards a journey of above a hundred miles; but I did not despair, for I knew I must find friends on the road.

"I recollected particularly an old and faithful acquaintance I made at college, who had often and earnestly pressed me to spend a summer with him, and he lived but eight miles from Cork. This circumstance of vicinity he would expatiate on to me with peculiar emphasis. 'We shall,' says he, 'enjoy the delights of both city and country, and you shall command my stable and my purse.'

"However, upon the way I met a poor woman all in tears, who told me her husband had been arrested for a debt he was not able to pay, and that his eight children must now starve, bereaved as they were of his industry, which had been their only support. I thought myself at home, being not far from my good friend's house, and therefore parted with a moiety of all my store; and pray, mother, ought I not to have given her the other half-crown, for what she got would be of little use to her? However, I soon arrived at the mansion of my affectionate friend, guarded by the vigilance of a huge mastiff, who flew at me and would have torn me to pieces but for the assistance of a woman, whose countenance was not less grim than that of the dog; yet she with great humanity relieved me from the jaws of this Cerberus, and was prevailed on to carry up my name to her master.

"Without suffering me to wait long, my old friend, who was then recovering from a severe fit of sickness, came down in his nightcap, nightgown, and slippers, and embraced me with the most cordial welcome, showed me in, and, after giving me a history of his indisposition, assured me that he considered himself peculiarly fortunate in having under his roof the man he most loved on earth, and whose stay with him must, above all things, contribute to his perfect recovery. I now repented sorely I had not given the poor woman the other half-crown, as I thought all my bills of humanity would be punctually answered by this worthy man. I revealed to him my whole soul; I opened to him all my distresses; and freely owned that I had but one half-crown in my pocket; but that now, like a ship after weathering out the storm, I considered myself secure in a safe and hospitable harbour. He made no answer, but walked about the room, rubbing his hands as one in deep study. This I imputed to the sympathetic feelings of a tender heart, which increased my esteem for him, and, as that

increased, I gave the most favourable interpretation to his silence. I construed it into delicacy of sentiment, as if he dreaded to wound my pride by expressing his commiseration in words, leaving his generous conduct to speak for itself.

"It now approached six o'clock in the evening, and as I had eaten no breakfast, and as my spirits were raised, my appetite for dinner grew uncommonly keen. At length the old woman came into the room with two plates, one spoon, and a dirty cloth, which she laid upon the table. This appearance, without increasing my spirits, did not diminish my appetite. My protectress soon returned with a small bowl of sago, a small porringer of sour milk, a loaf of stale brown bread, and the heel of an old cheese all over crawling with mites. My friend apologised that his illness obliged him to live on slops, and that better fare was not in the house; observing, at the same time, that a milk diet was certainly the most healthful; and at eight o'clock he again recommended a regular life, declaring for his part he would 'lie down with the lamb and rise with the lark.' My hunger was at this time so exceedingly sharp that I wished for another slice of the loaf, but was obliged to go to bed without even that refreshment.

"This lenten entertainment I had received made me resolve to depart as soon as possible; accordingly, next morning, when I spoke of going, he did not oppose my resolution; he rather commended my design, adding some very sage counsel upon the occasion. 'To be sure,' said he, 'the longer you stay away from your mother the more you will grieve her and your other friends; and possibly they are already afflicted at hearing of this foolish expedition you have made.' Notwithstanding all this, and without any hope of softening such a sordid heart, I again renewed the tale of my distress, and asking 'how he thought I could travel above a hundred miles upon one half-crown?' I begged to borrow a single guinea, which I assured him should be repaid with thanks. 'And you know, sir,' said I, 'it is no more than I have done for you.' To which he firmly answered, 'Why, look you, Mr. Goldsmith, that is neither here nor there. I have paid you all you ever lent me, and this sickness of mine has left me bare of cash. But I have bethought myself of a conveyance for you; sell your horse, and I will furnish you a much better one to ride on. I readily grasped at his proposal, and begged to see the nag; on which he led me to his bed-chamber, and from under the bed he pulled out a stout oak stick. 'Here he is,' said he; 'take this in your hand, and it will carry you to your mother's with more safety than such a horse as you ride.' I was in doubt, when I got it into my head, whether I should not in the first place apply it to his pate; but a rap at the street door made the wretch fly to it, and when I returned to the parlour he introduced me, as if nothing of the kind had happened, to the gentleman who entered, as Mr. Goldsmith, his most ingenious and worthy friend, of whom he had so often heard him speak with rapture. I could scarcely compose myself; and must have betrayed indignation in my mien to the stranger, who was a counsellor-at-law in the neighbourhood, a man of engaging aspect and polite address.

"After spending an hour, he asked my friend and me to dine with him at his house. This I declined at first, as I wished to have no further communication with my hospitable friend; but at the solicitation of both I at last consented, determined as I was by two motives; one, that I was prejudiced in favour of the looks and manner of the counsellor; and the other, that I stood in need of a comfortable dinner. And there, indeed, I found everything I could wish, abundance without profusion, and elegance without affectation. In the evening, when my old friend, who had eaten very plentifully at his neighbour's table, but talked again of lying down with the lamb, made a motion to me for retiring, our

generous host requested I should take a bed with him, upon which I plainly told my old friend that he might go home and take care of the horse he had given me, but that I should never re-enter his doors. He went away with a laugh, leaving me to add this to the other little things the counsellor already knew of his plausible neighbour.

"And now, my dear mother, I found sufficient to reconcile me to all my follies; for here I spent three whole days. The counsellor had two sweet girls to his daughters, who played enchantingly on the harpsichord; and yet it was but a melancholy pleasure I felt the first time I heard them; for that being the first time also that either of them had touched the instrument since their mother's death, I saw the tears in silence trickle down their father's cheeks. I every day endeavoured to go away, but every day was pressed and obliged to stay. On my going, the counsellor offered me his purse, with a horse and servant to convey me home; but the latter I declined, and only took a guinea to bear my necessary expenses on the road.

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

"To Mrs. Anne Goldsmith, Ballymahon."

Such is the story given by the poet-errant of this his second sally in quest of adventures. We cannot but think it was here and there touched up a little with the fanciful pen of the future essayist, with a view to amuse his mother and soften her vexation; but even in these respects it is valuable, as showing the early play of his humour, and his happy knack of extracting sweets from that worldly experience which to others yields nothing but bitterness.

CHAP. IV.

Sallies forth as a law student—Stumbles at the outset—Cousin Jane and the valentine—A family oracle—Sallies forth as a student of medicine—Hocus-pocus of a boarding-house—Transformation of a leg of mutton—The mock ghost—Sketches of Scotland—Trials of toadyism—A poet's purse for a continental tour.

A new consultation was held among Goldsmith's friends as to his future course, and it was determined he should try the law. His uncle Contarine agreed to advance the necessary funds, and actually furnished him with fifty pounds, with which he set off for London to enter on his studies at the Temple. Unfortunately, he fell in company at Dublin with a Roscommon acquaintance, one whose wits had been sharpened about town, who beguiled him into a gambling-house, and soon left him as penniless as when he bestrode the redoubtable Fiddle-back.

He was so ashamed of this fresh instance of gross heedlessness and imprudence, that he remained some time in Dublin without communicating to his friends his destitute condition. They heard of it, however, and he was invited back to the country, and indulgently forgiven by his generous uncle, but less readily by his mother, who was mortified and disheartened at seeing all her early hopes of him so repeatedly blighted. His brother Henry, too, began to lose patience at these successive failures, resulting from thoughtless indiscretion; and a quarrel took place, which for some time interrupted their usually affectionate intercourse.

The only home where poor erring Goldsmith still received a welcome was the parsonage of his affectionate and forgiving uncle. Here he used to talk of literature with the good simple-hearted man, and delight him and his daughter with his verses. Jane, his early playmate, was now "the woman grown;" their intercourse was of poetry and music; she played on the harpsichord, and he accompanied her with his flute. The music may not have been very artistic, as he never performed but by ear; it had probably as much merit as the poetry, which,

if we may judge by the following specimen, was as yet but juvenile:—

"To a Young Lady on Valentine's-day, with the drawing of a heart."

With submission at your shrine,
Comes a heart your Valentine,
From the side where once it grew,
See, it panting flies to you.
Take it, fair one, to your breast,
Soothe the fluttering thing to rest;
Let the gentle, spotless toy
Be your sweetest, greatest joy;
Every night, when wrapp'd in sleep,
Next your heart the conquest keep;
Or if dreams your fancy move,
Hear it whisper me in love.
Then in pity to the swain,
Who must heartless else remain,
Soft as gentle, dewy flows
Slow descend on April flows—
Soft as gentle riv'lets glide,
Steal unnoticed to my side;
If the gem you have to spare,
Take your own and place it there."

If this valentine was intended for the fair Jane, and expressive of a tender sentiment indulged by the strippling poet, it was unavailing; as not long afterwards she was married to a Mr. Lawder. We trust, however, it was but a poetical passion of that transient kind which grows up in idleness and exhales itself in rhyme. While Oliver was thus piping and poetising at the parsonage, his uncle Contarine received a visit from Dean Goldsmith of Cloyne—a kind of magnate in the wide but improvident family connexion, throughout which his word was law and almost gospel. This august dignitary was pleased to discover signs of talent in Oliver, and suggested as he had attempted divinity and law without success, he should now try physic. The advice came from too important a source to be disregarded, and it was determined to send him to Edinburgh to commence his studies. The dean having given the advice, added to it, we trust, his blessing, but no money; that was furnished from the scantier purses of Goldsmith's brother, his sister (Mrs. Hodson), and his ever-ready uncle Contarine.

It was in the autumn of 1752 that Goldsmith arrived in Edinburgh. His outset in that city came near adding to the list of his indiscretions and disasters. Having taken lodgings at hap-hazard, he left his trunk there, containing all his worldly effects, and sallied forth to see the town. After sauntering about the streets until a late hour, he thought of returning home, when to his confusion, he found he had not acquainted himself with the name either of his landlady or of the street in which she lived. Fortunately, in the height of his whimsical perplexity, he met the cawdy or porter who had carried his trunk, and who now served him as a guide.

He did not remain long in the lodgings in which he had put up. The hostess was too adroit at that hocus pocus of the table which often is practised in cheap boarding-houses. No one could conjure a single joint through a greater variety of forms. A loin of mutton, according to Goldsmith's account, would serve him and two fellow-students a whole week. "A brandered chop was served up one day, a fried steak another, collops with onion sauce a third, and so on until the fleshy parts were quite consumed, when finally a dish of broth was manufactured from the bones on the seventh day, and the landlady rested from her labours." Goldsmith had a good-humoured mode of taking things, and for a short time amused himself with the shifts and expedients of his landlady, which struck him in a ludicrous manner; he soon, however, fell in with fellow-students from his own country, whom he joined at more eligible quarters.

He now attended medical lectures, and attached himself to an association of students called the Medical

Society. He set out, as usual, with the best intentions, but as usual soon fell into idle, convivial, thoughtless habits. Edinburgh was indeed a place of sore trial for one of his temperament. Convivial meetings were all the vogue, and the tavern was the universal rallying-place of good-fellowship. And then Goldsmith's intimacies lay chiefly among the Irish students, who were always ready for a wild freak and frolic. Among them he was a prime favourite and somewhat of a leader, from his exuberance of spirits, his vein of humour, and his talent at singing an Irish song and telling an Irish story.

His usual carelessness in money matters attended him. Though his supplies from home were scanty and irregular, he never could bring himself into habits of prudence and economy; often he lavished them away in fits of unguarded charity or generosity. Sometimes among his companions he assumed a ludicrous swagger in money matters, which no one afterwards was more ready than himself to laugh at. At a convivial meeting with a number of his fellow-students, he suddenly proposed to draw lots with any one present which of the two should treat the whole party to the play. The moment the proposition had bolted from his lips his heart was in his throat. "To my great though secret joy," said he, "they all declined the challenge. Had it been accepted, and had I proved the loser, a part of my wardrobe must have been pledged in order to raise the money."

At another of these meetings there was an earnest dispute on the question of ghosts, some being firm believers in the possibility of departed spirits returning to visit their friends and familiar haunts. One of the disputants set sail the next day for London, but the vessel put back through stress of weather. His return was unknown except to one of the believers in ghosts, who concerted with him a trick to be played off on the opposite party. In the evening, at a meeting of the students, the discussion was renewed; and one of the most strenuous opposers of ghosts was asked whether he considered himself proof against ocular demonstration? He persisted in his scoffing. Some solemn process of conjuration was performed, and the comrade supposed to be on his way to London made his appearance. The effect was fatal. The unbeliever fainted at the sight, and ultimately went mad. We have no account of what share Goldsmith took in this transaction, at which he was present.

The following letter to his friend Bryanton contains some of Goldsmith's impressions concerning Scotland and its inhabitants, and gives indications of that humour which characterised some of his late writings.

"Robert Bryanton, at Ballymahon, Ireland."

Edinburgh, Sept. 26th, 1753.

"MY DEAR BOB,—How many good excuses (and you know I was ever good at an excuse) might I call up to vindicate my past shameful silence. I might tell how I wrote a long letter on my first coming hither, and seem vastly angry at my not receiving an answer; I might allege that business (with business you know I was always pestered) had never given me time to finger a pen. But I suppress those and twenty more as plausible, and as easily invented, since they might be attended with a slight inconvenience of being known to be lies. Let me then speak truth. An hereditary indolence (I have it from my mother's side) has hitherto prevented my writing to you, and still prevents my writing at least twenty-five letters more due to my friends in Ireland. No turnspit-dog gets up into his wheel with more reluctance than I sit down to write; yet no dog ever loved the roast meat he turns better than I do him I now address.

"Yet what shall I say now I am entered? Shall I tire you with a description of this unfruitful country, where I must lead you over their hills all brown with heath, or their valleys scarcely able to feed a rabbit?

Man alone seems to be the only creature who has arrived to the natural size in this poor soil. Every part of the country presents the same dismal landscape. No grove nor brook lend their music to cheer the stranger, or make the inhabitants forget their poverty. Yet with all these disadvantages to call him down to humility, a Scotchman is one of the proudest things alive. The poor have pride ever ready to relieve them. If mankind should ever despise them, they are masters of their own admiration; and that they can plentifully bestow upon themselves.

"From their pride and poverty, as I take it, results one advantage this country enjoys; namely, the gentlemen here are much better bred than among us. No such character here as our fox-hunters; and they have expressed great surprise when I informed them that some men in Ireland of one thousand pounds a year spend their whole lives in running after a hare, and drinking to be drunk. Truly if such a being, equipped in his hunting dress, came among a circle of Scotch gentry, they would behold him with the same astonishment that a countryman does King George on horseback.

"The men here have generally high cheek-bones, and are lean and swarthy, fond of action, dancing in particular. Now that I have mentioned dancing, let me say something of their balls, which are very frequent here. When a stranger enters the dancing-hall, he sees one end of the room taken up by the ladies, who sit dismally in a group by themselves;—in the other end stand their pensive partners that are to be;—but no more intercourse between the sexes than there is between two countries at war. The ladies indeed may ogle, and the gentlemen sigh; but an embargo is laid on any closer commerce. At length, to interrupt hostilities, the lady-directress, or intendant, or what you will, pitches upon a lady and gentleman to walk a minuet, which they perform with a formality that approaches to despondence. After five or six couple have thus walked the gauntlet, all stand up to country-dances, each gentleman furnished with a partner from the aforesaid lady-directress; so they dance much, say nothing, and thus concludes our assembly. I told a Scotch gentleman that such profound silence resembled the ancient procession of the Roman matrons in honour of Ceres; and the Scotch gentleman told me (and, faith, I believe he was right) that I was a very great pedant for my pains.

"Now I am come to the ladies; and to show that I love Scotland, and everything that belongs to so charming a country, I insist on it, and will give him leave to break my head that denies it—that the Scotch ladies are ten thousand times finer and handsomer than the Irish. To be sure, now, I see your sisters, Betty and Peggy, vastly surprised at my partiality; tell them flattery I don't value them, or their fine skins, or eyes, or good sense, or—a potato;—for I say, and will maintain it, and as a convincing proof (I am in a great passion) of what I assert, the Scotch ladies say it themselves. But to be less serious; where will you find a language so prettily become a pretty mouth as the broad Scotch? And the women here speak it in its highest purity; for instance, teach one of your young ladies at home to pronounce the 'Whoar wull I gong?' with a becoming widening of the mouth, and I'll lay my life they'll wound every hearer.

"We have no such character here as a coquette, but alas! how many envious prudes? Some days ago I walked into my Lord Kilcubry's (don't be surprised, my lord is but a glove)* when the Duchess of Hamilton (that fair who sacrificed her beauty to her ambition, and her inward peace to a title and gilt equipage) passed by

in her chariot; her battered husband, or more properly speaking the guardian of her charms, sat by her side. Straight envy began, in the shape of no less than three ladies who sat with me, to find faults in her faultless form.—'For my part,' says the first, 'I think what I always thought, that the duchess has too much of the red in her complexion.' 'Madam, I am of your opinion,' says the second; 'I think her face has a palish cast, too much on the delicate order.' 'And, let me tell you,' added the third lady, whose mouth was puckered up to the size of an issue, 'that the duchess has fine lips, but she wants a mouth.'—At this every lady drew up her mouth as if going to pronounce the letter P.

"But how ill, my Bob, does it become me to ridicule women with whom I have scarcely any correspondence! There are, 'tis certain, handsome women here: and 'tis certain they have handsome men to keep them company. An ugly and poor man is society only for himself; and such society the world lets me enjoy in great abundance. Fortune has given you circumstances, and nature a person to look charming in the eyes of the fair. Nor do I envy my dear Bob such blessings, while I may sit down and laugh at the world and at myself—the most ridiculous object in it. But you see I am grown downright splenetic, and perhaps the fit may continue till I receive an answer to this. I know you cannot send me much news from Ballymahon, but such as it is, send it all; everything you send will be agreeable to me.

"Has George Conway put up a sign yet; or John Binley left off drinking drams; or Tom Allen got a new wig? But I leave you to your own choice what to write. While I live, know you have a true friend in yours, &c.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

"P.S.—Give my sincere respects (not compliments, do you mind) to your agreeable family, and give my service to my mother, if you see her; for, as you express it in Ireland, I have a sneaking kindness for her still. Direct to me, —, Student in Physic, in Edinburgh."

Nothing worthy of preservation appeared from his pen during his residence in Edinburgh; and indeed his poetical powers, highly as they had been estimated by his friends, had not as yet produced anything of superior merit. He made on one occasion a month's excursion to the Highlands. "I set out the first day on foot," says he, in a letter to his uncle Contarine, "but an ill-natured corn I have on my toe has for the future prevented that cheap mode of travelling; so the second day I hired a horse about the size of a ram, and he walked away (trot he could not) as pensive as his master."

During his residence in Scotland his convivial talents gained him at one time attentions in a high quarter, which, however, he had the good sense to appreciate correctly. "I have spent," says he, in one of his letters, "more than a fortnight every second day at the Duke of Hamilton's; but it seems they like me more as a jester than as a companion, so I disdained so servile an employment as unworthy my calling as a physician." Here we again find the origin of another passage in his autobiography, under the character of the "Man in Black," wherein that worthy figures as a flatterer to a great man. "At first," says he, "I was surprised that the situation of a flatterer at a great man's table could be thought disagreeable; there was no great trouble in listening attentively when his lordship spoke, and laughing when he looked round for applause. This, even good manners might have obliged me to perform. I found, however, too soon, his lordship was a greater dunce than myself, and from that moment flattery was at an end. I now rather aimed at setting him right than at receiving his absurdities with submission. To flatter those we do not know is an easy task: but to flatter our intimate acquaintances, all whose foibles are strongly in our eyes, is drudgery insupportable. Every time I now opened my lips in praise, my falsehood went to my conscience; his lordship soon perceived me to be very unfit for his ser-

* William Maclellan, who claimed the title, and whose son succeeded in establishing the claim in 1773. The father is said to have voted at the election of the sixteen Peers for Scotland; and to have sold gloves in the lobby of this and other public assemblies.

vice; I was therefore discharged—my patron at the same time being graciously pleased to observe that he believed I was tolerably good-natured, and had not the least harm in me."

After spending two winters at Edinburgh, Goldsmith prepared to finish his medical studies on the continent, for which his uncle Contarine agreed to furnish the funds. "I intend," said he, in a letter to his uncle, "to visit Paris, where the great Farheim, Petit, and Du Hammel de Monceau instruct their pupils in all the branches of medicine. They speak French, and consequently I shall have much the advantage of most of my countrymen, as I am perfectly acquainted with that language, and few who leave Ireland are so. I shall spend the spring and summer in Paris, and the beginning of next winter go to Leyden. The great Albius is still alive there, and 'twill be proper to go, though only to have it said that we have studied in so famous a university."

"As I shall not have another opportunity of receiving money from your bounty till my return to Ireland, so I have drawn for the last sum that I hope I shall ever trouble you for; 'tis £20. And now, dear sir, let me acknowledge the humility of the station in which you found me; let me tell how I was despised by most, and hateful to myself. Poverty, hopeless poverty, was my lot, and Melancholy was beginning to make me her own. When you — but I stop here, to inquire how your health goes on? How does my cousin Jenny, and has she recovered her late complaint? How does my poor Jack Goldsmith? I fear his disorder is of such a nature as he won't easily recover. I wish, my dear sir, you would make me happy by another letter before I go abroad, for there I shall hardly hear from you. * * Give my—how shall I express it? Give my earnest love to Mr. and Mrs. Lawder."

Mrs. Lawder was June, his early playmate—the object of his valentine—his first poetical inspiration. She had been for some time married.

Medical instruction, it will be perceived, was the ostensible motive for this visit to the continent, but the real one, in all probability, was his long-cherished desire to see foreign parts. This, however, he would not acknowledge even to himself, but sought to reconcile his roving propensities with some grand moral purpose. "I esteem the traveller who instructs the heart," says he, in one of his subsequent writings, "but despise him who only indulges the imagination. A man who leaves home to mend himself and others is a philosopher; but he who goes from country to country, guided by the blind impulse of curiosity, is only a vagabond." He, of course, was to travel as a philosopher, and in truth his outfits for a continental tour were in character. "I shall carry just £33 to France," said he, "with a good store of clothes, shirts, &c., and that with economy will suffice." He forgot to make mention of his flute, which it will be found had occasionally to come in play when economy could not replenish his purse, nor philosophy find him a supper. Thus slenderly provided with money, prudence, or experience, and almost as slightly guarded against "hard knocks" as the hero of *La Mancha*, whose head-piece was half iron, half pasteboard, he made his final sally forth upon the world, hoping all things—believing all things; little anticipating the chequered ills in store for him—little thinking, when he penned his valedictory letter to his good uncle Contarine, that he was never to see him more—never to return after all his wandering to the friend of his infancy—never to revisit his early and fondly-remembered haunts at "sweet Lissoy" and Ballymahon.

CHAP. V.

The agreeable fellow-passengers—Risks from friends picked up by the way-side—Sketches of Holland and the Dutch—Shifts while a poor student at Leyden—The tulip speculation—The provident flute—Sojourn at Paris—Sketch of Voltaire—Travelling shifts of a philosophic vagabond.

His usual indiscretion attended Goldsmith at the very outset of his foreign enterprise. He had intended to take shipping at Leith for Holland; but on arriving at that port he found a ship about to sail for Bordeaux, with six agreeable passengers, whose acquaintance he had probably made at the inn. He was not a man to resist a sudden impulse; so, instead of embarking for Holland, he found himself ploughing the seas on his way to the other side of the continent. Scarcely had the ship been two days at sea, when she was driven by stress of weather to Newcastle-upon-Tyne. Here, of course, Goldsmith and his agreeable fellow-passengers found it expedient to go on shore and "refresh themselves after the fatigues of the voyage." Of course they frolicked and made merry until a late hour in the evening, when, in the midst of their hilarity, the door was burst open, and a sergeant and twelve grenadiers entered with fixed bayonets, and took the whole convivial party prisoners.

It seems that the agreeable companions with whom our green-horn had struck up such a sudden intimacy were Scotchmen in the French service, who had been in Scotland enlisting recruits for the French army.

In vain Goldsmith protested his innocence: he was marched off with his fellow-revellers to prison, whence he with difficulty obtained his release at the end of a fortnight. With his customary facility, however, at palliating his misadventures, he found everything turn out for the best. His imprisonment saved his life, for during his detention the ship proceeded on her voyage, but was wrecked at the mouth of the Garonne, and all on board perished.

Goldsmith's second embarkation was for Holland direct, and in nine days he arrived at Rotterdam, whence he proceeded, without any more deviations, to Leyden. He gives a whimsical picture in one of his letters of the appearance of the Hollanders. "The modern Dutchman is quite a different creature from him of former times: he in everything imitates a Frenchman but in his easy, disengaged air. He is vastly ceremonious, and is, perhaps, exactly what a Frenchman might have been in the reign of Louis XIV. Such are the better bred. But the downright Hollander is one of the oddest figures in nature. Upon a lank head of hair he wears a half-cocked narrow hat, laced with black riband; no coat, but seven waistcoats and nine pair of breeches, so that his hips reach up almost to his armpits. This well-clothed vegetable is now fit to see company or make love. But what a pleasing creature is the object of his appetite! why, she wears a large fur cap, with a deal of Flanders lace; and for every pair of breeches he carries she puts on two petticoats.

"A Dutch lady burns nothing about her phlegmatic admirer but his tobacco. You must know, sir, every woman carries in her hand a stove of coals, which, when she sits, she snugs under her petticoats, and at this chimney dozing Strephon lights his pipe."

In the same letter he contrasts Scotland and Holland. "There, hills and rocks intercept every prospect; here, it is all a continued plain. There you might see a well-dressed duchess issuing from a dirty close, and here a dirty Dutchman inhabiting a palace. The Scotch may be compared to a tulip planted in dung; but I can never see a Dutchman in his own house but I think of a magnificent Egyptian temple dedicated to an ox.

The country itself awakened his admiration. "Nothing," said he, "can equal its beauty; wherever I turn my eyes, fine houses, elegant gardens, statues, grottoes,



vistas, present themselves; but when you enter their towns you are charmed beyond description. No misery is to be seen here; every one is usefully employed." And again, in his noble description in "The Traveller":

To men of other minds my fancy flies,
Embosom'd in the deep where Holland lies.
Methinks her patient sons before me stand,
Where the broad ocean leans against the land,
And, sedulous to stop the coming tide,
Lift the tall rampire's artificial pride.
Onward, methinks, and diligently slow,
The firm connected bulwark seems to grow;
Spreads its long arms amid the watery roar,
Scoops out an empire, and usurps the shore.
While the pent ocean, rising o'er the pile,
Sees an amphibious world before him smile;
The slow canal, the yellow-blossom'd vale,
The willow-tufted bank, the gliding sail,
The crowded mart, the cultivated plain,
A new creation rescued from his reign.

He remained about a year at Leyden, attending the lectures of Gaubius on chemistry, and Albinus on anatomy; though his studies are said to have been miscellaneous, and directed to literature rather than science. The thirty-three pounds with which he had set out on his travels were soon consumed, and he was put to many a shift to meet his expenses until his precarious remittances should arrive. He had a good friend on these occasions in a fellow-student and countryman, named Ellis, who afterwards rose to eminence as a physician. He used frequently to loan small sums to Goldsmith, which were always scrupulously paid. Ellis discovered the innate merits of the poor awkward student, and used to declare in after life that it was a common remark in Leyden, that in all the peculiarities of Goldsmith an elevation of mind was to be noted—a philosophical tone and manner—the feelings of a gentleman, and the language and information of a scholar.

Sometimes in his emergencies Goldsmith undertook to teach the English language. It is true he was ignorant of the Dutch, but he had a smattering of the French, picked up among the Irish priests at Ballymahon. He depicts his whimsical embarrassment in this respect in his account in the "Vicar of Wakefield" of the *philosophical vagabond*, who went to Holland to teach the natives English without knowing a word of their own language. Sometimes, when sorely pinched, and sometimes, perhaps, when flush, he resorted to the gambling tables, which in those days abounded in Holland. His good friend Ellis repeatedly warned him against this unfortunate propensity, but in vain. It brought its own cure, or rather its own punishment, by stripping him of every shilling.

Ellis once more stepped in to his relief with a true Irishman's generosity, but with more consideration than generally characterises an Irishman, for he only granted pecuniary aid on condition of his quitting the sphere of danger. Goldsmith gladly consented to leave Holland, being anxious to visit other parts. He intended to proceed to Paris and pursue his studies there, for which purpose he was furnished by his friend with money for the journey. Unluckily, he rambled into the garden of a florist just before quitting Leyden. The tulip mania was still prevalent in Holland, and some species of that splendid flower brought immense prices. In wandering through the garden, Goldsmith recollected that his uncle Contarine was a tulip-fancier. The thought suddenly struck him that here was an opportunity of testifying in a delicate manner his sense of that generous uncle's past kindnesses. In an instant his hand was in his pocket; a number of choice and costly tulip-roots were purchased and packed up for Mr. Contarine; and it was not until he had paid for them that he bethought himself that he had spent all the money borrowed for his travelling expenses. Too proud, however, to give up his journey, and too shamefaced to make another appeal to his friend's liberality, he determined to travel on foot, and depend

upon chance and good luck for the means of getting forward; and it is said that he actually set off on a tour of the continent in February, 1775, with but one spare shirt, a flute, and a single guinea.

"Blessed," says one of his biographers, "with a good constitution, an adventurous spirit, and with that thoughtless, or, perhaps, happy disposition which takes no care for to-morrow, he continued his travels for a long time in spite of innumerable privations." In his amusing narrative of the adventures of a "Philosophic Vagabond" in the "Vicar of Wakefield," we find shadowed out the expedients he pursued. "I had some knowledge of music, with a tolerable voice; I now turned what was once my amusement into a present means of subsistence. I passed among the harmless peasants of Flanders, and among such of the French as were poor enough to be very merry, for I ever found them sprightly in proportion to their wants. Whenever I approached a peasant's house towards nightfall I played one of my merriest tunes, and that procured me not only lodging, but subsistence for the next day; but in truth I must own, whenever I attempted to entertain persons of a higher rank they always thought my performances odious, and never made me any return for my endeavours to please them."

At Paris he attended the chemical lectures of Rouelle, then in great vogue, where he says he witnessed as bright a circle of beauty as graced the court of Versailles. His love of theatricals, also, led him to attend the performances of the celebrated actress Mademoiselle Clairon, with which he was greatly delighted. He seems to have looked upon the state of society with the eye of a philosopher, but to have read the signs of the times with the prophetic eye of a poet. In his rambles about the environs of Paris, he was struck with the immense quantities of game running about almost in a tame state; and saw in those costly and rigid preserves for the amusement and luxury of the privileged few a sure "badge of the slavery of the people." This slavery he predicted was drawing towards a close. "When I consider that these parliaments, the members of which are all created by the court, and the presidents of which can only act by immediate direction, presume even to mention privileges and freedom, who till of late received directions from the throne with implicit humility; when this is considered, I cannot help fancying that the genius of Freedom has entered that kingdom in disguise. If they have but three weak monarchs more successively on the throne the mask will be laid aside, and the country will certainly once more be free." Events have testified to the sage forecast of the poet.

During a brief sojourn in Paris he appears to have gained access to valuable society, and to have had the honour and pleasure of making the acquaintance of Voltaire; of whom, in after years, he wrote a memoir. "As a companion," says he, "no man ever exceeded him when he pleased to lead the conversation—which, however, was not always the case. In company which he either disliked or despised, few could be more reserved than he; but when he was warmed in discourse, and got over a hesitating manner which sometimes he was subject to, it was rapture to hear him. His meagre visage seemed insensibly to gather beauty; every muscle in it had meaning, and his eye beamed with unusual brightness. The person who writes this memoir," continues he "remembers to have seen him in a select company of wits of both sexes in Paris, when the subject happened to turn upon English taste and learning. Fontenelle (then nearly a hundred years old), who was one of the party, and who being unacquainted with the language or authors of the country he undertook to condemn, with a spirit truly vulgar, began to revile both. Diderot, who liked the English, and knew something of their literary pretensions, attempted to vindicate their poetry and learning, but with unequal abilities.

The company quickly perceived that Fontenelle was superior in the dispute, and were surprised at the silence which Voltaire had preserved all the former part of the night, particularly as the conversation happened to turn upon one of his favourite topics. Fontenelle continued his triumph until about twelve o'clock, when Voltaire appeared at last roused from his reverie. His whole frame seemed animated. He began his defence with the utmost defiance mixed with spirit, and now and then let fall the finest strokes of raillery upon his antagonist; and his harangue lasted till three in the morning. I must confess that, whether from natural partiality or from the elegant sensibility of his manner, I never was so charmed, nor did I ever remember so absolute a victory as he gained in this dispute." Goldsmith's ramblings took him into Germany and Switzerland, from which last-mentioned country he sent to his brother in Ireland the first brief sketch, afterwards amplified into his poem of the "Traveller."

At Geneva he became travelling tutor to a mongrel young gentleman, son of a London pawnbroker, who had been suddenly elevated into fortune and absurdity by the death of an uncle. The youth, before setting up for a gentleman, had been an attorney's apprentice, and was an arrant pettifogger in money matters. Never were two beings more oppositely assorted than he and Goldsmith. We may form an idea of the tutor and the pupil from the following extract from the narrative of the "Philosophic Vagabond."

"I was to be the young gentleman's governor, but with a proviso that he should always be permitted to govern himself. My pupil, in fact, understood the art of guiding in money concerns much better than I. He was heir to a fortune of about two hundred thousand pounds, left him by an uncle in the West Indies; and his guardians, to qualify him for the management of it, had bound him an apprentice to an attorney. Thus avarice was his prevailing passion; all his questions on the road were, how money might be saved—which was the least expensive course of travel—whether anything could be bought that would turn to account when disposed of again in London? Such curiosities on the way as could be seen for nothing he was ready enough to look at; but if the sight of them was to be paid for, he usually asserted that he had been told that they were not worth seeing. He never paid a bill that he would not observe how amazingly expensive travelling was; and all this though not yet twenty-one."

In this sketch, Goldsmith undoubtedly shadows forth his annoyances as travelling tutor to this concrete young gentleman, compounded of the pawnbroker, the pettifogger, and the West Indian heir, with an overlaying of the city miser. They had continual difficulties on all points of expense until they reached Marseilles, where both were glad to separate.

Once more on foot, but freed from the irksome duties of "bear-leader," and with some of his pay, as tutor, in his pocket, Goldsmith continued his half-vagrant peregrinations through part of France and Piedmont, and some of the Italian States. He had acquired, as has been shown, a habit of shifting along and living by expedients, and a new one presented itself in Italy. "My skill in music," says he, in the "Philosophic Vagabond," could avail me nothing in a country where every peasant was a better musician than I; but by this time I had acquired another talent, which answered my purpose as well, and this was a skill in disputation. In all the foreign universities and convents there are, upon certain days, philosophical theses maintained against every adventitious disputant: for which, if the champion opposes with zeal and dexterity, he can claim a gratuity in money, a dinner, and a bed for one night." Though a poor wandering scholar, his reception in these learned piles was as free from humiliation as in the cottages of the peasantry. "With the members of these establish-

ments," said he, "I could converse on topics of literature, and then I always forgot the meanness of the circumstances."

At Padua, where he remained some months, he is said to have taken his medical degree. It is probable he was brought to a pause in this city by the death of his uncle Contarine; who had hitherto assisted him in his wanderings by occasional, though, of course, slender remittances. Deprived of this source of supplies, he wrote to his friends in Ireland, and especially to his brother-in-law, Hodson, describing his destitute situation. His letters brought him neither money nor reply. It appears, from subsequent correspondence, that his brother-in-law actually exerted himself to raise a subscription for his assistance among his relatives, friends, and acquaintance, but without success. Their faith and hope in him were most probably at an end; as yet he had disappointed them at every point—he had given none of the anticipated proofs of talent, and they were too poor to support what they may have considered the wandering propensities of a heedless spendthrift.

Thus left to his own precarious resources, Goldsmith gave up all further wandering in Italy, without visiting the south, though Rome and Naples must have held out powerful attractions to one of his poetical cast. Once more resuming his pilgrim staff, he turned his face toward England, "walking along from city to city, examining mankind more nearly, and seeing both sides of the picture." In traversing France, his flute—his magic flute!—was once more in requisition, as we may conclude by the following passage in his Traveller:—

Gay, sprightly land of mirth and social ease,
Pleased with thyself, whom all the world can please.
How often have I led thy sportive choir
With tuneless pipe beside the murmuring Loire!
Where shading elms along the margin grew,
And freshened from the wave the zephyr flew;
And haply, though my harsh note falt'ring still,
But mocked all tune, and marr'd the dancer's skill;
Yet would the village praise my wondrous power,
And dance forgetful of the noontide hour.
Alike all ages. Dames of ancient days
Have led their children through the mirthful maze,
And the gay grandsire, skill'd in gestic lore,
Has frisk'd beneath the burden of three-score.

CHAP. VI.

Landing in England—Shifts of a man without money—The pestle and mortar—Theatricals in a barn—Launch upon London—A city night scene—Struggles with penury—Miseries of a tutor—A doctor in the suburb—Poor practice and second-hand finery—A tragedy in embryo—Project of the written mountains.

After two years spent in roving about the continent, "pursuing novelty," as he said, "and losing content," Goldsmith landed at Dover early in 1756. He appears to have had no definite plan of action. The death of his uncle Contarine, and the neglect of his relatives and friends to reply to his letters, seem to have produced in him a temporary feeling of loneliness and destitution, and his only thought was to get to London, and throw himself upon the world. But how was he to get there? His purse was empty. England was to him as completely a foreign land as any part of the continent; and where on earth is a penniless stranger more destitute? His flute and his philosophy were no longer of any avail; the English bores cared nothing for music; there were no convents; and as to the learned and the clergy, not one of them would give a vagrant scholar a supper and a night's lodging for the best theses that ever was argued. "You may easily imagine," says he, in a subsequent letter to his brother-in-law, "what difficulties I had to encounter, left as I was without friends, recommendations, money, or impudence, and

that in a country, where being born an Irishman was sufficient to keep me unemployed. Many in such circumstances would have had recourse to the friar's cord or the suicide's halter. But with all my follies, I had principle to resist the one and resolution to combat the other."

He applied at one place, we are told, for employment in the shop of a country apothecary; but all his medical science gathered in foreign universities could not gain him the management of a pestle and mortar. He even resorted, it is said, to the stage as a temporary expedient, and figured in low comedy at a country town in Kent. This accords with his last shift of the *Philosophic Vagabond*, and with the knowledge of country theatricals displayed in his "*Adventures of a Strolling Player*," or perhaps a story suggested by them. All this part of his career, however, in which he must have trod the lowest paths of humility, are only to be conjectured from vague traditions, or scraps of autobiography gleaned from his miscellaneous writings.

At length we find him launched on the great metropolis, or rather drifting about its streets at night, in the gloomy month of February, with but a few halfpence in his pocket. The deserts of Arabia are not more dreary and inhospitable than the streets of London at such a time, and to a stranger in such a plight. Do we want a picture as an illustration? We have it in his own works, and furnished, doubtless, from his own experience.

"The clock has just struck two; what a gloom hangs all around! no sound is heard but of the chiming clock, or the distant watch-dog. How few appear in those streets, which but some few hours ago were crowded! But who are those who make the streets their couch, and find a short repose from wretchedness at the doors of the opulent? They are strangers, wanderers, and orphans, whose circumstances are too humble to expect redress, and whose distresses are too great even for pity. Some are without the covering even of rags, and others emaciated with disease; the world has disclaimed them; society turns its back upon their distress, and has given them up to nakedness and hunger. These poor shivering females have once seen happier days, and been flattered into beauty. They are now turned out to meet the severity of winter. Perhaps, now, lying at the doors of their betrayers, they sue to wretches whose hearts are insensible, or debauchees who may curse but will not relieve them.

"Why, why was I born a man, and yet see the sufferings of wretches I cannot relieve! Poor houseless creatures! The world will give you reproaches, but will not give you relief."

Poor houseless Goldsmith! we may here ejaculate—to what shifts he must have been driven to find shelter and sustenance for himself in this first adventure into London! Many years afterwards, in the days of his social elevation, he startled a polite circle at Sir Joshua Reynolds's by humorously relating an anecdote about the time he "lived among the beggars of Axe Lane." Such may have been the desolate quarters with which he was fain to content himself when thus adrift upon the town, with but a few halfpence in his pocket.

The first authentic trace we have of him in this new part of his career, is filling the situation of an usher to a school; and even this employ he obtained with some difficulty, after a reference for a character to his friends in the University of Dublin. In the "*Vicar of Wakefield*" he makes George Primrose undergo a whimsical catechism concerning the requisites for an usher. "Have you been apprentice to the business?" "No." "Then you won't do for a school. Can you dress the boys' hair?" "No." "Then you won't do for a school. Can you lie three in a bed?" "No." "Then you will never do for a school. Have you a good stomach?" "Yes." "Then you will by no means do for a school." I have

been an usher in a boarding-school myself, and may I die of an anodyne necklace, but I had rather be underturnkey in Newgate. I was up early and late: I was browbeat by the master, hated for my ugly face by the mistress, and worried by the boys."

Goldsmith remained but a short time in this situation, and to the mortifications experienced there we doubtless owe the picturings given in his writings of the hardships of an usher's life.

"He is generally," says he "the laughing-stock of the school. Every trick is played upon him; the oddity of his manner, his dress or his language, is a fund of eternal ridicule; the master himself now and then cannot avoid joining in the laugh; and the poor wretch, eternally resenting this ill usage, lives in a state of war with all the family." . . . "He is obliged, perhaps, to sleep in the same bed with the French teacher, who disturbs him for an hour every night in preparing and filleting his hair, and stinks worse than carrion with his rancid pomatums when he lays his head beside him on the bolster."

His next shift was as assistant in the laboratory of a chemist near Fish street Hill. After remaining here a few months, he heard that Dr. Sleight, who had been his friend and fellow-student at Edinburgh, was in London. Eager to meet with a friendly face in this land of strangers, he immediately called on him; "but though it was Sunday, and it is to be supposed I was in my best clothes, Sleight scarcely knew me—such is the tax the unfortunate pay to poverty. However, when he did recollect me, I found his heart as warm as ever, and he shared his purse and friendship with me during his continuance in London."

Through the advice and assistance of Dr. Sleight, he now commenced the practice of medicine, but in a small way, in Bankside, Southwark, and chiefly among the poor; for he wanted the figure, address, polish, and management to succeed among the rich. His old school-mate and college companion, Beatty, who used to aid him with his purse at the university, met him about this time, decked out in the tarnished finery of a second-hand suit of green and gold, with a shirt and neckcloth of a fortnight's wear.

Poor Goldsmith endeavoured to assume a prosperous air in the eyes of his early associate. "He was practising physic" he said, "and doing very well!" At this moment poverty was pinching him to the bone in spite of his practice and his dirty finery. His fees were necessarily small and ill paid, and he was fain to seek some precarious assistance from his pen. Here his quondam fellow-student, Dr. Sleight, was again of service, introducing him to some of the booksellers, who gave him occasional, though starving employment. According to tradition, however, his most efficient patron just now was a journeyman printer, one of his poor patients of Bankside; who had formed a good opinion of his talents, and perceived his poverty and his literary shifts. The printer was in the employ of Mr. Samuel Richardson, the author of *Pamela*, *Clarissa*, and *Sir Charles Grandison*, who combined the novelist and the publisher, and was in flourishing circumstances. Through the journeyman's intervention Goldsmith is said to have become acquainted with Richardson, who employed him as reader and corrector of the press, at his printing establishment in Salisbury court; an occupation which he alternated with his medical duties.

Being admitted occasionally to Richardson's parlour, he began to form literary acquaintances, among whom the most important was Dr. Young, the author of "*Night Thoughts*," a poem in the height of fashion. It is not probable, however, that much familiarity took place at the time between the literary lion of the day and the poor *Æsculapius* of Bankside, the humble corrector of the press. Still the communion with literary men had its effect to set his imagination teeming. Dr.

Farr, one of his Edinburgh fellow students, who was at London about this time attending the hospital and lectures, gives us an amusing account of Goldsmith in his literary character.

"Early in January he called upon me one morning before I was up, and, on my entering the room, I recognised my old acquaintance, dressed in a rusty, full-trimmed black suit, with his pocket full of papers, which instantly reminded me of the poet in Garrick's farce of *Letho*. After we had finished our breakfast, he drew from his pocket part of a tragedy, which he said he had brought for my correction. In vain I pleaded inability, when he began to read; and every part on which I expressed a doubt as to the propriety was immediately blotted out. I then most earnestly pressed him not to trust to my judgment, but to take the opinion of persons better qualified to decide on dramatic compositions. He now told me he had submitted his production, so far as he had written, to Mr. Richardson, the author of *Clarrissa*, on which I peremptorily declined offering another criticism on the performance."

From the graphic description given of him by Dr. Farr, it will be perceived that the tarnished finery of green and gold had been succeeded by a professional suit of black, to which, we are told, were added the wig and cane indispensable to medical doctors in those days. The coat was a second-hand one, of rusty velvet, with a patch on the left breast, which he adroitly covered with his three-cornered hat during his medical visits; and we have an amusing anecdote of his contest of courtesy with a patient who persisted in endeavouring to relieve him from the hat, which only made him press it more devoutly to his heart.

Nothing further has ever been heard of the tragedy mentioned by Dr. Farr; it was probably never completed. The same gentleman speaks of a strange Quixotic scheme which Goldsmith had in contemplation at the time, "of going to decipher the inscriptions on the written mountains," though he was altogether ignorant of Arabic, or the language in which they might be supposed to be written. "The salary of three hundred pounds," adds Dr. Farr, "which had been left for the purpose, was the temptation." This was probably one of many dreamy projects with which his fervid brain was apt to teem. On such subjects he was prone to talk vaguely and magnificently, but inconsiderately, from a kindled imagination rather than a well-instructed judgment. He had always a great notion of expeditions to the East, and wonders to be seen and effected in the Oriental countries.

CHAP. VII.

Life of a pedagogue—Kindness to schoolboys—Pertness in return—Expensive charities—The Griffiths and the "Monthly Review"—Toils of a literary hack—Rupture with the Griffiths.

Among the most cordial of Goldsmith's intimates in London during this time of precarious struggle were certain of his former fellow-students in Edinburgh. One of these was the son of a Dr. Milner, a dissenting minister, who kept a classical school of eminence at Peckham, in Surrey. Young Milner had a favourable opinion of Goldsmith's abilities and attainments, and cherished for him that good with which his genial nature seems ever to have inspired among his school and college associates. His father falling ill, the young man negotiated with Goldsmith to take temporary charge of the school. The latter readily consented, for he was discouraged by the slow growth of medical reputation and practice, and as yet had no confidence in the coy smiles of the muse. Laying by his wig and cane, therefore, and once more wielding the ferule, he resumed the character of the pedagogue, and for some time reigned as

vicegerent over the academy at Peckham. He appears to have been well treated by both Dr. Milner and his wife; and became a favourite with the scholars from his easy, indulgent good nature. He mingled in their sports; told them droll stories; played on the flute for their amusement, and spent his money in treating them to sweetmeats and other schoolboy dainties. His familiarities were sometimes carried too far; he indulged in boyish pranks and practical jokes, and drew upon himself retorts in kind, which, however, he bore with great good humour. Once, indeed, he was touched to the quick by a piece of schoolboy pertness. After playing on the flute, he spoke with enthusiasm of music, as delightful in itself, and as a valuable accomplishment for a gentleman, whereupon a youngster, with a glance at his ungainly person, wished to know if he considered himself a gentleman. Poor Goldsmith, feelingly alive to the awkwardness of his appearance and the humility of his situation, winced at this unthinking sneer, which long rankled in his mind.

As usual, while in Dr. Milner's employ, his benevolent feelings were a heavy tax upon his purse, for he never could resist a tale of distress, and was apt to be fleeced by every sturdy beggar; so that between his charity and his munificence he was generally in advance of his slender salary. "You had better, Mr. Goldsmith, let me take care of your money," said Mrs. Milner, one day, "as I do for some of the young gentlemen."—"In truth, madam, there is equal need!" was the good-humoured reply.

Dr. Milner was a man of some literary pretensions, and wrote occasionally for the "*Monthly Review*," of which a bookseller, by the name of Griffiths, was proprietor. This work was an advocate for Whig principles, and had been in prosperous existence for nearly eight years. Of late, however, periodicals had multiplied exceedingly, and a formidable Tory rival had started up in the "*Critical Review*," published by Archibald Hamilton, a bookseller, and aided by the powerful and popular pen of Dr. Smollett. Griffiths was obliged to recruit his forces. While so doing, he met Goldsmith, an humble occupant of a seat at Dr. Milner's table, and was struck with remarks on men and books which fell from him in the course of conversation. He took occasion to sound him privately as to his inclination and capacity as a reviewer, and was furnished by him with specimens of his literary and critical talents. They proved satisfactory. The consequence was that Goldsmith once more changed his mode of life, and in April, 1757, became a contributor to the "*Monthly Review*," at a small fixed salary, with board and lodging; and accordingly took up his abode with Mr. Griffiths, at the sign of the Dunciad, Paternoster-row. As usual, we trace this phase of his fortunes in his semifictitious writings; his sudden transmutation of the pedagogue into the author being humorously set forth in the case of "George Primrose," in the "*Vicar of Wakefield*." "Come," says George's adviser, "I see you are a lad of spirit and some learning; what do you think of commencing author, like me? You have read in books, no doubt, of men of genius starving at the trade: at present I'll show you forty very dull fellows about town that live by it in opulence—all honest, jog-trot men, who go on smoothly and dully, and write history and politics, and are praised; men, sir, who had they been bred cobblers would all their lives only have mended shoes, but never made them." "Finding," says George, "that there was no great degree of gentility affixed to the character of an usher, I resolved to accept his proposal; and, having the highest respect for literature, hailed the *antiqua mater* of Grub-street with reverence. I thought it my glory to pursue a track which Dryden and Otway trod before me." Alas! Dryden struggled with indigence all his days; and Otway, it is said, fell a victim to famine in his thirty-fifth year, being strangled by a roll of bread,

which he devoured with the voracity of a starving man.

In Goldsmith's experience the track soon proved a thorny one; Griffiths was a hard business man, of shrewd, worldly good sense, but little refinement or cultivation. He meddled, or rather muddled, with literature, too, in a business way, altering and modifying occasionally the writings of his contributors; and in this he was aided by his wife, who, according to Smollett, was an antiquated female critic and a dabbler in the "Review." Such was the literary vassalage to which Goldsmith had unwarily subjected himself. A diurnal drudgery was imposed on him, irksome to his indolent habits, and attended by circumstances humiliating to his pride. He had to write daily from nine o'clock until two, and often throughout the day, whether in the vein or not, and on subjects dictated by his task-master, however foreign to his taste; in a word, he was treated as a mere literary hack. But this was not the worst; it was the critical supervision of Griffiths and his wife which grieved him: the "illiterate bookselling Griffiths," as Smollett called them, "who presumed to revise, alter, and amend the articles contributed to their 'Review.' Thank heaven," crowed Smollett, "the 'Critical Review' is not written under the restraint of a bookseller and his wife. Its principal writers are independent of each other, unconnected with booksellers and unawed by old women!"

This literary vassalage, however, did not last long. The bookseller became more and more exacting. He accused his hack writer of idleness—of abandoning his writing-desk and literary workshop at an early hour of the day, and of assuming a tone and manner *above his situation*. Goldsmith, in return, charged him with impertinence, his wife with meanness and parsimony in her household treatment of him, and both of literary meddling and marring. The engagement was broken off at the end of five months by mutual consent, and without any violent rupture, as it will be found they afterwards had occasional dealings with each other.

Though Goldsmith was now nearly thirty years of age, he had produced nothing to give him a decided reputation. He was as yet a mere writer for bread. The articles he had contributed to the "Review" were anonymous, and were never avowed by him. They have since been, for the most part, ascertained; and though thrown off hastily, often treating on subjects of temporary interest, and marred by the Griffith interpolations, they are still characterised by his sound, easy good sense, and the genial graces of his style. Johnson observed that Goldsmith's genius flowered late; he should have said it flowered early, but was late in bringing its fruit to maturity.

CHAP. VIII.

Newbery, of picture-book memory—How to keep up appearances—Miseries of authorship—A poor relation—Letter to Hodson.

Being now known in the publishing world, Goldsmith began to find casual employment in various quarters; among others he wrote occasionally for the "Literary Magazine," a production set on foot by Mr. John Newbery, bookseller, St. Paul's Churchyard, renowned in nursery literature throughout the latter half of the last century for his picture-books for children. Newbery was a worthy, intelligent, kind-hearted man, and a seasonable, though cautious friend to authors, relieving them with small loans when in pecuniary difficulties, though always taking care to be well repaid by the labour of their pens. Goldsmith introduces him in a humorous yet friendly manner in his novel of the "Vicar of Wakefield." "This person was no other than the philanthropic bookseller in St. Paul's Churchyard, who has written so many little books for children; he called himself their friend; but he was the friend of all mankind. He was no sooner

alighted but he was in haste to be gone; for he was ever on business of importance, and was at that time actually compiling materials for the history of one Mr. Thomas Trip. I immediately recollected this good-natured man's red-pimpled face."

Besides his literary job-work, Goldsmith also resumed his medical practice, but with very trifling success. The scantiness of his purse still obliged him to live in obscure lodgings somewhere in the vicinity of Salisbury-square, Fleet-street; but his extended acquaintance and rising importance caused him to consult appearances. He adopted an expedient, then very common, and still practised in London among those who have to tread the narrow path between pride and poverty; while he burrowed in lodgings suited to his means, he "hailed," as it is termed, from the Temple Exchange Coffee-house near Temple Bar. Here he received his medical calls; hence he dated his letters, and here he passed much of his leisure hours, conversing with the frequenters of the place. "Thirty pounds a year," said a poor Irish painter, who understood the art of shifting, "is enough to enable a man to live in London without being contemptible. Ten pounds will find him in clothes and linen; he can live in a garret on eighteen-pence a week; hail from a coffee-house, where, by occasionally spending threepence, he may pass some hours each day in good company; he may breakfast on bread and milk for a penny; dine for sixpence; do without supper; and on *clean-shirt day* he may go abroad and pay visits."

Goldsmith seems to have taken a leaf from this poor devil's manual, in respect to the coffee-house at least. Indeed, coffee-houses in those days were the resorts of wits and literati, where the topics of the day were gossiped over, and the affairs of literature and the drama discussed and criticised. In this way he enlarged the circle of his intimacy, which now embraced several names of notoriety.

Do we want a picture of Goldsmith's experience in this part of his career, we have it in his observations on the life of an author in the "Inquiry into the State of Polite Learning," published some years afterwards.

"The author unpatronised by the great has naturally recourse to the bookseller. There cannot, perhaps, be a combination more prejudicial to taste than this. It is the interest of the one to allow as little for writing, and for the other to write as much as possible; accordingly tedious compilations and periodical magazines are the result of their joint endeavours. In these circumstances the author bids adieu to fame; he writes for bread; and for that only imagination is seldom called in. He sits down to address the venal muse with the most phlegmatic apathy; and, as we are told of the Russian, courts his mistress by falling asleep in her lap."

Again. "Those who are unacquainted with the world are apt to fancy the man of wit as leading a very agreeable life. They conclude, perhaps, that he is attended with silent admiration, and dictates to the rest of mankind with all the eloquence of conscious superiority. Very different is his present situation. He is called an author, and all know that an author is a thing only to be laughed at. His person, not his jest, becomes the mirth of the company. At his approach the most fat, unthinking face brightens into malicious meaning. Even aldermen laugh, and avenge on him the ridicule which was lavished on their forefathers." * * * "The poet's poverty is a standing topic of contempt. His writing for bread is an unpardonable offence. Perhaps, of all mankind, an author in these times is used most hardly. We keep him poor, and yet revile his poverty. We reproach him for living by his wit, and yet allow him no other means to live. His taking refuge in garrets and cellars has of late been violently objected to him, and that by men who, I have hope, are more apt to pity than insult his distress. Is poverty a careless fault? No doubt he knows how to prefer a bottle of champagne to the nectar of the neighbouring alehouse, or a venison

pasty to a plate of potatoes. Want of delicacy is not in him, but in those who deny him the opportunity of making an elegant choice. Wit certainly is the property of those who have it; nor should we be displeased if it is the only property a man sometimes has. We must not underrate him who uses it for subsistence, and flees from the ingratitude of the age, even to a bookseller, for redress." * * *

"If the author be necessary among us, let us treat him with proper consideration as a child of the public, not as a rent-charge on the community. And indeed a child of the public he is in all respects; for while so well able to direct others, how frequently is he found incapable of guiding himself. His simplicity exposes him to all the insidious approaches of cunning—his sensibility to the slightest invasions of contempt. Though possessed of fortitude to stand unmoved the expected bursts of an earthquake, yet of feelings so exquisitely poignant as to agonize under the slightest disappointment. Broken rest, tasteless meals, and causeless anxieties shorten life, and render it unfit for active enjoyments; prolonged vigils and intense application still farther contract his span, and make his time glide insensibly away."

While poor Goldsmith was thus struggling with the difficulties and discouragements which in those days beset the path of an author, his friends in Ireland received accounts of his literary success, of the distinguished acquaintances he was making. This was enough to put the wise heads at Lissoy and Ballymahon in a ferment of conjectures. With the exaggerated notions of provincial relatives concerning the family great man in the metropolis, some of Goldsmith's poor kindred pictured him to themselves seated in high places, clothed in purple and fine linen, and hand and glove with the givers of gifts and dispensers of patronage. Accordingly, he was one day surprised at the sudden apparition, in his miserable lodging, of his younger brother Charles, a raw youth of twenty-one, endowed with a double share of the family heedlessness, and who expected to be forthwith helped into some snug by-path to fortune by one or other of Oliver's great friends. Charles was sadly disconcerted on learning that, so far from being able to provide for others, his brother could scarcely take care of himself. He looked round with a rueful eye on the poet's quarters, and could not help expressing his surprise and disappointment at finding him no better off. "All in good time, my dear boy," replied poor Goldsmith, with infinite good humour; "I shall be richer by-and-by. Addison, let me tell you, wrote his poem of the 'Campaign' in a garret in the Haymarket, three stories higher and you see I am not come to that yet, for I have only got to the second story."

Charles Goldsmith did not remain long to embarrass his brother in London. With the same roving disposition and inconsiderate temper of Oliver, he suddenly departed in a humble capacity to seek his fortune in the West Indies, and nothing was heard of him for above thirty years, when, after having been given up as dead by friends, he made his reappearance in England.

Shortly after his departure, Goldsmith wrote a letter to his brother-in-law, Daniel Hodson, Esq., of which the following is an extract; it was partly intended, no doubt, to dissipate any further illusions concerning his fortunes which might float on the magnificent imagination of his friends in Ballymahon.

"I suppose you desire to know my present situation. As there is nothing in it at which I should blush or which mankind could censure, I see no reason for making it a secret. In short, by a very little practice as a physician, and a very little reputation as a poet, I make a shift to live. Nothing is more apt to introduce us to the gates of the muses than poverty; but it were well if they only left us at the door. The mischief is, they sometimes choose to give us their company to the

entertainment; and Want, instead of being gentleman usher, often turns master of the ceremonies.

"Thus, upon learning I write, no doubt you imagine I starve; and the name of an author naturally reminds you of a garret. In this particular I do not think proper to undeceive my friends. But, whether I eat or starve, live in a first floor or four pair of stairs high, I still remember them with ardour; nay, my very country comes in for a share of my affection. Unaccountable fondness for country, this *maladie du pays*, as the French call it! Unaccountable that he should still have an affection for a place, who never, when in it, received above common civility; who never brought anything out of it except his brogue and his blunders. Surely my affection is equally ridiculous with the Scotchman's, who refused to be cured of the itch, because it made him unco' thoughtful of his wife and bonny Inverary.

"But now, to be serious: let me ask myself what gives me a wish to see Ireland again? The country is a fine one, perhaps? No. There is good company in Ireland? No. The conversation there is generally made up of a smutty toast or a bawdy song; the vivacity supported by some humble cousin, who had just folly enough to earn his dinner. Then, perhaps, there's more wit and learning among the Irish? Oh, Lord, no! There has been more money spent in the encouragement of the Padareen mare there in one season than given in rewards to learned men since the time of Usher. All their productions in learning amount to perhaps a translation, or a few tracts in divinity; and all their productions in wit to just nothing at all. Why the plague, then, so fond of Ireland? Then, all at once, because you, my dear friend, and a few more who are exceptions to the general picture, have a residence there. This it is that gives me all the pangs I feel in separation. I confess I carry this spirit sometimes to the souring of the pleasures I at present possess. If I go to the opera, where Signora Columba pours out all the mazes of melody, I sit and sigh for Lissoy fireside, and Johnny Armstrong's 'Last Good-night' from Peggy Golden. If I climb Hampstead-hill, than where nature never exhibited a more magnificent prospect, I confess it fine; but then I had rather be placed on the little mount before Lissoy gate, and there take in, to me, the most pleasing horizon in nature.

"Before Charles came hither, my thoughts sometimes found refuge from severer studies among my friends in Ireland. I fancied strange revolutions at home; but I find it was the rapidity of my own motion that gave an imaginary one to objects really at rest. No alterations there. Some friends, he tells me, are still lean, but very rich; others very fat, but still very poor. Nay, all the news I hear of you is, that you sally out in visits among the neighbours, and sometimes make a migration from the blue bed to the brown. I could from my heart wish that you and she (Mrs. Hodson) and Lissoy and Ballymahon, and all of you, would fairly make a migration into Middlesex; though, upon second thoughts, this might be attended with a few inconveniences. Therefore, as the mountain will not come to Mohammed, why Mohammed shall go to the mountain; or, to speak plain English, as you cannot conveniently pay me a visit, if next summer I can contrive to be absent six weeks from London, I shall spend three of them among my friends in Ireland. But first, believe me, my design is purely to visit, and neither to cut a figure nor levy contributions—neither to excite envy nor solicit favour; in fact, my circumstances are adapted to neither, I am to poor too to be gazed at, and too rich to need assistance."



CHAP. IX.

Hackney authorship—Thoughts of literary suicide—return to Peckham—Oriental projects—Literary enterprise to raise funds—Letter to Edward Wells—To Robert Bryanton—Death of Uncle Contarine—Letter to Cousin Jane.

For some time Goldsmith continued to write miscellaneous for reviews and other periodical publications, but without making any decided hit, to use a technical term. Indeed, as yet he appeared destitute of the strong excitement of literary ambition, and wrote only on the spur of necessity and at the urgent importunity of his bookseller. His indolent and truant disposition, ever averse from labour and delighting in holiday, had to be scourged up to his task; still it was this very truant disposition which threw an unconscious charm over everything he wrote; bringing with it honeyed thoughts and pictured images which had sprung up in his mind in the sunny hours of idleness: these effusions, dashed off on compulsion in the exigency of the moment, were published anonymously; so that they made no collective impression on the public, and reflected no fame on the name of their author.

In an essay, published some time subsequently in the "Bee," Goldsmith adverts in his own humorous way to his impatience at the tardiness with which his desultory and acknowledged essays crept into notice. "I was once induced," says he, "to show my indignation against the public by discontinuing my efforts to please; and was bravely resolved, like Raleigh, to vex them by burning my manuscript in a passion. Upon reflection, however, I considered what set or body of people would be displeased at my rashness. The sun, after so sad an accident, might shine next morning as bright as usual; men might laugh and sing the next day, and transact business as before, and not a single creature feel any regret but myself. Instead of having Apollo in mourning or the Muses in a fit of the spleen—instead of having the learned world apostrophising at my untimely decease, perhaps all Grub-street might laugh at my fate, and self-approving dignity be unable to shield me from ridicule."

Circumstances occurred about this time to give a new direction to Goldsmith's hopes and schemes. Having resumed for a brief period the superintendence of the Peckham school during a fit of illness of Dr. Milner, that gentleman, in requital for his timely services, promised to use his influence with a friend, an East India director, to procure him a medical appointment in India.

There was every reason to believe that the influence of Dr. Milner would be effectual; but how was Goldsmith to find the ways and means of fitting himself out for a voyage to the Indies? In this emergency he was driven to a more extended exercise of the pen than he had yet attempted. His skirmishing among books as a reviewer, and his disputatious ramble among the schools and universities and literati of the continent, had filled his mind with facts and observations which he now set about digesting into a treatise of some magnitude, to be entitled "An Inquiry into the present State of Polite Learning in Europe." As the work grew on his hands his sanguine temper ran ahead of his labours. Feeling secure of success in England, he was anxious to forestall the piracy of the Irish press; for as yet the Union not having taken place, the English law of copyright did not extend to the other side of the Irish channel. He wrote, therefore, to his friends in Ireland, urging them to circulate his proposals for his contemplated work, and obtain subscriptions payable in advance—the money to be transmitted to a Mr. Bradley, an eminent bookseller in Dublin, who would give a receipt for it, and be accountable for the delivery of the books. The letters written by him on this occasion are worthy of copious citation, as being full of character and interest. One was to his relative and college intimate, Edward Wells,

who had studied for the bar, but was now living at ease on his estate at Roscommon. "You have quitted," writes Goldsmith, "the plan of life which you once intended to pursue, and given up ambition for domestic tranquillity. I cannot avoid feeling some regret that one of my few friends has declined a pursuit in which he had every reason to expect success. I have often let my fancy loose when you were the subject, and have imagined you gracing the bench, or thundering at the bar; while I have taken no small pride to myself, and whispered to all that I could come near that this was my cousin. Instead of this, you are merely content to be a happy man—to be esteemed by your acquaintances—to cultivate your paternal acres—to take unmolested a nap under one of your own hawthorns, or in Mrs. Wells's bed-chamber, which even a poet must confess is rather the more comfortable of the two. But, however your resolutions may be altered with regard to your situation in life, I persuade myself they are unalterable with respect to your friends in it. I cannot think the world has taken such entire possession of that heart (once so susceptible of friendship) as not to have left a corner there for a friend or two, but I flatter myself that even I have a place among the number. This I have a claim to from the similitude of our dispositions; or setting that aside, I can demand it as a right by the most equitable law of nature—I mean that of retaliation; for indeed you have more than your share in mine. I am a man of few professions; and yet at this very instant I cannot avoid the painful apprehension that my present professions (which speak not half my feelings) should be considered only as a pretext to cover a request, as I have a request to make. No, my dear Ned, I know you are too generous to think so, and you know me too proud to stoop to unnecessary insincerity. I have a request, it is true, to make; but as I know to whom I am a petitioner, I make it without diffidence or confusion. It is in short this—I am going to publish a book in London," &c. The residue of the letter specifies the nature of the request, which was merely to aid in circulating his proposals and obtaining subscriptions. The letter of the poor author, however, was unattended to and unacknowledged by the prosperous Mr. Wells, of Roscommon, though in after years he was proud to claim relationship to Dr. Goldsmith, when he had risen to celebrity.

Another of Goldsmith's letters was to Robert Bryanton, with whom he had long ceased to be in correspondence. "I believe," writes he "that they who are drunk, or out of their wits, fancy everybody else in the same condition. Mine is a friendship that neither distance nor time can efface, which is probably the reason that for the soul of me I can't avoid thinking yours of the same complexion; and yet I have many reasons for being of a contrary opinion, else why, in so long an absence, was I never made a partner in your concerns? To hear of your success would have given me the utmost pleasure; and a communication of your very disappointments would divide the uneasiness I too frequently feel for my own. Indeed, my dear Bob, you don't conceive how unkindly you have treated one whose circumstances afford him few prospects of pleasure, except those reflected from the happiness of his friends. However, since you have not let me hear from you, I have in some measure disappointed your neglect by frequently thinking of you. Every day or so I remember the calm anecdotes of your life, from the fireside to the easy chair; recall the various adventures that first cemented our friendship—the school, the college, or the tavern; preside in fancy over your cards; and am displeased at your bad play when the rubber goes against you, though not with all that agony of soul as when I was once your partner. Is it not strange that two of such like affections should be so much separated, and so differently employed as we are? You seem placed at the centre of fortune's wheel, and,

let it revolve ever so fast, are insensible of the motion. I seem to have been tied to the circumference, and whirled disagreeably round, as if on a whirligig."

He then runs into a whimsical and extravagant tirade about his future prospects—the wonderful career of fame and fortune that awaits him; and, after indulging in all kinds of humorous gasconades, concludes:—"Let me, then, stop my fancy to take a view of my future self—and, as the boys say, light down to see myself on horseback. Well, now that I am down, where the d—! is I! Oh gods! gods! here in a garret, writing for bread, and expecting to be dunned for a milk-score!"

He would on this occasion have doubtless written to his uncle Contarine, but that generous friend was sunk into a helpless, hopeless state, from which death soon released him.

Cut off thus from the kind co-operation of his uncle, he addressed a letter to his daughter Jane, the companion of his school-boy and happy days, now the wife of Mr. Lawder. The object was to secure her interest with her husband in promoting the circulation of his proposals. The letter is full of character.

"If you should ask," he begins, "why, in an interval of so many years, you never heard from me, permit me, madam, to ask the same question. I have the best excuse in recrimination. I wrote to Kilmore from Leyden in Holland, from Louvain in Flanders, and Rouen in France, but received no answer. To what could I attribute this silence but to displeasure or forgetfulness? Whether I was right in my conjecture I do not pretend to determine; but this I must ingenuously own, that I have a thousand times in my turn endeavoured to forget *them*, whom I could not but look upon as forgetting *me*. I have attempted to blot their names from my memory, and, I confess it, spent whole days in efforts to tear their image from my heart. Could I have succeeded, you would not now have been troubled with this renewal of a discontinued correspondence; but, as every effort the restless make to procure sleep serves but to keep them waking, all my attempts contributed to impress what I would forget deeper on my imagination. But this subject I would willingly turn from, and yet, 'for the soul of me,' I can't tell I have said all. I was, madam, when I discontinued writing to Kilmore, in such circumstance that all my endeavours to continue your regards might be attributed to wrong motives. My letters might be looked upon as the petitions of a beggar, and not the offerings of a friend: while all my professions, instead of being considered as the result of disinterested esteem, might be ascribed to venal insincerity. I believe, indeed, you had too much generosity to place them in such a light, but I could not bear even the shadow of such a suspicion. The most delicate friendships are always most sensible of the slightest invasion, and the strongest jealousy is ever attendant on the warmest regard. I could not—I own I could not—continue a correspondence in which every acknowledgment for past favours might be considered as an indirect request for future ones; and where it might be thought I gave my heart from a motive of gratitude alone, when I was conscious of having bestowed it on much more disinterested principles. It is true, this conduct might have been simple enough: but yourself must confess it was in character. Those who know me at all know that I have always been actuated by different principles from the rest of mankind, and while none regarded the interest of his friend more, no man on earth regarded his own less. I have often affected bluntness to avoid the imputation of flattery; have frequently seemed to overlook those merits too obvious to escape notice, and pretended disregard to those instances of good nature and good sense, which I could not fail tacitly to applaud; and all this lest I should be ranked

among the grinning tribe, who say, 'very true' to all that is said: who fill a vacant chair at a tea-table; whose narrow souls never moved in a wider circle than the circumference of a guinea; and who had rather be reckoning the money in your pocket than the virtue in your breast. All this, I say, I have done, and a thousand other very silly, though very disinterested, things in my time; and for all which no soul cares a farthing about me. * * * Is it to be wondered that he should once in his life forget you, who has been all his life forgetting himself? However, it is probable you may one of these days see me turned into a perfect hunk, and as dark and intricate as a mouse-hole. I have already given my landlady orders for an entire reform in the state of my finances. I declaim again hot suppers, drink less sugar in my tea, and check my grate with brickbats. Instead of hanging my room with pictures, I intend to adorn it with maxims of frugality. Those will make pretty furniture enough, and won't be a bit too expensive; for I will draw them all out with my own hands, and my landlady's daughter shall frame them with the parings of my black waistcoat. Each maxim is to be inscribed on a clean sheet of paper, and wrote with my best pen; of which the following will serve as a specimen:—*Look sharp: Mind the main chance: Money is money now: If you have a thousand pounds you can put your hands by your sides, and say you are worth a thousand pounds every day of the year: Take a farthing from a hundred and it will be a hundred no longer.* Thus, which way soever I turn my eyes, they are sure to meet one of those friendly monitors; and as we are told of an actor who hung his room round with looking glass to correct the defects of his person, my apartments shall be furnished in a peculiar manner, to correct the errors of my mind. Faith! madam, I heartily wish to be rich, if it were only for this reason, to say without a blush how much I esteem you. But, alas! I have many a fatigue to encounter before that happy time comes, when your poor old simple friend may again give a loose to the luxuriance of his nature; sitting by Kilmore fireside, recount the various adventures of a hard-fought life—laugh over the follies of the day—join his flute to your harpsichord, and forget that ever he starved in those streets where Butler and Otway starved before him. And now I mention those great names—my Uncle! he is no more that soul of fire as when I once knew him. Newton and Swift grew dim with age as well as he. But what shall I say? His mind was too active an inhabitant not to disorder the feeble mansion of its abode; for the richest jewels soonest wear their sittings. Yet who but the fool would lament his condition! He now forgets the calamities of life. Perhaps indulgent Heaven has given him a foretaste of that tranquillity here which he so well deserves hereafter. But I must come to business; for business, as one of my maxims tells me, must be minded or lost. I am going to publish in London a book, entitled 'The present State of Taste and Literature in Europe.' The booksellers in Ireland republish every performance there without making the author any consideration. I would, in this respect, disappoint their avarice, and have all the profits of my labour to myself. I must, therefore, request Mr. Lawder to circulate among his friends and acquaintances a hundred of my proposals, which I have given the bookseller, Mr. Bradley, in Dame-street, directions to send to him. If, in pursuance of such circulation, he should receive any subscriptions, I entreat, when collected, they may be sent to Mr. Bradley as aforesaid, who will give a receipt, and be accountable for the work or a return of the subscription. If this request (which, if it be complied with, will in some measure be an encouragement to a man of learning) should be disagreeable or troublesome, I will not press it; for I would be the last man on earth to have my labours go a-begging; but if I know Mr. Lawder (and sure I ought

to know him), he will accept the employment with pleasure. All I can say—if he writes a book, I will get him two hundred subscribers, and these of the best wits in Europe. Whether this request is complied with or not, I shall not be uneasy; but there is one petition I must make to him and to you, which I solicit with the warmest ardour, and in which I cannot bear a refusal. I mean, dear madam, that I may be allowed to subscribe myself, your ever affectionate and obliged kinsman, OLIVER GOLDSMITH. Now see how I blot and blunder when I am asking a favour."

CHAP. X.

Oriental appointment, and disappointment—Examination at the College of Surgeons—How to procure a suit of clothes—Fresh disappointment—A tale of distress—The suit of clothes in pawn—Punishment for doing an act of charity—Gaieties of Green Arbour Court—Letter to his brother—Life of Voltaire—Scroggins, an attempt at mock-heroic poetry.

While Goldsmith was yet labouring at his treatise, the promise made him by Dr. Milner was carried into effect, and he was actually appointed physician and surgeon to one of the factories on the coast of Coromandel. His imagination was immediately on fire with visions of oriental wealth and magnificence. It is true the salary did not exceed one hundred pounds, but then, as appointed physician, he would have the exclusive practice of the place, amounting to one thousand pounds per annum; with advantages to be derived from trade and from the high interest of money—twenty per cent.; in a word, for once in his life the road to fortune lay broad and straight before him.

Hitherto, in his correspondence with his friends, he had said nothing of his India scheme; but now he imparted to them his brilliant prospects, urging the importance of their circulating his proposals and obtaining him subscriptions and advances on his forthcoming work, to furnish funds for his outfit.

In the meantime he had to task that poor drudge, his muse, for present exigencies. Ten pounds were demanded for his appointment-warrant. Other expenses pressed hard upon him. Fortunately, though as yet unknown to fame, his literary capability was known to "the trade," and the coinage of his brain passed current in Grubstreet. Archibald Hamilton, proprietor of the "Critical Review," the rival to that of Griffiths, readily made him a small advance on receiving three articles for his periodical. His purse thus slenderly replenished, Goldsmith paid for his warrant; wiped off the score of his milkmaid; abandoned his garret, and moved into a shabby first floor in a forlorn court near the Old Bailey; there to await the time of his migration to the magnificent coast of Coromandel.

Alas! poor Goldsmith! ever doomed to disappointment. Early in the gloomy month of November—that month of fog and despondency in London—he learnt the shipwreck of his hope. The great Coromandel enterprise fell through—or rather, the post promised to him was transferred to some other candidate. The cause of this disappointment it is now impossible to ascertain. The death of his *quasi* patron, Dr. Milner, which happened about this time, may have had some effect in producing it; or there may have been some heedlessness and blundering on his own part, or some obstacle arising from his insuperable indigence; whatever may have been the cause, he never mentioned it, which gives some ground to surmise that he himself was to blame. His friends learnt with surprise that he had suddenly relinquished his appointment to India, about which he had raised such sanguine expectations: some accused him of fickleness and caprice; others supposed him unwilling to tear himself from the growing fascinations of the literary society of London.

In the meantime, cut down in his hopes and humiliated in his pride by the failure of his Coromandel scheme, he sought, without consulting his friends, to be examined at the College of Physicians for the humble situation of hospital mate. Even here poverty stood in his way. It was necessary to appear in a decent garb before the examining committee; but how was he to do so? He was literally out of elbows as well as out of cash. Here again the muse, so often jilted and neglected by him, came to his aid. In consideration of four articles furnished to the "Monthly Review," Griffiths, his old task-master, was to become security to the tailor for a suit of clothes. Goldsmith said he wanted them but for a single occasion, on which depended his appointment to a situation in the army; as soon as that temporary purpose was served they would either be returned or paid for. The books to be reviewed were accordingly lent to him—the muse was again set to his compulsory drudgery—the articles were scribbled off and sent to the bookseller, and the clothes came in due time from the tailor.

From the records of the College of Surgeons, it appears that Goldsmith underwent his examination at Surgeons' Hall on the 21st December, 1758. Either from a confusion of mind incident to sensitive and imaginative persons on such occasions, or from a real want of surgical science, which last is extremely probable, he failed in his examination, and was rejected as unqualified. The effect of such rejection was to disqualify him for every branch of public service, though he might have claimed a re-examination, after the interval of a few months devoted to further study. Such a re-examination he never attempted, nor did he ever communicate his discomfiture to any of his friends.

On Christmas-day, but four days after his rejection by the College of Surgeons, while he was suffering under the mortification of defeat and disappointment, and hard pressed for means of subsistence, he was surprised by the entrance into his room of the poor woman of whom he hired his wretched apartment, and to whom he owed some small arrears of rent. She had a piteous tale of distress, and was clamorous in her afflictions. Her husband had been arrested in the night for debt, and thrown into prison. This was too much for the quick feelings of Goldsmith; he was ready at any time to help the distressed, but in this instance he was himself in some measure a cause of the distress. What was to be done? He had no money, it is true; but there hung the new suit of clothes in which he had stood his unlucky examination at Surgeons' Hall. Without giving himself time for reflection, he sent it off to the pawnbroker's, and raised thereon a sufficient sum to pay off his own debt, and to release his landlord from prison.

Under the same pressure of penury and despondency, he borrowed from a neighbour a pittance to relieve his immediate wants, leaving as a security the books which he had recently reviewed. In the midst of these straits and harassments, he received a letter from Griffiths, demanding in peremptory terms the return of the clothes and books, or immediate payment for the same. It appears that he had discovered the identical suit at the pawnbroker's. The reply of Goldsmith is not known; it was out of his power to furnish either the clothes or the money; but he probably offered once more to make the muse stand his bail. His reply only increased the ire of the wealthy man of trade, and drew from him another letter, still more harsh than the first, using the epithets of knave and sharper, and containing threats of prosecution and a prison.

The following letter from poor Goldsmith gives the most touching picture of an inconsiderate but sensitive man, harassed by care, stung by humiliations, and driven almost to despondency:—

"SIR,—I know of no misery but a jail to which my own imprudences and your letter seem to point. I have

seen it inevitable these three or four weeks, and, by heavens! request it as a favour—as a favour that may prevent something more fatal. I have been some years struggling with a wretched being—with all that contempt and indigence brings with it—with all those passions which make contempt unsupportable. What, then, has a jail that is formidable? I shall at least have the society of wretches, and such is to me true society. I tell you, again and again, that I am neither able nor willing to pay you a farthing, but I will be punctual to any appointment you or the tailor shall make; thus far, at least, I do not act the sharper, since unable to pay my own debts one way, I would generally give some security another. No, sir; had I been a sharper—had I been possessed of less good-nature and native generosity, I might surely now have been in better circumstances.

"I am guilty, I own, of meannesses which poverty unavoidably brings with it: my reflections are filled with repentance for my imprudence, but not with any remorse for being a villain; that may be a character you unjustly charge me with. Your books, I can assure you, are neither pawned nor sold, but in the custody of a friend, from whom my necessities obliged me to borrow some money: whatever becomes of my person, you shall have them in a month. It is very possible both the reports you have heard and your own suggestions may have brought you false information with respect to my character; it is very possible that the man whom you now regard with detestation may inwardly burn with grateful resentment. It is very possible that, upon a second perusal of the letter I sent you, you may see the workings of a mind strongly agitated with gratitude and jealousy. If such circumstances should appear, at least spare invective till my book with Mr. Dodsley shall be published, and then, perhaps, you may see the bright side of a mind, when my professions shall not appear the dictates of necessity, but of choice.

"You seem to think Dr. Milner knew me not. Perhaps so; but he was a man I shall ever honour; but I have friendships only with the dead! I ask pardon for taking up so much time; nor shall I add to it by any other professions than that I am, sir, your humble servant,

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

"P.S.—I shall expect impatiently the result of your resolutions."

The dispute between the poet and the publisher was afterward imperfectly adjusted, and it would appear that the clothes were paid for by a short compilation advertised by Griffiths in the course of the following month; but the parties were never really friends afterward, and the writings of Goldsmith were harshly and unjustly treated in the "Monthly Review."

We have given the preceding anecdote in detail, as furnishing one of the many instances in which Goldsmith's prompt and benevolent impulses outran all prudent forecast, and involved him in difficulties and disgraces which a more selfish man would have avoided. The pawning of the clothes, charged upon him as a crime by the grudging bookseller, and apparently admitted by him as one of "the meannesses which poverty unavoidably brings with it," resulted, as we have shown, from a tenderness of heart and generosity of hand in which another man would have gloried; but these were such natural elements with him that he was unconscious of their merit. It is a pity that wealth does not oftener bring such "meannesses" in its train.

And now let us be indulged in a few particulars about these lodgings in which Goldsmith was guilty of this thoughtless act of benevolence. They were in a very shabby house, No. 12, Green-arbour-court, between the Old Bailey and Fleet Market. An old woman was still living in 1820, who was a relative of the identical landlady whom Goldsmith relieved by the money received from the pawnbroker. She was a child

about seven years of age at the time that the poet rented his apartment of her relative, and used frequently to be at the house in Green-arbour-court. She was drawn there, in a great measure, by the good-humored kindness of Goldsmith, who was always exceedingly fond of the society of children. He used to assemble those of the family in his room, give them cakes and sweetmeats, and set them dancing to the sound of his flute. He was very friendly to those around him, and cultivated a kind of intimacy with a watchmaker in the court, who possessed much native wit and humour. He passed most of the day, however, in his room, and only went out in the evenings. His days were no doubt devoted to the drudgery of the pen, and it would appear that he occasionally found the booksellers urgent taskmasters. On one occasion a visitor was shown up to his room, and immediately their voices were heard in high altercation, and the key was turned within the lock. The landlady, at first, was disposed to go to the assistance of her lodger; but a calm succeeding, she forbore to interfere.

Late in the evening the door was unlocked; a supper ordered by the visitor from a neighbouring tavern, and Goldsmith and his intrusive guest finished the evening in great good-humour. It was probably his old taskmaster Griffiths, whose press might have been waiting, and who found no other mode of getting a stipulated task from Goldsmith than by locking him in and staying by him until it was finished.

But we have a more particular account of these lodgings in Green-arbour-court from the Rev. Thomas Percy, afterward Bishop of Dromore, and celebrated for his relics of ancient poetry, his beautiful ballads, and other works. During an occasional visit to London he was introduced to Goldsmith by Grainger, and ever after continued one of his most steadfast and valued friends. The following is his description of the poet's squalid apartment:—"I called on Goldsmith at his lodgings in March, 1759, and found him writing his 'Inquiry,' in a miserable, dirty-looking room, in which there was but one chair; and when, from civility, he resigned it to me, he himself was obliged to sit in the window. While we were conversing together some one tapped gently at the door, and being desired to come in, a poor, ragged little girl, of a very becoming demeanour, entered the room, and, dropping a courtsey, said, 'My mamma sends her compliments, and begs the favour of you to lend her a chamber-pot full of coals.'"

We are reminded in this anecdote of Goldsmith's picture of the lodgings of Beau Tibbs, and of the peep into the secrets of a make-shift establishment given to a visitor by the blundering old Scotchwoman.

"By this time we were arrived as high as the stairs would permit us to ascend, till we came to what he was facetiously pleased to call the first-floor down the chimney; and knocking at the door, a voice from within demanded 'Who's there?' My conductor answered that it was him. But this not satisfying the querist, the voice again repeated the demand, to which he answered louder than before; and now the door was opened by an old woman with cautious reluctance.

"When we got in, he welcomed me to his house with great ceremony; and, turning to the old woman, asked where was her lady. 'Good troth,' replied she, in a peculiar dialect, 'she's washing your twa shirts at the next door, because they have taken an oath against lending the tub any longer.' 'My two shirts!' cried he, in a tone that faltered with confusion; 'what does the idiot mean?' 'I ken what I mean weel enough,' replied the other; 'she's washing your twa shirts at the next door, because—' Fire and fury! no more of thy stupid explanations,' cried he; 'go and inform her we have company. Were that Scotch hag to be for ever in my family, she would never learn politeness, nor forget that absurd poisonous accent of hers, or testify the smallest

specimen of breeding or high life; and yet it is very surprising too, as I had her from a Parliament man, a friend of mine from the Highlands, one of the politest men in the world; but that's a secret."

Let us linger a little in Green-arbour-court—a place consecrated by the genius and the poverty of Goldsmith, but recently obliterated in the course of modern improvements. The writer of this memoir visited it not many years since on a literary pilgrimage, and may be excused for repeating a description of it which he has heretofore inserted in another publication. "It then existed in its pristine state, and was a small square of tall and miserable houses, the very intestines of which seemed turned inside out, to judge from the old garments and frippery that fluttered from every window. It appeared to be a region of washerwomen, and lines were stretched across the little square, on which clothes were dangling to dry.

"Just as we entered the square a scuffle took place between two viragoes about a disputed right to a wash-tub, and immediately the whole community was in a hubbub. Heads in mob caps popped out of every window, and such a clamour of tongues ensued that I was fain to stop my ears. Every Amazon took part with one or other of the disputants, and brandished her arms, dripping with soapsuds, and fired away from her window as from the embrasure of a fortress; while the screams of children nestled and cradled in every procreant chamber of this hive, waking with the noise, set up their shrill pipes to swell the general concert."

While in these forlorn quarters, suffering under extreme depression of spirits, caused by his failure at Surgeons' Hall, the disappointment of his hopes, and his harsh collisions with Griffiths, Goldsmith wrote the following letter to his brother Henry, some parts of which are most touchingly mournful.

"DEAR SIR,—Your punctuality in answering a man whose trade is writing, is more than I had reason to expect; and yet you generally see me fill a whole sheet, which is all the recompense I can make for being so frequently troublesome. The behaviour of Mr. Wells and Mr. Lawder is a little extraordinary. However, their answering neither you nor me is a sufficient indication of their disliking the employment which I assigned them. As their conduct is different from what I had expected, so I have made an alteration in mine. I shall, the beginning of next month, send over two hundred and fifty books,* which are all that I fancy can be well sold among you, and I would have you make some distinction in the persons who have subscribed. The money, which will amount to sixty pounds, may be left with Mr. Bradley as soon as possible. I am not certain but I shall quick'y have occasion for it.

"I have met with no disappointment with respect to my East India voyage, nor are my resolutions altered; though, at the same time, I must confess it gives me some pain to think that I am almost beginning the world at the age of thirty-one. Though I never had a day's sickness since I saw you, yet I am not that strong, active man you once knew me. You scarcely can conceive how much eight years of disappointment, anguish, and study have worn me down. If I remember right you are seven or eight years older than me, yet I dare venture to say, that if a stranger saw us both he would pay me the honours of seniority. Imagine to yourself a pale, melancholy visage, with two great wrinkles between the eyebrows, with an eye disgustingly severe, and a big wig; and you may have a perfect picture of my present appearance. On the other hand, I conceive you as perfectly sleek and healthy, passing many a happy day among your own children, or those who knew you a child.

"Since I knew what it was to be a man, this is a

* The "Inquiry into Polite Literature." His previous remarks apply to the subscription.

pleasure I have not known. I have passed my days among a parcel of cool, designing beings, and have contracted all their suspicious manner in my own behaviour. I should actually be as unfit for the society of my friends at home, as I detest that which I am obliged to partake of here. I can now neither partake of the pleasure of a revel, nor contribute to raise its jollity. I can neither laugh nor drink—have contracted a hesitating, disagreeable manner of speaking, and a visage that looks ill-nature itself; in short, I have thought myself into a settled melancholy, and an utter disgust of all that life brings with it. Whence this romantic turn that all our family are possessed with? Whence this love for every place and every country but that in which we reside—for every occupation but our own? This desire of fortune, and yet this eagerness to dissipate? I perceive, my dear sir, that I am at intervals for indulging this splenetic manner, and following my own taste regardless of yours.

"The reasons you have given me for breeding up your son a scholar are judicious and convincing; I should, however, be glad to know for what particular profession he is designed. If he be assiduous and divested of strong passions (for passions in youth always lead to pleasure), he may do very well in your college; for it must be owned that the industrious poor have good encouragement there—perhaps better than in any other in Europe. But if he has ambition, strong passions, and an exquisite sensibility of contempt, do not send him there, unless you have no other trade for him but your own. It is impossible to conceive how much may be done by proper education at home. A boy, for instance, who understands perfectly well Latin, French, arithmetic, and the principles of the civil law, and can write a fine hand, has an education that may qualify him for any undertaking; and these parts of learning should be carefully inculcated, let him be designed for whatever calling he will.

"Above all things, let him never touch a romance or novel; these paint beauty in colours more charming than nature, and describe happiness that man never tastes. How delusive, how destructive are those pictures of consummate bliss! They teach the youthful mind to sigh after beauty and happiness that never existed—to despise the little good which fortune has mixed in our cup, by expecting more than she ever gave; and, in general, take the word of a man who has seen the world, and who has studied human nature more by experience than precept—take my word for it, I say, that books teach us very little of the world. The greatest merit in a state of poverty would only serve to make the possessor ridiculous—may distress, but cannot relieve him. Frugality, and even avarice, in the lower orders of mankind are true ambition. These afford the only ladder for the poor to rise to preferment. Teach then, my dear sir, to your son—thrift and economy. Let his poor wandering uncle's example be placed before his eyes. I had learned from books to be disinterested and generous, before I was taught from experience the necessity of being prudent. I had contracted the habits and notions of a philosopher, while I was exposing myself to the approaches of insidious cunning; and often by being, even with my narrow finances, charitable to excess, I forgot the rules of justice, and placed myself in the very situation of the wretch who thanked me for my bounty. When I am in the remotest part of the world, tell him this, and perhaps he may improve from my example. But I find myself again falling into my gloomy habits of thinking.

"My mother, I am informed, is almost blind; even though I had the utmost inclination to return home, under such circumstances I could not, for to behold her in distress without a capacity of relieving her from it would add much to my splenetic habit. Your last letter was much too short; it should have answered some

queries I had made in my former. Just sit down as I do, and write forward until you have filled all your paper. It requires no thought, at least from the ease with which my own sentiments rise when they are addressed to you. For believe me, my head has no share in all I write; my heart dictates the whole. Pray give my love to Bob Bryanton, and entreat him from me not to drink. My dear sir, give me some account about poor Jenny.* Yet her husband loves her: if so, she cannot be unhappy.

"I know not whether I should tell you—yet why should I conceal these trifles, or, indeed, anything from you? There is a book of mine will be published in a few days, the life of a very extraordinary man—no less than the great Voltaire. You know already by the title that it is no more than a catchpeuny. However, I spent but four weeks on the whole performance, for which I received twenty pounds. When published, I shall take some method of conveying it to you, unless you may think it dear of the postage, which may amount to four or five shillings. However, I fear you will not find an equivalent of amusement.

"Your last letter, I repeat it, was too short; you should have given me your opinion of the design of the heroi-comical poem which I sent you. You remember, I intended to introduce the hero of the poem as lying in a paltry alehouse. You may take the following specimen of the manner, which I flatter myself is quite original. The room in which he lies may be described somewhat in this way:—

The window, patch'd with paper, lent a ray
That feebly show'd the state in which he lay;
The sanded floor, that grins beneath the tread,
The humid wall with paltry pictures spread;
The game of goose was there exposed to view,
And the twelve rules the royal martyr drew;
The Seasons, framed with listing, found a place,
And Prussia's monarch show'd his lamp-black face.
The morn was cold; he views with keen desire
A rusty grate, unconscious of a fire;
An unpaid reckoning on the frieze was scored,
And five crack'd teacups dress'd the chimney-board.

"And now imagine, after his soliloquy, the landlord to make his appearance in order to dun him for the reckoning:—

Not with that face, so servile and so gay,
That welcomes every stranger that can pay;
With sulky eye he smoked the patient man,
Then pull'd his breeches tight, and thus began,†

"All this is taken, you see, from nature. It is a good remark of Montaigne's, that the wisest men often have friends with whom they do not care how much they play the fool. Take my present follies as instances of my regard. Poetry is a much easier and more agreeable species of composition than prose; and, could a man live by it, it were not unpleasant employment to be a poet. I am resolved to leave no space, though I should fill it up only by telling you, what you very well know already—I mean that I am your most affectionate friend and brother,

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

The "Life of Voltaire," alluded to in the latter part of the preceding letter, was the literary job undertaken to satisfy the demands of Griffiths. It was to have preceded a translation of the *Henriade*, by Ned Purdon, Goldsmith's old schoolmate, who starved rather than lived by the exercise of his pen, and often tasked Goldsmith's scanty means to relieve his hunger. His miserable career was summed up by our poet in the following lines, written some years after the time we are treat-

* His sister, Mrs. Johnston; her marriage, like that of Mrs. Hodson, was private, but in pecuniary matters much less fortunate.

† The projected poem, of which the above are specimens, appears never to have been completed.

ing of, on hearing that he had suddenly dropped dead in Smithfield:—

Here lies poor Ned Purdon, from misery freed,
Who long was a bookseller's hack;
He led such a damnable life in this world,
I don't think he'll wish to come back.

The memoir and translation, though advertised to form a volume, were not published together, but appeared separately in a magazine.

As to the heroi-comical poem, also cited in the foregoing letter, it appears to have perished in embryo. Had it been brought to maturity we should have had further traits of autobiography; the room already described was probably his own squalid quarters in Green-arbour-court; and in a subsequent morsel of the poem we have the poet himself, under the euphonious name of Scroggin:—

Where the Red Lion peering o'er the way,
Invites each passing stranger that can pay;
Where Calvert's butt and Parson's black champagne
Regale the drabs and bloods of Drury Lane:
There, in a lonely room, from bailiffs snug,
The muse found Scroggin stretch'd beneath a rug;
A nightcap deck'd his brow instead of bay,
A cap by night, a stocking all the day.

It is to be regretted that this poetical conception was not carried out; like the author's other writings, it might have abounded with pictures of life and touches of nature drawn from his own observation and experience, and mellowed by his own humane and tolerant spirit; and might have been a worthy companion, or rather contrast, to his "Traveller" and "Deserted Village," and have remained in the language a first-rate specimen of the mock-heroic.

CHAP. XI.

Publication of "The Inquiry"—Attacked by Griffiths' Review—Kenrick, the literary Ishmaelite—Periodical literature—Goldsmith's *Essays*—Garriek as a manager—Smollett and his schemes—Change of lodgings—The Robin Hood club.

Towards the end of March, 1759, the treatise on which Goldsmith had laid so much stress, on which he at one time had calculated to defray the expenses of his outfit to India, and to which he had adverted in his correspondence with Griffiths, made its appearance. It was published by the Dodsleys, and entitled "An Inquiry into the Present State of Polite Learning in Europe."

In the present day, when the whole field of contemporary literature is so widely surveyed and amply discussed, and when the current productions of every country are constantly collated and ably criticised, a treatise like that of Goldsmith would be considered as extremely limited and unsatisfactory; but at that time it possessed novelty in its views and wideness in its scope, and being endued with the peculiar charm of style inseparable from the author, it commanded public attention and a profitable sale. As it was the most important production that had yet come from Goldsmith's pen, he was anxious to have the credit of it; yet it appeared without his name on the title-page. The authorship, however, was well-known throughout the world of letters, and the author had now grown into sufficient literary importance to become an object of hostility to the underlings of the press. One of the most virulent attacks upon him was in a criticism on this treatise, and appeared in the "Monthly Review," to which he himself had been recently a contributor. It slandered him as a man, while it decried him as an author, and accused him by innuendo of "labouring under the infamy of having, by the vilest and meanest actions, forfeited all pretensions to honour and honesty," and of practising "those acts which bring the sharper to the cart's-tail or the pillory."

It will be remembered that the Review was owned by Griffiths the bookseller, with whom Goldsmith had recently had a misunderstanding. The criticism, therefore, was no doubt dictated by the lingerings of resentment; and the imputations upon Goldsmith's character for honour and honesty, and the vile and mean actions hinted at, could only allude to the unfortunate pawning of the clothes. All this, too, was after Griffiths had received the affecting letters from Goldsmith, drawing a picture of his poverty and perplexities, and after the latter had made him a literary compensation. Griffiths, in fact, was sensible of the falsehood and extravagance of the attack, and tried to exonerate himself by declaring that the criticism was written by a person in his employ; but we see no difference in atrocity between him who wields the knife and him who hires the cut-throat. It may be well, however, in passing, to bestow our mite of notoriety upon the miscreant who launched the slander. He deserves it for a long course of dastardly and venomous attacks, not merely upon Goldsmith, but upon most of the successful authors of the day. His name was Kenrick. He was originally a mechanic, but possessing some degree of talent and industry, applied himself to literature as a profession. This he pursued for many years, and tried his hand in every department of prose and poetry; he wrote plays and satires, philosophical tracts, critical dissertations, and works on philology; nothing from his pen ever rose to first-rate excellence, or gained him a popular name, though he received from some university the degree of Doctor of Laws. Dr. Johnson characterised his literary career in one short sentence: "Sir, he is one of the many who have made themselves *public* without making themselves *known*."

Soured by his own want of success, jealous of the success of others, his natural irritability of temper increased by habits of intemperance, he at length abandoned himself to the practice of reviewing, and became one of the Ishmaelites of the press. In this, his malignant bitterness soon gave him a notoriety which his talents had never been able to attain. We shall dismiss him for the present with the following sketch of him, by the hand of one of his contemporaries:—

Dreaming of genius which he never had,
Half wit, half fool, half critic, and half mad;
Seizing, like Shirley, on the poet's lyre,
With all his rage, but not one spark of fire;
Eager for slaughter, and resolved to tear
From others' brows that wreath he must not wear—
Next Kenrick came, all furious and replete
With brandy, malice, pertness, and conceit;
Unskill'd in classic lore, through envy blind
To all that's beauteous, learned, or refined;
For faults alone, behold this savage prowl;
With reason's offal glut his ravening soul;
Pleased with his prey, its inmost blood he drinks,
And mumbles, paws, and turns it—till it stinks.

The British press about this time was extravagantly fruitful of periodical publications. That "oldest inhabitant," the "Gentleman's Magazine," almost coeval with St. John's Gate, which graced its title-page, had long been elbowed by magazines and reviews of all kinds; Johnson's "Rambler" had introduced the fashion of periodical essays, which he had followed up in his "Adventurer" and "Idler." Imitations had sprung up on every side, under every variety of name; until British literature was entirely overrun by a weedy and transient effluence. Many of these rival periodicals choked each other almost at the outset, and few of them have escaped oblivion.

Goldsmith wrote for some of the most successful, such as "The Bee," "The Busy Body," and "The Lady's Magazine." His essays, though characterised by his delightful style, his pure, benevolent morality, and his mellow, unobtrusive humour, did not produce equal effect at first with more garrish writings of infinitely less

value; they did not "strike," as it is termed; but they had that rare and enduring merit which rises in estimation on every perusal. They gradually stole upon the heart of the public, were copied into numerous contemporary publications, and now they are garnered up among the choice productions of British literature.

In his "Inquiry into the State of Polite Learning," Goldsmith had given offence to David Garrick, at that time the autocrat of the drama, and was doomed to experience its effects. A clamour had been raised against Garrick for exercising a despotism over the stage, and bringing forward nothing but old plays, to the exclusion of original productions. Walpole joined in this charge "Garrick," said he, "is treating the town as it deserves and likes to be treated, with scenes, fire-works, and *his own writings*. A good new play I never expect to see more; nor have seen since the 'Provoked Husband,' which came out when I was at school." Goldsmith, who was extremely fond of the theatre, and felt the evils of this system, inveighed in his treatise against the wrongs experienced by authors at the hands of managers. "Our poet's performance," said he, "must undergo a process truly chemical before it is presented to the public. It must be tried in the manager's fire—strained through a licenser—suffer from repeated corrections, till it may be mere *caput mortuum* when it arrives before the public." Again—"Getting a play on even in three or four years is a privilege reserved only for the happy few who have the arts of courting the manager as well as the muse—who have adulation to please his vanity, powerful patrons to support their merit, or money to indemnify disappointment. Our Saxon ancestors had but one name for a wit and a witch. I would not dispute the propriety of uniting those characters then; but the man who under present discouragements ventures to write for the stage, whatever claim he may have to the appellation of a wit, has at least no right to be called a conjuror." But a passage which perhaps touched more sensibly than all the rest on the sensibilities of Garrick was the following:—

"I have no particular spleen against the fellow who sweeps the stage with the broom, or the hero who brushes it with his train. It were a matter of indifference to me whether our heroines are in keeping or our candle-snuffers burn their fingers, did not such make a great part of public care and polite conversation. Our actors assume all that state off the stage which they do on it; and, to use an expression borrowed from the green-room, every one is *up* in his part. I am sorry to say it, they seem to forget their real characters."

These strictures were considered by Garrick as intended for himself, and they were rankling in his mind when Goldsmith waited upon him, and solicited his vote for the vacant secretaryship of the Society of Arts, of which the manager was a member. Garrick, puffed up by his dramatic renown and his intimacy with the great, and knowing Goldsmith only by his budding reputation, may not have considered him of sufficient importance to be conciliated. In reply to his solicitations, he observed that he could hardly expect his friendly exertions after the unprovoked attack he had made upon his management. Goldsmith replied that he had indulged in no personalities, and had only spoken what he believed to be the truth. He made no further apology nor application, failed to get the appointment, and considered Garrick his enemy. In the second edition of this treatise he expunged or modified the passages which had given the manager offence; but though the author and actor became intimate in after years, this false step at the outset of their intercourse was never forgotten.

About this time Goldsmith engaged with Dr. Smollett, who was about to launch the British Magazine. Smollett was a complete schemer and speculator in literature, and intent upon enterprises that had money rather than reputation in view. Goldsmith has a good-humoured

hit at his propensity in one of his papers in the "Bee," in which he represents Johnson, Hume, and others taking seats in the stage-coach bound for Fame, while Smollett prefers that destined for Riches.

Another prominent employer of Goldsmith was Mr. John Newbery, who engaged him to contribute occasional essays to a newspaper entitled the "Public Ledger," which made its first appearance on the 12th of January, 1760. His most valuable and characteristic contributions to this paper were his "Chinese Letters," subsequently modified into the "Citizen of the World." These lucubrations attracted general attention; they were reprinted in the various periodical publications of the day, and met with great applause. The name of the author, however, was as yet but little known.

Being now easier in circumstances, and in the receipt of frequent sums from the booksellers, Goldsmith, about the middle of 1760, emerged from his dismal abode in Green-arbour-court, and took respectable apartments in Wine-office-court, Fleet-street.

Still he continued to look back with considerate benevolence to the poor hostess whose necessities he had relieved by pawning his gala coat, for we are told that "he often supplied her with food from his own table, and visited her frequently with the sole purpose to be kind to her."

He now became a member of a debating club, called the "Robin Hood," which used to meet near Temple Bar, and in which Burke, while yet a Temple student, had first tried his powers. Goldsmith spoke here occasionally, and is recorded in the Robin Hood archives as "a candid disputant, with a clear head and an honest heart, though couping but seldom to the society." His relish was for clubs of a more social, jovial nature, and he was never fond of argument. An amusing anecdote is told of his first introduction to the club, by Samuel Derrick, an Irish acquaintance of some humour. On entering, Goldsmith was struck with the self-important appearance of the chairman, ensconced in a large gilt chair. "This," said he, "must be the Lord-Chancellor at least." "No, no," replied Derrick, "he's only master of the rolls."—"The chairman was a baker.

CHAP. XII.

New lodgings—Visits of ceremony—Hangers-on—Pilkington and the white mouse—Introduction to Dr. Johnson—Davies and his book-shop—Pretty Mrs. Davies—Foote and his projects—Criticism of the cudgel.

In his new lodgings in Wine-office-court Goldsmith began to receive visits of ceremony, and to entertain his literary friends. Among the latter he now numbered several names of note, such as Guthrie, Murphy, Christopher Smart, and Bickerstaff. He had also a numerous class of hangers-on, the small fry of literature; who, knowing his almost utter incapacity to refuse a pecuniary request, were apt, now that he was considered flush, to levy continual taxes upon his purse.

Among others, one Pilkington, an old college acquaintance, but now a shifting adventurer, duped him in the most ludicrous manner. He called on him with a face full of perplexity. A lady of the first rank having an extraordinary fancy for curious animals, for which she was willing to give enormous sums, he had procured a couple of white mice to be forwarded to her from India. They were actually on board of a ship in the river. Her grace had been apprised of her arrival, and was all impatience to see them. Unfortunately he had no cage to put them in, nor clothes to appear in before a lady of her rank. Two guineas would be sufficient for his purpose, but where were two guineas to be procured?

The simple heart of Goldsmith was touched; but, alas! he had but half-a-guinea in his pocket. It was unfor-

tunate, but, after a pause, his friend suggested, with some hesitation, "that money might be raised upon his watch; it would be but the loan of a few hours." So said, so done; the watch was delivered to the worthy Mr. Pilkington to be pledged at a neighbouring pawnbroker's; but nothing further was ever seen of him, the watch, or the white mice. The next that Goldsmith heard of the poor shifting scapegrace, he was on his death-bed, starving with want; upon which, forgetting or forgiving the trick he had played upon him, he sent him a guinea. Indeed, he used often to relate with great humour the foregoing anecdote of his credulity, and was ultimately in some degree indemnified, by its suggesting to him the amusing little story of Prince Boubeninn and the White Mouse in the "Citizen of the World."

In this year Goldsmith became personally acquainted with Dr. Johnson, toward whom he was drawn by strong sympathies, though their natures were widely different. Both had struggled from early life with poverty, but had struggled in different ways. Goldsmith—buoyant, heedless, sanguine, tolerant of evils and easily pleased—had shifted along by any temporary expedient; cast down at every turn, but rising again with indomitable good humour, and still carried forward by his talent of hoping. Johnson—melancholy and hypochondriacal, and prone to apprehend the worst, yet sternly resolute to battle with and conquer it—had made his way doggedly and gloomily, but with a noble principle of self-reliance and a disregard of foreign aid. Both had been irregular at college—Goldsmith, as we have shown, from the levity of his nature and his social and convivial habits; Johnson, from his acerbity and gloom. When in after life the latter heard himself spoken of as gay and frolicsome at college, because he had joined in some riotous excesses there, "Ah, sir!" replied he, "I was mad and violent. It was bitterness which they mistook for frolic. *I was miserably poor, and I thought to fight my way by my literature and my wit.* So I disregarded all power and all authority."

Goldsmith's poverty was never accompanied by bitterness; but neither was it accompanied by the guardian pride which kept Johnson from falling into the degrading shifts of poverty. Goldsmith had an unfortunate facility at borrowing, and helping himself along by the contributions of his friends; no doubt trusting, in his hopeful way, of one day making retribution. Johnson never hoped, and therefore never borrowed. In his sternest trials he proudly bore the ills he could not master. In his youth, when some unknown friend, seeing his shoes completely worn out, left a new pair at his chamber door, he disdainfully accepted the boon, and threw them away.

Though, like Goldsmith, an immethodical student, he had imbibed deeper draughts of knowledge, and made himself a riper scholar. While Goldsmith's happy constitution and genial humours carried him abroad into sunshine and enjoyment, Johnson's physical infirmities and mental gloom drove him upon himself—to the resources of reading and meditation; threw a deeper though darker enthusiasm into his mind, and stored a retentive memory with all kinds of knowledge.

After several years of youth passed in the country as usher, teacher, and an occasional writer for the press, Johnson, when twenty-eight years of age, came up to London with a half-written tragedy in his pocket; and David Garrick, late his pupil, and several years his junior, as a companion—both poor and penniless—both, like Goldsmith, seeking their fortunes in the metropolis. "We rode and tied," said Garrick sportively in after years of prosperity, when he spoke of their humble way-faring. "I came to London," said Johnson, "with twopence-halfpenny in my pocket." "Eh, what's that you say?" cried Garrick, "with twopence-halfpenny in your pocket?" "Why, yes; I came with twopence-halfpenny in my pocket, and thou, Davy, with but three-halfpence

in thine." Nor was there much exaggeration in the picture; for so poor were they in purse and credit, that after their arrival they had with difficulty raised five pounds, by giving their joint note to a bookseller in the Strand.

Many, many years had Johnson gone on obscurely in London, "fighting his way by his literature and his wit;" enduring all the hardships and the miseries of a Grub-street writer: so destitute at one time, that he and Savage the poet had walked all night about St. James's-square, both too poor to pay for a night's lodging, yet both full of poetry and patriotism, and determined to stand by their country; so shabby in dress at another time, that when he dined at Cave's, his bookseller, when there was prosperous company, he could not make his appearance at table, but had his dinner handed to him behind a screen.

Yet through all the long and dreary struggle, often diseased in mind as well as in body, he had been resolutely self-dependent, and proudly self-respectful; he had fulfilled his college vow—he had "fought his way by his literature and his wit." His "Rambler" and "Idler" had made him the great moralist of the age, and his "Dictionary and History of the English Language," that stupendous monument of individual labour, had excited the admiration of the learned world. He was now at the head of intellectual society; and had become as distinguished by his conversational as his literary powers. He had become as much an autocrat in his sphere as his fellow-wayfarer and adventurer Garrick had become of the stage, and had been humorously dubbed by Smollett "The Great Cham of Literature."

Such was Dr. Johnson, when, on the 31st of May, 1761, he was to make his appearance as a guest at a literary supper given by Goldsmith, to a numerous party at his new lodgings in Wine-office-court. It was the opening of their acquaintance. Johnson had felt and acknowledged the merit of Goldsmith as an author, and been pleased by the honourable mention made of himself in the "Bee" and the "Chinese Letters." Dr. Percy called upon Johnson to take him to Goldsmith's lodgings; he found Johnson arrayed with unusual care in a new suit of clothes, a new hat, and a well-powdered wig; and could not but notice his uncommon spruceness. "Why, sir," replied Johnson, "I hear that Goldsmith, who is a very great sloven, justifies his disregard of cleanliness and decency by quoting my practice, and I am desirous this night to show him a better example."

The acquaintance thus commenced ripened into intimacy in the course of frequent meetings at the shop of Davies, the bookseller, in Russell-street, Covent-Garden. As this was one of the great literary gossiping places of the day, especially to the circle over which Johnson presided, it is worthy of some specification. Mr. Thomas Davies, noted in after times as the biographer of Garrick, had originally been on the stage, and though a small man, had enacted tyrannical tragedy with a pomp and magniloquence beyond his size, if we may trust the description given of him by Churchill in the "Rosalind":—

Statesman all over—in plots famous grown,
He mouths a sentence as curs mouth a bone.

This unlucky sentence is said to have crippled him in the midst of his tragic career, and ultimately to have driven him from the stage. He carried into the book-selling craft somewhat of the grandiose manner of the stage, and was prone to be mouthy and magniloquent.

Churchill had intimated, that while on the stage he was more noted for his pretty wife than his good acting:—

With him came mighty Davies; on my life
That fellow has a very pretty wife.

"Pretty Mrs. Davies" continued to be the lode-star of his fortunes. Her tea-table became almost as much a literary lounge as her husband's shop. She found favour in the eyes of the Ursa Major of literature by her winning ways, and she poured out for him cups without stint of his favourite beverage. Indeed, it is suggested that she was one leading cause of his habitual resort to this literary haunt. Others were drawn thither for the sake of Johnson's conversation, and thus it became the resort of many of the notorieties of the day. Here might occasionally be seen Bennet Langton, George Stephens, Dr. Percy, celebrated for his ancient ballads, and sometimes Warburton, in prelate state. Garrick resorted to it for a time, but soon grew shy and suspicious, declaring that most of the authors who frequented Mr. Davies's shop went merely to abuse him.

Foote, the Aristophanes of the day, was a frequent visitor; his broad face beaming with fun and waggonery, and his satirical eye ever on the look-out for characters and incidents for his farces. He was struck with the old habits and appearances of Johnson and Goldsmith, now so often brought together in Davies's shop. He was about to put on the stage a farce called "The Orators," intended as a hit at the Robin Hood debating club, and resolved to show up the two doctors in it for the entertainment of the town.

"What is the common price of an oak stick, sir," said Johnson to Davies. "Sixpence," was the reply. "Why, then, sir, give me leave to send your servant to purchase a shilling one. I'll have a double quantity; for I am told Foote means to take me off, as he calls it, and I am determined he shall not do it with impunity."

Foote had no wish to undergo the criticism of the cudgel, wielded by two such potent hands, so the farce of "The Orators" appeared without the caricatures of the lexicographer and the essayist.

CHAP. XIII.

Oriental projects—Literary jobs—The Cherokee Chiefs—Merry Islington and the White Conduit House—Letters on the History of England—James Boswell—Dinner of Davies—Anecdotes of Johnson and Goldsmith.

Notwithstanding his growing success, Goldsmith continued to consider literature as a mere make-shift, and his vagrant imagination teemed with schemes and plans of a grand but indefinite nature. One was for visiting the East and exploring the interior of Asia. He had, as has been before observed, a vague notion that valuable discoveries were to be made there, and many useful inventions in the arts brought back to the stock of European knowledge. "Thus, in Siberian Tartary," observes he, in one of his writings, "the natives extract a strong spirit from milk, which is a secret probably unknown to the chemists of Europe. In the most savage parts of India they are possessed of the secret of dyeing vegetable substances scarlet, and that of refining lead into a metal which, for hardness and colour, is little inferior to silver."

Goldsmith adds a description of the kind of person suited to such an enterprise, in which he evidently had himself in view.

"He should be a man of a philosophical turn, one apt to deduce consequences of general utility from particular occurrences; neither swollen with pride nor hardened with prejudice; neither wedded to one particular system, nor instructed only in one particular science; neither wholly a botanist, nor quite an antiquarian; his mind should be tinctured with miscellaneous knowledge, and his manners humanized by an intercourse with men. He should be in some measure an enthusiast to the design; fond of travelling from a rapid imagination and innate love of change; furnished

with a body capable of sustaining every fatigue, and a heart not easily terrified at danger.

In 1761, when Lord Bute became prime minister on the accession of George the Third, Goldsmith drew up a memorial on the subject, suggesting the advantages to be derived from a mission to those countries solely for useful and scientific purposes; and, the better to ensure success, he preceded his application to the government by an ingenious essay to the same effect in the "Public Ledger."

His memorial and his essay were fruitless, his project most probably being deemed the dream of a visionary. Still it continued to haunt his mind, and he would often talk of making an expedition to Aleppo some time or other, when his means were greater, to inquire into the arts peculiar to the East, and to bring home such as might be valuable. Johnson, who knew how little poor Goldsmith was fitted by scientific lore for this favourite scheme of his fancy, scoffed at the project when it was mentioned to him. "Of all men," said he, "Goldsmith is the most unfit to go out upon such an inquiry, for he is utterly ignorant of such arts as we already possess, and, consequently, could not know what would be accessions to our present stock of mechanical knowledge. Sir, he would bring home a grinding barrow, which you see in every street in London, and think that he had furnished a wonderful improvement."

His connexion with Newbery, the bookseller, now led him into a variety of temporary jobs, such as a pamphlet on the Cock-lane Ghost, a "Life of Beau Nash," the famous master of ceremonies at Bath, &c. One of the best things for his fame, however, was the remodelling and republication of his "Chinese Letters," under the title of "The Citizen of the World," a work which has long since taken its merited stand among the classics of the English language. "Few works," it has been observed by one of his biographers, "exhibit a nicer perception or more delicate delineation of life and manners. Wit, humour, and sentiment pervade every page; the vices and follies of the day are touched with the most playful and diverting satire; and English characteristics, in endless variety, are hit off with the pencil of a master."

In seeking materials for his varied views of life, he often mingled in strange scenes and got involved in whimsical situations. In the summer of 1762, he was one of the thousands who went to see the Cherokee chiefs, whom he mentions in one of his writings. The Indians made their appearance in grand costumes, hideously painted and besmeared. In the course of the visit Goldsmith made one of the chiefs a present, who, in the ecstasy of his gratitude, gave him an embrace, that left his face well bedaubed with oil and red ochre.

Towards the close of 1762 he removed to "merry Islington," then a country village, though now swallowed up in omnivorous London. He went there for the benefit of country air, his health being injured by literary application and confinement, and to be near his chief employer, Mr. Newbery, who resided in the Canonbury House. In this neighbourhood he used to take his solitary rambles, sometimes extending his walks to the gardens of the "White Conduit House," so famous among the essayists of the last century. While strolling one day in these gardens, he met three females of the family of a respectable tradesman, to whom he was under some obligation. With his prompt disposition to oblige he conducted them about the garden, treated them to tea, and ran up a bill in the most open-handed manner imaginable; it was only when he came to pay that he found himself in one of his old dilemmas—he had not the wherewithal in his pocket. A scene of perplexity now took place between him and the waiter, in the midst of which came up some of his acquaintances, in whose eyes he wished to stand particularly well. This completed his mortification. There was no concealing the awkwardness of his position—the sneers of the waiter

revealed it. His acquaintances amused themselves for some time at his expense, professing their inability to relieve him. When, however, they had enjoyed their banter, the waiter was paid, and poor Goldsmith enabled to convoy off the ladies with flying colours.

Among the various productions thrown off by him for the booksellers during this growing period of his reputation, was a small work in two volumes, entitled "The History of England, in a series of Letters from a Nobleman to his Son." It was digested from Hume, Rapin, Carte, and Kennet. These authors he would read in the morning; make a few notes; ramble with a friend into the country about the skirts of "merry Islington;" return to a temporary dinner and cheerful evening; and before going to bed, write off what had arranged itself in his head from the studies of the morning. In this way he took a more general view of the subject, and wrote in a more free and fluent style than if he had been mousing at the time among authorities. The work, like many others written by him in the earlier part of his literary career, was anonymous. Some attributed it to Lord Chesterfield, others to Lord Orrery, and others to Lord Lyttleton. The latter seemed to be pleased to be the putative father, and never disowned the hantling thus laid at his door; and well might he have been proud to be considered capable of producing what has been well-pronounced "the most finished and elegant summary of English history in the same compass that has been or is likely to be written."

The reputation of Goldsmith, it will be perceived, grew slowly; he was known and estimated by a few; but he had not those brilliant though fallacious qualities which flash upon the public, and excite loud but transient applause. His works were more read than cited; and the charm of style, for which he was especially noted, was more apt to be felt than talked about. He used often to repine, in a half-humorous, half-querulous manner, at his tardiness in gaining the laurels which he felt to be his due. "The public," he would exclaim, "will never do me justice; whenever I write anything, they make a point to know nothing about me."

About the beginning of 1763 he became acquainted with Boswell, whose literary gossipings were destined to have a deleterious effect upon his reputation. Boswell was at that time a young man, light, buoyant, pushing, and presumptuous. He had a morbid passion for mingling in the society of men noted for wit and learning, and had just arrived from Scotland, bent upon making his way into the literary circles of the metropolis. An intimacy with Dr. Johnson, the great literary luminary of the day, was the crowning object of his aspiring and somewhat ludicrous ambition. He expected to meet him at a dinner to which he was invited at Davies, the bookseller's, but was disappointed. Goldsmith was present, but he was not as yet sufficiently renowned to excite the reverence of Boswell. "At this time," says he in his notes, "I think he had published nothing with his name, though it was pretty generally understood that one Dr. Goldsmith was the author of 'An Inquiry into the Present State of Polite Learning in Europe,' and of 'The Citizen of the World,' a series of letters supposed to be written from London by a Chinese."

A conversation took place at a table between Goldsmith and Mr. Robert Dodsley, compiler of the well-known collection of modern poetry, as to the merits of the current poetry of the day. Goldsmith declared there was none of superior merit. Dodsley cited his own collection in proof of the contrary. "It is true," said he, "we can boast of no palaces now-a-days, like 'Dryden's Ode to St. Cecilia's Day,' but we have villages composed of very pretty houses." Goldsmith, however, maintained that there was nothing above mediocrity, an opinion in which Johnson, to whom it was repeated, concurred, and with reason, for the era was one of the dead levels of British poetry.

Boswell has made no note of this conversation; he was an unitarian in his literary devotion, and disposed to worship none but Johnson. Little Davies endeavoured to console him for his disappointment, and to stay the stomach of his curiosity, by giving him imitations of the great lexicographer; mouthing his words, rolling his head, and assuming as ponderous a manner as his petty person would permit. Boswell was shortly afterwards made happy by an introduction to Johnson, of whom he became the obsequious satellite. From him he likewise imbibed a more favourable opinion of Goldsmith's merits, though he was fain to consider them derived in a great measure from his Magnus Apollo. "He had sagacity enough," says he, "to cultivate assiduously the acquaintance of Johnson, and his faculties were gradually enlarged by the contemplation of such a model. To me and many others it appeared that he studiously copied the manner of Johnson, though, indeed, upon a smaller scale." So, on another occasion, he calls him "one of the brightest ornaments of the Johnsonian school." "His respectful attachment to Johnson," adds he, "was then at its height; for his own literary reputation had not yet distinguished him so much as to excite a desire of competition with his great master." What beautiful instances does the garrulous Boswell give of the goodness of heart of Johnson, and the passing homage to it by Goldsmith. They were speaking of a Mr. Levett, long an inmate of Johnson's house and a dependent on his bounty; and who, Boswell thought, must be an irksome charge upon him. "He is poor and honest," said Goldsmith, "which is recommendation enough to Johnson."

Boswell mentioned another person of a very bad character, and wondered at Johnson's kindness to him. "He is now become miserable," said Goldsmith, "and that insures the protection of Johnson." Encomiums like these speak almost as much for the heart of him who praises as of him who is praised.

Subsequently, when Boswell had become more intense in his literary idolatry, he affected to undervalue Goldsmith, and a lurking hostility to him is discernible throughout his writings, which some have attributed to a silly spirit of jealousy of the superior esteem evinced for the poet by Dr. Johnson. We have a gleam of this in his account of the first evening he spent in company with those two eminent authors at their famous resort, the Mitre Tavern, in Fleet-street. This took place on the 1st of July, 1768. The trio supped together, and passed some time in literary conversation. On quitting the tavern, Johnson, who had now been sociably acquainted with Goldsmith for two years, and saw his merits, took him with him to drink tea with his blind pensioner, Miss Williams—a high privilege among his intimates and admirers. To Boswell, a recent acquaintance, whose intrusive sycophancy had not yet made its way into his confidential intimacy, he gave no invitation. Boswell felt it with all the jealousy of a little mind. "Dr. Goldsmith," says he, in his memoirs, "being a privileged man, went with him, strutting away, and calling to me with an air of superiority, like that of an esoteric over an exoteric disciple of a sage of antiquity. 'I go to Miss Williams.' I confess I then envied him this mighty privilege, of which he seemed to be so proud; but it was not long before I obtained the same mark of distinction."

Obtained! but how? not like Goldsmith, by the force of unpretending but congenial merit, but by a course of the most pushing, contriving, and spaniel-like subserviency. Really, the ambition of the man to illustrate his mental insignificance, by continually placing himself in juxtaposition with the great lexicographer, has something in it perfectly ludicrous. Never, since the days of Don Quixote and Sancho Panza has there been presented to the world a more whimsically contrasted pair of associates than Johnson and Boswell.

"Who is this Scotch cur at Johnson's heels?" asked some one, when Boswell had worked his way into incessant companionship. "He is not a cur," replied Goldsmith, "you are too severe; he is only a burr. Tom Davies flung him at Johnson in sport, and he has the faculty of sticking."

CHAP. XIV.

Hogarth a visitor at Islington—His character—Street studies—Sympathies between authors and painters—Sir Joshua Reynolds—His character—His dinners—The Literary Club—Its members—Johnson's revels with Lanky and Beau—Goldsmith at the club.

Among the intimates who used to visit the poet occasionally in his retreat at Islington was Hogarth the painter. Goldsmith had spoken well of him in his essays in the "Public Ledger," and this formed the first link in their friendship. He was at this time upwards of sixty years of age, and is described as a stout, active, bustling little man, in a sky-blue coat, satirical and dogmatic, yet full of real benevolence and the love of human nature. He was the moralist and philosopher of the pencil; like Goldsmith, he had sounded the depths of vice and misery without being polluted by them; and though his picturing had not the pervading amenity of those of the essayist, and dwelt more on the crimes and vices than the follies and humours of mankind, yet they were all calculated in like manner to fill the mind with instruction and precept, and to make the heart better.

Hogarth does not appear to have had much of the rural feeling with which Goldsmith was so amply endowed, and may not have accompanied him in his strolls about hedges and green lanes; but he was a fit companion with whom to explore the mazes of London, in which he was continually on the look out for character and incident. One of Hogarth's admirers speaks of having come upon him in Castle-street, engaged in one of his street studies—watching two boys who were quarrelling, patting one on the back who flinched, and endeavouring to spirit him up to a fresh encounter. "At him again! D—him, if I would take it of him! at him again!"

A frail memorial of this intimacy between the painter and the poet exists in a portrait in oil, called "Goldsmith's Hostess." It is supposed to have been painted by Hogarth in the course of his visits to Islington, and given by him to the poet as a means of paying his landlady. There are no friendships among men of talents more likely to be sincere than those between painters and poets. Possessed of the same qualities of mind, governed by the same principles of taste and natural laws of grace and beauty, but applying them to different yet mutually illustrative arts, they are constantly in sympathy, and never in collision with each other.

A still more congenial intimacy of the kind was that contracted by Goldsmith with Mr. (afterwards Sir Joshua) Reynolds. The latter was now about forty years of age, a few years older than the poet, whom he charmed by the blandness and benignity of his manners, and the nobleness and generosity of his disposition; as much as he did by the graces of his pencil and the magic of his colouring. They were men of kindred genius, excelling in corresponding qualities of their several arts—for style in writing is what colour is in painting; both are innate endowments, and equally magical in their effects. Certain graces and harmonies of both may be acquired by diligent study and imitation, but only in a limited degree; whereas by their natural possessors they are exercised spontaneously and unconsciously, and with ever-varying fascination. Reynolds soon understood and appreciated the merits of Goldsmith, and a sincere and lasting friendship ensued between them.

At Reynolds's house Goldsmith mingled in a higher range of company than he had been accustomed to. The fame of this celebrated artist, and his amenity of manners, were gathering round him men of talents of all kinds, and the increasing affluence of his circumstances enabled him to give full indulgence to his hospitable disposition. Poor Goldsmith had not yet, like Dr. Johnson, acquired reputation enough to atone for his external defects and his want of the air of good society. Miss Reynolds used to inveigh against his personal appearance, which gave her the idea, she said, of a low mechanic, a journeyman tailor. One evening, at a large supper party, being called upon to give as a toast the ugliest man she knew, she gave Dr. Goldsmith, upon which a lady who sat opposite, and whom she had never met before, shook hands with her across the table, and "hoped to become better acquainted."

We have a graphic and amusing picture of Reynolds's hospitable but motley establishment, in an account given by a Mr. Courtenay to Sir James Mackintosh; though it speaks of a time after Reynolds had received the honour of knighthood. "There was something singular," said he, "in the style and economy of Sir Joshua's table that contributed to pleasantness and good humour—a coarse, inelegant plenty, without any regard to order and arrangement. At five o'clock precisely dinner was served, whether all the invited guests were arrived or not. Sir Joshua was never so fashionably ill-bred as to wait an hour, perhaps, for two or three persons of rank or title, and put the rest of the company out of humour by this invidious distinction. His invitations, however, did not regulate the number of his guests. Many dropped in uninvited. A table prepared for seven or eight was often compelled to contain fifteen or sixteen. There was a consequent deficiency of knives, forks, plates, and glasses. The attendance was in the same style, and those who were knowing in the ways of the house took care, on sitting down, to call instantly for beer, bread, or wine, that they might secure a supply before the first course was over. He was once prevailed on to furnish the table with decanters and glasses at dinner, to save time and prevent confusion. These gradually were demolished in the course of service, and were never replaced. These trifling embarrassments, however, only served to enhance the hilarity and singular pleasure of the entertainment. The wine, cookery, and dishes were but little attended to; nor was the fish or venison ever talked of or recommended. Amidst this convivial animated bustle among his guests our host sat perfectly composed; always attentive to what was said, never minding what was ate or drank, but left every one at perfect liberty to scramble for himself."

Out of the casual but frequent meeting of men of talent at this hospitable board rose that association of wits, authors, scholars, and statesmen, renowned as the Literary Club. Reynolds was the first to propose a regular association of the kind, and was eagerly seconded by Johnson, who proposed as a model a club which he had formed many years previously in Ivy-lane, but which was now extinct. Like that club the number of members was limited to nine. They were to meet and sup together once a week, on Monday night, at the Turk's Head in Gerard-street, Soho, and two members were to constitute a meeting. It took a regular form in the year 1764, but did not receive its literary appellation until several years afterwards.

The original members were Reynolds, Johnson, Burke, Dr. Nugent, Bennet Langton, Topham Beauclerc, Chamier, Hawkins, and Goldsmith; and here a few words concerning some of the members may be acceptable. Burke was at that time about thirty-three years of age; he had mingled a little in politics, and been under-secretary to Hamilton at Dublin, but was again a writer for the booksellers, and as yet but in the dawning of his fame. Dr. Nugent was his father-in-

law, a Roman Catholic, and a physician of talent and instruction. Mr. (afterwards Sir John) Hawkins was admitted into this association from having been a member of Johnson's Ivy-lane club. Originally an attorney, he had retired from the practice of the law, in consequence of a large fortune which fell to him in the right of his wife, and was now a Middlesex magistrate. He was, moreover, a dabbler in literature and music, and was actually engaged on a history of music, which he subsequently published in five ponderous volumes. To him we are also indebted for a biography of Johnson, which appeared after the death of that eminent man. Hawkins was as mean and parsimonious as he was pompous and conceited. He forbore to partake of the suppers at the club, and begged, therefore, to be excused from paying his share of the reckoning. "And was he excused?" asked Dr. Burney of Johnson. "Oh yes, for no man is angry at another for being inferior to himself. We all scorned him and admitted his plea. Yet I really believe him to be an honest man at the bottom, though to be sure he is penurious, and he is mean, and it must be owned he has a tendency to savageness." He did not remain above two or three years in the club; being in a manner elbowed out in consequence of his rudeness to Burke.

Mr. Anthony Chamier was secretary in the war-office, and a friend of Beauclerc, by whom he was proposed. We have left our mention of Bennet Langton and Topham Beauclerc until the last, because we have most to say about them. They were doubtless induced to join the club through their devotion to Johnson, and the intimacy of these two very young and aristocratic young men with the stern and somewhat melancholy moralist is among the curiosities of literature.

Bennet Langton was of an ancient family, who held their ancestral estate of Langton in Lincolnshire—a great title to respect with Johnson. "Langton, sir," he would say, "has a grant of free warren from Henry the Second; and Cardinal Stephen Langton, in King John's reign, was of this family."

Langton was of a mild, contemplative, enthusiastic nature. When but eighteen years of age, he was delighted with reading Johnson's "Rambler," that he came to London chiefly with a view to obtain an introduction to the author. Boswell gives us an account of his first interview, which took place in the morning. It is not often that the personal appearance of an author agrees with the preconceived ideas of his admirer. Langton, from perusing the writings of Johnson, expected to find him a decent, well-dressed—in short a remarkably decorous philosopher. Instead of which, down from his bedchamber, about noon, came, as newly risen, a large uncouth figure, with a little dark wig which scarcely covered his head, and his clothes hanging loose about him. But his conversation was so rich, so animated, and so forcible, and his religious and political notions so congenial with those in which Langton had been educated, that he conceived for him that veneration and attachment which he ever preserved.

Langton went to pursue his studies at Trinity College, Oxford, where Johnson saw much of him during a visit which he paid to the university. He found him in close intimacy with Topham Beauclerc, a youth two years older than himself, very gay and dissipated, and wondered what sympathies could draw two young men together of such opposite characters. On becoming acquainted with Beauclerc, he found that, rake though he was, he possessed an ardent love of literature, an acute understanding, polished wit, innate gentility, and high aristocratic breeding. He was, moreover, the only son of Lord Sidney Beauclerc, and grandson of the Duke of St. Albans, and was thought in some particulars to have a resemblance to Charles the Second. These were high recommendations with Johnson; and when the youth testified a profound respect for him,

and an ardent admiration of his talents, the conquest was complete, so that in a "short time," says Boswell, "the moral, pious Johnson and the gay, dissipated Beauclerc were companions."

The intimacy begun in college chambers was pleasantly continued when the youths came to town during the vacations. The uncouth, unwieldy moralist was flattered at finding himself an object of idolatry to two high-born, high-bred young men, and, throwing gravity aside, was ready to join in their vagaries and play the part of a "young man upon town." Such at least is the picture given of him by Boswell on one occasion, when Beauclerc and Langton, having supped together at a tavern, determined to give Johnson a rouse at three o'clock in the morning. They accordingly rapped violently at the door of his chambers in the Temple. The indignant sage sallied forth in his shirt, poker in hand, and a little black wig on the top of his head instead of helmet, prepared to wreak vengeance on the assailants of his castle; but when his two young friends, *Lunkay* and *Beau*, as he used to call them, presented themselves, summoning him forth to a morning ramble, his whole manner changed. "What, is it you, ye dogs?" cried he; "faith I'll have a frisk with you!"

So said, so done. They sallied forth together into Covent Garden; figured among the green-grocers and fruit-women, just come in from the country with their hampers; repaired to a neighbouring tavern, where Johnson brewed a bowl of *bishop* (a favourite beverage with him), grew merry over his cups, and anathematised sleep in two lines from Lord Lansdowne's drinking song:—

Short, very short, be then thy reign,
For I'm in haste to laugh and drink again.

They then took boat again, rowed to Billingsgate, and Johnson and Beauclerc determined, like "mad wags," to "keep it up" for the rest of the day. Langton, however, the most sober-minded of the three, pleaded an engagement to breakfast with some young ladies; whereupon the great moralist reproached him with "leaving his social friends to go and sit with a set of wretched *un-ideal* girls."

This madcap freak of the great lexicographer made a sensation, as may well be supposed, among his intimates. "I heard of your frolic to other night," said Garrick to him; "you'll be in the 'Chronicle.'" He uttered worse forebodings to others. "I shall have my old friend to bail out of the roundhouse," said he. Johnson, however, valued himself upon having thus enacted a chapter in the "Rake's Progress," and crowded over Garrick on the occasion. "He durst not do such a thing!" chuckled he; "his wife would not let him!"

When these two young men entered the club, Langton was about twenty-two, and Beauclerc about twenty-four years of age, and both were launched on London life. Langton, however, was still the mild, enthusiastic scholar, steeped to the lips in Greek, with fine conversational powers, and an invaluable talent for listening. He was upwards of six feet high, and very spare. "Oh! that we could sketch him," exclaimed Miss Hawkins, in her *Memoirs*, "with his mild countenance, his elegant features, and his sweet smile, sitting with one leg twisted round the other, as if fearing to occupy more space than was equitable; his person inclining forward, as if wanting strength to support his weight, and his arms crossed over his bosom, or his hands locked together on his knee." Beauclerc, on such occasions, sportively compared him to a stork in Raphael's *Cartoons*, standing on one leg. Beauclerc was more a "man upon town," a loungeur in St. James's-street, an associate with George Selwyn, with Walpole, and other aristocratic wits; a man of fashion at court; a casual frequenter of the gaming-table; yet, with all this, he alternated in the easiest and happiest manner the scholar and the man of letters; lounged into the club with the most perfect

self-possession, bringing with him the careless grace and polished wit of high-bred society, but making himself cordially at home among his learned fellow-members.

The gay lettered rake maintained his sway over Johnson, who was fascinated by that air of the world, that ineffable tone of good society in which he felt himself deficient, especially as the possessor of it always paid homage to his superior talent. "Beauclerc," he would say, using a quotation from Pope, "has a love of folly, but a scorn of fools; everything he does shows the one, and everything he says the other." Beauclerc delighted in rallying the stern moralist, of whom others stood in awe, and no one, according to Boswell, could take equal liberty with him with impunity. Johnson, it is well known, was often shabby and negligent in his dress, and not over-cleanly in his person. On receiving a pension from the crown, his friends vied with each other in respectful congratulations. Beauclerc simply scanned his person with a whimsical glance, and hoped that, like Falstaff, "he'd in future purge and live cleanly like a gentleman." Johnson took the hint with unexpected good humour, and profited by it.

Still Beauclerc's satirical vein, which darted shafts on every side, was not always tolerated by Johnson. "Sir," said he, on one occasion, "you never open your mouth but with intention to give pain; and you have often given me pain, not from the power of what you have said, but from seeing your intention."

When it was at first proposed to enrol Goldsmith among the members of this association, there seems to have been some demur; at least so says the pompous Hawkins. "As he wrote for the booksellers, we of the club looked on him as a mere literary drudge, equal to the task of compiling and translating, but little capable of original, and still less of poetical composition."

Even for some time after his admission, he continued to be regarded in a dubious light by some of the members. Johnson and Reynolds, of course, were well aware of his merits, nor was Burke a stranger to them; but to the others he was as yet a sealed book, and the outside was not prepossessing. His ungainly person and awkward manners were against him with men accustomed to the graces of society, and he was not sufficiently at home to give play to his humour, and to that *bonhomie* which won the hearts of all who knew him. He felt strange and out of place in this sphere; he felt at times the cool satirical eye of the courtly Beauclerc scanning him, and the more he attempted to appear at his ease the more awkward he became.

CHAP. XV.

Johnson a monitor to Goldsmith—Finds him in distress with his landlady—Relieved by the "Vicar of Wakefield"—The oratorio—Poem of "The Traveller"—The poet and his dog—Success of the poem—Astonishment of the club—Observations on the poem.

Johnson had now become one of Goldsmith's best friends and advisers. He knew all the weak points of his character, but he knew also his merits; and while he would rebuke him like a child, and rail at his errors and follies, he would suffer no one else to undervalue him. Goldsmith knew the soundness of his judgment and his practical benevolence, and often sought his counsel and aid amid the difficulties into which his heedlessness was continually plunging him.

"I received one morning," says Johnson, "a message from poor Goldsmith that he was in great distress, and, as it was not in his power to come to me, begging that I would come to him as soon as possible. I sent him a guinea, and promised to come to him directly. I accordingly went as soon as I was dressed, and found that his landlady had arrested him for his rent, at which he was

in a violent passion: I perceived that he had already changed my guinea, and had a bottle of Madeira and a glass before him. I put the cork into the bottle, desired he would be calm, and began to talk to him of the means by which he might be extricated. He then told me he had a novel ready for the press, which he produced to me. I looked into it, and saw its merit; told the landlady I should soon return; and, having gone to a bookseller, sold it for sixty pounds. I brought Goldsmith the money, and he discharged his rent, not without rating his landlady in a high tone for having used him so ill."

The novel in question was the "Vicar of Wakefield;" the bookseller to whom Johnson sold it was Francis Newbery, nephew to John. Strange as it may seem, this captivating work, which has obtained and preserved an almost unrivalled popularity in various languages, was so little appreciated by the bookseller, that he kept it by him nearly two years unpublished!

Goldsmith had as yet produced nothing of moment in poetry. Among his literary jobs, it is true, was an oratorio entitled "The Captivity," founded on the bondage of the Israelites in Babylon. It was one of those unhappy offsprings of the muse ushered into existence amid the distortions of music. Most of the oratorio has passed into oblivion; but the following song from it will never die:—

The wretch condemn'd from life to part,
Still, still on hope relies,
And ev'ry pang that rends the heart
Bids expectation rise.

Hope, like the glimmering taper's light,
Illumes and cheers our way;
And still, as darker grows the night,
Emits a brighter ray.

Goldsmith distrusted his qualifications to succeed in poetry, and doubted the disposition of the public mind in regard to it. "I fear," said he, "I have come too late into the world; Pope and other poets have taken up the places in the Temple of fame; and as few at any period can possess poetical reputation, a man of genius can now hardly acquire it." Again, on another occasion he observes—"Of all kinds of ambition, as things are now circumstanced, perhaps that which pursues poetical fame is the wildest. What from the increased refinement of the times, from the diversity of judgment produced by opposing systems of criticism, and from the more prevalent divisions of opinion influenced by party, the strongest and happiest efforts can expect to please but in a very narrow circle."

At this very time he had by him his poem of "The Traveller." The plan of it, as has already been observed, was conceived many years before, during his travels in Switzerland, and a sketch of it sent from that country to his brother Henry in Ireland. The original outline is said to have embraced a wider scope; but it was probably contracted through diffidence in the process of finishing the parts. It had laid by him for several years in a crude state, and it was with extreme hesitation, and after much revision, that he at length submitted it to Dr. Johnson. The frank and warm approbation of the latter encouraged him to finish it for the press; and Dr. Johnson himself contributed a few lines towards the conclusion.

We hear much about "poet's inspiration," and the "poet's eye in a fine frenzy rolling;" but Sir Joshua Reynolds gives an anecdote of Goldsmith while engaged upon his poem, calculated to cure our notions about the ardour of composition. Calling upon the poet one day, he opened the door without ceremony, and found him in the double occupation of turning a couplet and teaching a pet dog to sit upon his haunches. At one time he would glance his eye at his desk, and at another shake his finger at the dog to make him retain his position.

The last lines on the page were still wet; they form a part of the description of Italy—

By sports like these are all their cares beguiled—
The sports of children satisfy the child.

Goldsmith, with his usual good humour, joined in the laugh caused by his whimsical employment, and acknowledged that his boyish sport with the dog suggested the stanza.

The poem was published on the 19th of December, 1764, in a quarto form, by Newbery, and was the first of his works to which Goldsmith prefixed his name. As a testimony of cherished and well-merited affection, he dedicated it to his brother Henry. There is an amusing affectation of indifference as to its fate expressed in the dedication. "What reception a poem may find," says he, "which has neither abuse, party, nor blank verse to support it, I cannot tell, nor am I solicitous to know." The truth is, no one was more emulous and anxious for poetic fame; and never was he more anxious than in the present instance, for it was his grand stake. Dr. Johnson aided the launching of the poem by a favourable notice in the "Critical Review;" other periodical works came out in its favour. Some of the author's friends complained that it did not command instant and wide popularity—that it was a poem to win, not to strike. It went on rapidly increasing in favour; in three months a second edition was issued: shortly afterwards, a third; then a fourth; and, before the year was out, the author was pronounced the best poet of his time.

The appearance of "The Traveller" at once altered Goldsmith's intellectual standing in the estimation of society; but its effect upon the club, if we may judge from the account given by Hawkins, was most ludicrous. They were lost in astonishment that a "newspaper essayist" and "bookseller's drudge" should have written such a poem. On the evening of its announcement to them, Goldsmith had gone away early, after rattling away as usual, and they knew not how to reconcile his heedless garrulity with the serene beauty, the easy grace, the sound good sense, and the occasional elevation of his poetry. They could scarcely believe that such magic numbers had flowed from a man to whom in general, says Johnson, "it was with difficulty they could give a hearing." "Well," exclaimed Chamier, "I do believe he wrote this poem himself; and let me tell you, that is believing a great deal."

At the next meeting of the club Chamier sounded the author a little about his poem. "Mr. Goldsmith," said he, "what do you mean by the last word in the first line of your Traveller, 'remote, unfriended, solitary, *slow*'? do you mean tardiness of locomotion?"—"Yes," replied Goldsmith, inconsiderately, being probably hurried at the moment. "No, sir," interposed his protecting friend Johnson, "you did not mean tardiness of locomotion; you meant that sluggishness of mind which comes upon a man in solitude."—"Ah!" exclaimed Goldsmith, "that was what I meant." Chamier immediately believed that Johnson himself had written the line, and a rumour became prevalent that he was the author of many of the finest passages. This was ultimately set at rest by Johnson himself, who marked with a pencil all the verses he had contributed, nine in number inserted towards the conclusion, and by no means the best in the poem. He moreover, with generous warmth, pronounced it the finest poem that had appeared since the days of Pope.

But one of the highest testimonials to the charm of the poem was given by Miss Reynolds, who had toasted poor Goldsmith as the ugliest man of her acquaintance. Shortly after the appearance of "The Traveller," Dr. Johnson read it aloud from beginning to end in her presence. "Well," exclaimed she, when he had finished, "I never more shall think Dr. Goldsmith ugly!"

On another occasion, when the merits of "The Traveller" were discussed at Reynolds's board, Langton declared "there was not a bad line in the poem, not one of Dryden's careless verses." "I was glad," observed Reynolds, "to hear Charles Fox say it was one of the finest poems in the English language." "Why was you glad?" rejoined Langton, "you surely had no doubt of this before." "No," interposed Johnson, decisively; "the merit of 'The Traveller' is so well established, that Mr. Fox's praise cannot augment it, nor his censure diminish it."

Boswell, who was absent from England at the time of the publication of "The Traveller," was astonished, on his return, to find Goldsmith, whom he had so much undervalued, suddenly elevated almost to a par with his idol. He accounted for it by concluding, that much both of the sentiments and expression of the poem had been derived from conversations with Johnson. "He imitates you, sir," said this incarnation of toadyism. "Why, no, sir," replied Johnson, "Jack Hawkesworth is one of my imitators, but not Goldsmith. Goldy, sir, has great merit." "But, sir, he is much indebted to you for his getting so high in the public estimation." "Why, sir, he has, perhaps, got *sooner* to it by his intimacy with me."

The poem went through several editions in the course of the first year, and received some few additions and corrections from the author's pen. It produced a golden harvest to Mr. Newbery, but all the remuneration on record doled out by his niggard hand to the author was twenty guineas!

CHAP. XVI.

New lodgings—Johnson's compliment—A titled patron—The poet at Northumberland House—His independence of the great—The Countess of Northumberland—"Edwin and Angelina"—Gosford and Lord Clare—Publication of his "Essays"—Evils of a rising reputation—Hangers-on—Job writing—Goody Two-Shoes—A medical campaign—Mrs. Sidebotham.

Goldsmith, now that he was rising in the world, and becoming a notoriety, felt himself called upon to improve his style of living. Accordingly he emerged from Wine office-court, and took chambers in the Temple. It is true they were but of humble pretensions, situated on what was then the library staircase, and it would appear that he was a kind of inmate with Jeffs, the butler of the society. Still he was in the Temple, that classic region rendered famous by the Spectator and other essayists as the abode of gay wits and thoughtful men of letters; and which, with its retired courts and embowered gardens, in the very heart of a noisy metropolis, is, to the quiet seeking student and author, an oasis freshening with verdure in the midst of a desert. Johnson, who had become a kind of growling supervisor of the poet's affairs, paid him a visit soon after he had installed himself in his new quarters, and went prying about the apartment, in his near-sighted manner examining everything minutely. Goldsmith was fidgeted by this curious scrutiny, and apprehending a disposition to find fault, exclaimed, with the air of a man who had money in both pockets, "I shall soon be in better chambers than these." The harmless bravado drew a reply from Johnson, which touched the chord of proper pride. "Nay, sir," said he, "never mind that. *Nil te quæsieris extra.*" implying that his reputation rendered him independent of outward show. Happy would it have been for poor Goldsmith could he have kept this consolatory compliment perpetually in mind, and spared his expenses accordingly.

Among the persons of rank who were struck with the merits of "The Traveller" was the Earl (afterwards Duke)

of Northumberland. He procured several other of Goldsmith's writings, the perusal of which tended to elevate the author in his good opinion, and to gain for him his good will. The earl held the office of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and understanding Goldsmith was an Irishman, was disposed to extend to him the patronage which his high post afforded. He intimated the same to his relative, Dr. Percy, who, he found, was well acquainted with the poet, and expressed a wish the latter should wait upon him. Here, then, was another opportunity for Goldsmith to better his fortune, had he been knowing and worldly enough to profit by it. Unluckily, the path to fortune lay through the aristocratical mazes of Northumberland House, and the poet blundered at the outset. The following is the account he used to give of his visit:—"I dressed myself in the best manner I could, and, after studying some compliments I thought necessary on such an occasion, proceeded to Northumberland House, and acquainted the servants that I had particular business with the duke. They showed me into an antechamber, where, after waiting some time, a gentleman, very elegantly dressed, made his appearance: taking him for the duke, I delivered all the fine things that I had composed in order to compliment him on the honour he had done me; when, to my great astonishment, he told me I had mistaken him for his master, who would see him immediately. At that instant the duke came into the apartment, and I was so confused on the occasion, that I wanted words barely sufficient to express the sense I entertained of the duke's politeness, and went away exceedingly chagrined at the blunder I had committed."

Sir John Hawkins, in his "Life of Dr. Johnson," gives some further particulars of this visit, of which he was, in part, a witness. "Having one day," says he, "a call to make on the late duke, then Earl, of Northumberland, I found Goldsmith waiting for an audience in an outer room: I asked him what had brought him there; he told me an invitation from his lordship. I made my business as short as I could, and, as a reason, mentioned that Dr. Goldsmith was waiting without. The earl asked me if I was acquainted with him. I told him that I was, adding what I thought was most likely to recommend him. I retired, and stayed in the outer room to take him home. Upon his coming out, I asked him the result of his conversation. 'His lordship,' said he, 'told me he had read my poem, meaning 'The Traveller,' and was much delighted with it; that he was going to be Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and that, hearing I was a native of that country, he should be glad to do me any kindness.' 'And what did you answer,' said I, 'to this gracious offer?' 'Why,' said he, 'I could say nothing but that I had a brother there, a clergyman, that stood in need of help: as for myself, I have no great dependence on the promises of great men; I look to the booksellers for support; they are my best friends, and I am not inclined to forsake them for others. Thus,' continues Sir John, "did this idiot in the affairs of the world trifle with his fortune, and put back the hand that was held out to assist him."

We cannot join with Sir John in his worldly sneer at the conduct of Goldsmith on this occasion. While we admire that honest independence of spirit which prevented him for asking favours for himself, we love that warmth of affection which instantly sought to advance the fortunes of a brother; but the peculiar merits of poor Goldsmith seem to have been little understood by the Hawkinses, the Boswells, and the other biographers of the day.

After all, the introduction to Northumberland House did not prove so complete a failure as the humorous account given by Goldsmith, and the cynical account given by Sir John Hawkins, might lead one to suppose. Dr. Percy, the heir-male of the ancient Percies, brought the poet into the acquaintance of his kinswoman, the

countess, who, before her marriage with the earl, was in her own right heiress of the House of Northumberland. "She was a lady," says Boswell, "not only of high dignity of spirit, such as became her noble blood, but of excellent understanding and lively talents." Under her auspices, a poem of Goldsmith's had an aristocratical introduction to the world. This was the beautiful ballad of "The Hermit," originally published under the name of "Edwin and Angelina." It was suggested by an old English ballad beginning "Gentle Herdman," shown him by Dr Percy, who was at that time making his famous collection, entitled "Relics of Ancient English Poetry," which he submitted to the inspection of Goldsmith prior to publication. A few copies only of "The Hermit" were printed at first, with the following title-page:—"Edwin and Angelina: a Ballad. By Mr. Goldsmith. Printed for the Amusement of the Countess of Northumberland."

All this, though it may not have been attended with any immediate pecuniary advantage, contributed to give Goldsmith's name and poetry the high stamp of fashion so potent in England. The circle at Northumberland House, however, was of too steady and aristocratical a nature to be much to his taste, and we do not find that he became familiar in it.

He was much more at home at Gosford, the noble seat of his countryman, Viscount Clare, who appreciated his merits even more heartily than the Duke of Northumberland, and occasionally made him his guest both in town and country. Nugent is described as a jovial voluptuary, who left the Roman Catholic for the Protestant religion, with a view of bettering his fortunes: he had an Irishman's inclination for rich widows, and an Irishman's luck with the sex—having been thrice married, and gained a fortune with each wife. He was now nearly sixty, with a remarkably loud voice, broad Irish brogue, and ready but somewhat coarse wit. With all his occasional coarseness he was capable of high thought, and had produced poems which showed a truly poetic vein. He was long a member of the House of Commons, where his ready wit, his fearless decision, and good-humoured audacity of expression always gained him a hearing, though his tall person and awkward manner gave him the nickname of Squire Gawky among the political scribblers of the day. With a patron of this jovial temperament Goldsmith probably felt more at ease than with those of higher refinement.

The celebrity which Goldsmith had acquired by his poem of "The Traveller" occasioned a resuscitation of many of his miscellaneous and anonymous tales and essays from the various newspapers and transient publications in which they lay dormant. These he published in 1765 in a collected form, under the title of "Essays, by Mr. Goldsmith." "The following Essays," observes he in his preface, "have already appeared at different times and in different publications. The pamphlets in which they were inserted being generally unsuccessful, these shared the common fate, without assisting the booksellers' aims, or extending the author's reputation. The public were too strenuously employed with their own follies to be assiduous in estimating mine, so that many of my best attempts in this way have fallen victims to the transient topic of the times—the Ghost in Cock-lane, or the Siege of Ticonderoga."

"But, though they have passed pretty silently into the world, I can by no means complain of their circulation. The magazines and papers of the day have indeed been liberal enough in this respect. Most of these Essays have been regularly reprinted twice or thrice a year, and conveyed to the public through the kennel of some engaging compilation. If there be a pride in multiplied editions, I have seen some of my labours sixteen times reprinted, and claimed by different

parents as their own. I have seen them flourish at the beginning with praise, and signed at the end with the names of Philautos, Philalethes, Phileleutheros, and Philanthropos. It is time, however, at last to vindicate my claims; and as these entertainers of the public, as they call themselves, have partly lived upon me for some years, let me now try if I cannot live a little upon myself."

It was but little, in fact; for all the pecuniary emolument he received from the volume was twenty guineas. It had a good circulation, however, was translated into French, and has maintained its stand among the British classics.

Notwithstanding that the reputation of Goldsmith had greatly risen, his finances were often at a very low ebb, owing to his heedlessness as to expense, his liability to be imposed upon, and a spontaneous and irresistible propensity to give to every one who asked. The very rise in his reputation had increased these embarrassments. It had enlarged his circle of needy acquaintances—authors poorer in pocket than himself, who came in search of literary counsel; which generally meant a guinea and a breakfast. And then his Irish hanger-on! "Our Doctor," said one of these sponges, "had a constant levee of his distressed countrymen, whose wants, as far as he was able, he always relieved; and he has often been known to leave himself without a guinea in order to supply the necessities of others."

This constant drainage of the purse, therefore, obliged him to undertake all jobs proposed by the booksellers, and to keep a kind of running account with Mr. Newbery, who was his banker on all occasions, sometimes for pounds, sometimes for shillings; but who was a rigid accountant, and took care amply to be repaid in manuscript. Many effusions, hastily penned in these moments of exigency, were published anonymously, and never claimed. Some of them have but recently been traced to his pen; while of many the true authorship will probably never be discovered. Among others, it is suggested, and with great probability, that he wrote for Mr. Newbery the famous nursery story of "Goody Two-Shoes," which appeared in 1765, at a moment when Goldsmith was scribbling for Newbery, and much pressed for funds. Several quaint little tales introduced in his Essays show that he had a turn for this species of mock history; and the advertisement and title-page bear the stamp of his sly and playful humour:—

"We are desired to give notice, that there is in the press, and speedily will be published, either by subscription or otherwise, as the public shall please to determine, the History of Little Goody Two-Shoes, otherwise Mrs. Margery Two-Shoes; with the means by which she acquired learning and wisdom, and in consequence thereof, her estate; set forth at large for the benefit of those

Who, from a state of rags and care,
And having shoes but half a pair,
Their fortune and their fame should fix,
And gallop in a coach-and-six."

The world is probably not aware of the ingenuity, humour, good sense, and sly satire contained in many of the old English nursery-tales. They have evidently been the sportive productions of able writers, who would not trust their names to productions that might be considered beneath their dignity. The ponderous works on which they relied for immortality have perhaps sunk into oblivion, and carried their names down with them; while their unacknowledged offspring, "Jack the Giant Killer," "Giles Gingerbread," and "Tom Thumb," flourish in wide-spreading and never-ceasing popularity.

As Goldsmith had now acquired popularity and an extensive acquaintance, he attempted, with the advice of his friends, to procure a more regular and ample support by resuming the medical profession. He accordingly launched himself upon the town in style; hired a

man-servant; replenished his wardrobe at considerable expense, and appeared in a professional wig and cane, purple silk small-clothes, and a scarlet roquelaure, buttoned to the chin; a fantastic garb, as we should think at the present day, but not unsuited to the fashion of the times.

With his sturdy little person thus arrayed in the unusual magnificence of purple and fine linen, and his roquelaure flaunting from his shoulders, he used to strut into the apartments of his patients, swaying his three-cornered hat in one hand, and his medical sceptre, the cane, in the other, and assuming an air of gravity and importance suited to the solemnity of his wig; at least, such is the picture given of him by the waiting-gentlewoman who let him into the chamber of one of his lady-patients.

He soon, however, grew tired and impatient of the duties and restraints of his profession; his practice was chiefly among his friends, and the fees were not sufficient for his maintenance; he was disgusted with attendance on sick-chambers and capricious patients, and looked back with longing to his tavern haunts and broad convivial meetings, from which the dignity and duties of his medical calling restrained him. At length, on prescribing to a lady of his acquaintance—who, to use a hackneyed phrase, “rejoiced” in the aristocratical name of Sidebotham—a warm dispute arose between him and the apothecary as to the quantity of medicine to be administered. The Doctor stood up for the rights and dignities of his profession, and resented the interference of the compounder of drugs. His rights and dignities, however, were disregarded; his wig and cane and scarlet roquelaure were of no avail; Mrs. Sidebotham sided with the hero of the pestle and mortar; and Goldsmith flung out of the house in a passion. “I am determined henceforth,” said he to Topham Beauclerc, “to leave off prescribing for friends.” “Do so, my dear doctor,” was the reply; “whenever you undertake to kill, let it be only your enemies.”

This was the end of Goldsmith's medical career.

CHAP. XVII.

Publication of the “Vicar of Wakefield”—Opinions concerning it—Of Dr. Johnson—Of Rogers the poet—Of Goethe—Its merits—Exquisite extract—Attack by Kenrick—Reply—Book-building—Project of a comedy.

The success of the poem of “The Traveller,” and the popularity which it had conferred on its author, now roused the attention of the bookseller in whose hands the novel of “The Vicar of Wakefield” had been slumbering for nearly two long years. The idea has generally prevailed that it was Mr. John Newbery to whom the manuscript had been sold, and much surprise has been expressed that he should be insensible to its merits, and suffer it to remain unpublished while putting forth various inferior writings by the same author. This, however, is a mistake; it was his nephew, Francis Newbery, who had become the fortunate purchaser. Still the delay is equally unaccountable. Some have imagined that the uncle and nephew had business arrangements together, in which this work was included, and that the elder Newbery, dubious of its success, retarded the publication until the full harvest of “The Traveller” should be reaped. Booksellers are prone to make egregious mistakes as to the merits of works in manuscript; and to undervalue, if not reject, those of classic and enduring excellence, when destitute of that false brilliancy commonly called “effect.” In the present instance, an intellect vastly superior to that of either of the booksellers was equally at fault. Dr. Johnson, speaking of the work to Boswell, some time subsequent to its publication, observed, “I myself did not think it would have had

much success. It was written and sold to a bookseller before ‘The Traveller,’ but published after, so little expectation had the bookseller from it. Had it been sold after ‘The Traveller,’ he might have had twice as much money; *though sixty guineas was no mean price.*”

Sixty guineas for the “Vicar of Wakefield!” and this could be pronounced *no mean price* by Dr. Johnson, at that time the arbiter of British talent, and who had an opportunity of witnessing the effect of the work upon the public mind; for its success was immediate. It came out on the 27th of March, 1766; before the end of May a second edition was called for; in three months more, a third; and so it went on, widening in popularity that has never flagged. Rogers, the Nestor of British literature, whose refined purity of taste and exquisite mental organization rendered him eminently calculated to appreciate a work of the kind, declared that of all the books which, through the fitful changes of three generations, he had seen rise and fall, the charm of the “Vicar of Wakefield” had alone continued as at first; and could he revisit the world after an interval of many more generations, he should as surely look to find it undiminished. Nor has its celebrity been confined to Great Britain. Though so exclusively a picture of British scenes and manners, it has been translated into almost every language, and everywhere its charm has been the same. Goethe, the great genius of Germany, declared, in his eighty-first year, that it was his delight at the age of twenty, that it had in a manner formed a part of his education, influencing his taste and feelings throughout life, and that he had recently read it again from beginning to end—with renewed delight, and with a grateful sense of the early benefit derived from it.

It is needless to expatiate upon the qualities of a work which has thus passed from country to country, and language to language, until it is now known throughout the whole reading world, and is become a household book in every hand. The secret of its universal and enduring popularity is undoubtedly the truth to nature, but to nature of the most amiable kind—to nature such as Goldsmith saw it. The author, as we have occasionally shown in the course of this memoir, took his scenes and characters in this, as in his other writings, from originals in his own motley experience; but he has given them as seen through the medium of his own indulgent eye, and has set them forth with the colourings of his own good head and heart. Yet how contradictory it seems that this, one of the most delightful pictures of home and homefelt happiness, should be drawn by a homeless man! that the most amiable pictures of domestic virtue, and all the endearments of the married state, should be drawn by a bachelor, who had been severed from domestic life almost from boyhood! that one of the most tender, touching, and affecting appeals on behalf of female loveliness should have been made by a man, whose deficiency in all the graces of person and manner seemed to mark him out for a cynical disparager of the sex!

We cannot refrain from transcribing from the work a short passage illustrative of what we have said, and which, within a wonderfully small compass, comprises a world of beauty of imagery, tenderness of feeling, delicacy and refinement of thought, and matchless purity of style. The two stanzas which conclude it, in which is told a whole history of woman's wrongs and sufferings, are, for pathos, simplicity, and euphony, a gem in the language. The scene depicted is where the poor Vicar is gathering around him the wrecks of his shattered family, and endeavouring to rally them back to happiness.

“The next morning the sun arose with peculiar warmth for the season, so that we agreed to breakfast together on the honeysuckle bank; where, while we sat, my youngest daughter at my request joined her voice to the concert on the tree about us. It was in this place

my poor Olivia first met her seducer, and every object served to recal her sadness. But that melancholy which is excited by objects of pleasure, or inspired by sounds of harmony, soothes the heart instead of corroding it. Her mother, too, upon this occasion, felt a pleasing distress, and wept, and loved her daughter as before. 'Do, me pretty Olivia,' cried she, 'let us have that melancholy air your father was so fond of; your sister Sophy has already obliged us. Do, child, it will please your old father.' She complied in a manner so exquisitely pathetic as moved me.

When lonely woman stoops to folly,
And finds too late that men betray,
What charm can soothe her melancholy,
What art can wash her guilt away.
The only art her guilt to cover,
To hide her shame from every eye,
To give repentance to her lover,
And wring his bosom—is to die.

Scarcely had the "Vicar of Wakefield" made its appearance and been received with acclamation, than its author was subjected to one of the usual penalties that attend success. He was attacked in the newspapers. In one of the chapters he has introduced his ballad of "The Hermit," of which, as we have mentioned, a few copies had been printed some considerable time previously for the use of the Countess of Northumberland. This brought forth the following article in a fashionable journal of the day:—

"To the Printer of the *St. James's Chronicle*.

"SIR,—In the 'Reliques of Ancient Poetry,' published about two years ago, is a very beautiful little ballad, called 'A Friar of Orders Gray.' The ingenious editor, Mr. Percy, supposes that the stanzas sung by Ophelia in the play of Hamlet were parts of some ballad well known in Shakspeare's time, and from these stanzas, with the addition of one or two of his own to connect them, he has formed the above-mentioned ballad; the subject of which is, a lady comes to a convent to inquire for her lover, who had been driven there by her disdain. She is answered by a friar that he is dead—

No, no, he is dead, gone to his death's bed.
He never will come again.

The lady weeps and laments her cruelty; the friar endeavours to comfort her with morality and religion, but all in vain; she expresses the deepest grief and the most tender sentiments of love, till at last the friar discovers himself—

And lo! beneath this gown of gray,
Thy own true love appears.

"This catastrophe is very fine, and the whole, joined with the greatest tenderness, has the greatest simplicity; yet, though this ballad was so recently published in the 'Ancient Reliques,' Dr. Goldsmith has been hardy enough to publish a poem called 'The Hermit,' where the circumstance and catastrophe are exactly the same, only with this difference, that the natural simplicity and tenderness of the original are almost entirely lost in the languid smoothness and tedious paraphrase of the copy, which is as short of the merits of Mr. Percy's ballad as the insipidity of negus is to the genuine flavour of champagne.

"I am, sir, yours, &c.

"DETECTOR."

This attack, supposed to be by Goldsmith's constant persecutor, the malignant Kenrick, drew from him the following note to the editor:—

"SIR,—As there is nothing I dislike so much as newspaper controversy, particularly upon trifles, permit me to be as concise as possible in informing a correspondent of yours that I recommended 'Blainville's Travels' because I thought the book was a good one; and I think so still. I said I was told by the bookseller that it was then first published; but in that it seems I was mis-

informed, and my reading was not extensive enough to set me right.

"Another correspondent of yours accuses me of having taken a ballad I published some time ago from one by the ingenious Mr. Percy. I do not think there is any great resemblance between the two pieces in question. If there be any, his ballad was taken from mine. I read it to Mr. Percy some years ago; and he, as we both considered these things as trifles at best, told me, with his usual good humour, the next time I saw him, that he had taken my plan to form the fragments of Shakspeare into a ballad of his own. He then read me his little Cento, if I may so call it, and I highly approved it. Such petty anecdotes as these are scarce worth printing; were it not for the busy disposition of some of your correspondents, the public should never have known that he owes me the hint of his ballad, or that I am obliged to his friendship and learning for communications of a much more important nature.

"I am, sir, yours, &c.

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

The unexpected circulation of the "Vicar of Wakefield" enriched the publisher, but not the author. Goldsmith no doubt thought himself entitled to participate in the profits of the repeated editions; and a memorandum, still extant, shows that he drew upon Mr. Francis Newbery, in the month of June, for fifteen guineas, but that the bill was returned dishonoured. He continued, therefore, his usual job-work for the booksellers, writing introductions, prefaces, and head and tail pieces for new works; revising, touching up, and modifying travels and voyages; making compilations of prose and poetry, and "building books," as he sportively termed it. These tasks required little labour or talent, but that taste and touch which are the magic of gifted minds. His terms began to be proportioned to his celebrity. If his price was at any time objected to, "Why sir," he would say, "it may seem large; but then a man may be many years working in obscurity before his taste and reputation are fixed or estimated; and then he is, as in other professions, only paid for his previous labours."

He was, however, prepared to try his fortune in a different walk of literature from any he had yet attempted. We have repeatedly adverted to his fondness for the drama; he was a frequent attendant at the theatre; though, as we have shown, he considered them under gross management. He thought, too, that a vicious taste prevailed among those who wrote for the stage. "A new species of dramatic composition," says he, in one of his essays, "has been introduced under the name of *sentimental comedy*, in which the virtues of private life are exhibited rather than the vices exposed; and the distresses rather than the faults of mankind make our interest in the piece. In these plays almost all the characters are good, and exceedingly generous; they are lavish enough of their tin money on the stage; and though they want humour have abundance of sentiment and feeling. If they happen to have faults or foibles, the spectator is taught not only to pardon but to applaud them, in consideration of the goodness of their hearts; so that folly, instead of being ridiculed, is commended, and the comedy aims at touching our passions without the power of being truly pathetic. In this manner we are likely to lose one great source of an entertainment on the stage; for while the comic poet is invading the province of the tragic muse, he leaves her lively sister quite neglected. Of this, however, he is no ways solicitous, as he measures his fame by his profits. * * *

"Humour, at present, seems to be departing from the stage; and it will soon happen that our comic players will have nothing left for it but a fine coat and a song. It depends upon the audience whether they will actually drive those poor merry creatures from the

stage, or sit at a play, as gloomy as at the tabernacle. It is not easy to recover an art when once lost; and it will be a just punishment, that when, by our being too fastidious, we have banished humour from the stage, we should ourselves be deprived of the art of laughing."

Symptoms of reform in the drama had recently taken place. The comedy of the "Clandestine Marriage," the joint production of Colman and Garrick, and suggested by Hogarth's inimitable pictures of "Marriage-a-la-Mode," had taken the town by storm, crowded the theatre with fashionable audiences, and formed one of the leading literary topics of the year. Goldsmith's emulation was roused by its success. The comedy was in what he considered the legitimate line, totally different from the sentimental school; it presented pictures of real life—delineations of character and touches of humour, in which he felt himself calculated to excel. The consequence was, that in the course of the year (1766) he commenced a comedy of the same class, to be entitled the "Good-natured man," at which he diligently wrote whenever the hurried occupation of "book-building" allowed him leisure.

CHAP. XVIII.

Social position of Goldsmith—His colloquial contests with Johnson—Anecdotes and Illustrations.

The social position of Goldsmith had undergone a material change since the publication of "The Traveller." Before that event he was but partially known as the author of some clever anonymous writings, and had been a tolerated member of the club and the Johnson circle, without much being expected from him. Now he had suddenly risen to literary fame, and become one of the lions of the day. The highest regions of intellectual society were now open to him; but he was not prepared to move in them with confidence and success. Ballymahon had not been a good school of manners at the outset of life; nor had his experience as a "poor student" at colleges and medical schools contributed to give him the polish of society. He had brought from Ireland, as he said, nothing but his "brogue and his blunders," and they had never left him. He had travelled, it is true; but the continental tour, which in those days gave the finishing grace to the education of a patrician youth, had with poor Goldsmith been little better than a course of literary vagabondising. It had enriched his mind, deepened and widened the benevolence of his heart, and filled his memory with enchanting pictures; but it had contributed little to disciplining him for the polite intercourse of the world. His life in London had hitherto been a struggle with sordid cares and sad humiliations. "You can scarcely conceive," wrote he some time previously to his brother, "how much eight years of disappointment, anguish, and study have worn me down." Several more years had since been added to the term during which he trod the lowly walks of life. He had been a tutor, an apothecary's drudge, a petty physician of the suburbs, a bookseller's hack, drudging for daily bread. Each separate walk had been beset by its peculiar thorns and humiliations. It is wonderful how his heart retained its gentleness and kindness through all these trials; how his mind rose above the "mean-nesses of poverty," to which, as he says, he was compelled to submit; but it would be still more wonderful had his manners acquired a tone corresponding to the innate grace and refinement of his intellect. He was near forty years of age when he published "The Traveller," and was lifted by it into celebrity. As is beautifully said of him by one of his biographers, "he has fought his way to consideration and esteem; but he bears upon him the scars of his twelve years' conflict; of the mean

sorrows through which he passed; and of the cheap indulgences he has sought relief and help from. There is nothing plastic in his nature now. His manners and habits are completely formed; and in them any further success can make little favourable change, whatever it may effect for his mind or genius."

We are not to be surprised, therefore, at finding him make an awkward figure in the elegant drawing-rooms which were now open to him, and disappointing those who had formed an idea of him from the fascinating ease and gracefulness of his poetry.

Even the Literary Club, and the circle of which it formed a part, after their surprise at the intellectual flights of which he had shown himself capable, fell into a conventional mode of judging and talking of him, and of placing him in absurd and whimsical points of view. His very celebrity operated here to his disadvantage. It brought him into continual comparison with Johnson, who was the oracle of that circle, and had given it a tone. Conversation was the great staple there, and of this Johnson was a master. He had been a reader and thinker from childhood; his melancholy temperament, which unfitted him for the pleasures of youth, had made him so. For many years past the vast variety of works he had been obliged to consult in preparing his Dictionary had stored an uncommonly retentive memory with facts on all kinds of subjects, making it a perfect colloquial armoury. "He had all his life," says Boswell, "habituated himself to consider conversation as a trial of intellectual vigour and skill. He had disciplined himself as a talker as well as a writer, making it a rule to impart whatever he knew in the most forcible language he could put it in, so that by constant practice, and never suffering any careless expression to escape him, he had attained an extraordinary accuracy and command of language.

His common conversation in all companies, according to Sir Joshua Reynolds, was such as to secure him universal attention, something above the usual colloquial style being always expected from him.

"I do not care," said Orme, the historian of Hindostan, "on what subject Johnson talks; but I love better to hear him talk than anybody. He either gives you new thoughts or a new colouring."

A stronger and more graphic eulogium is given by Dr. Percy:—"The conversation of Johnson," says he, "is strong and clear, and may be compared to an antique statue, where every vein and muscle is distinct and clear."

Such was the colloquial giant with which Goldsmith's celebrity and his habits of intimacy brought him into continual comparison; can we wonder that he should appear to disadvantage? Conversation grave, discursive, and disputations, such as Johnson excelled and delighted in, was to him a severe task, and he never was good at a task of any kind. He had not, like Johnson, a vast fund of acquired facts to draw upon, nor a retentive memory to furnish them forth when wanted. He could not, like the great lexicographer, mould his ideas and balance his periods while talking. He had a flow of ideas, but it was apt to be hurried and confused, and, as he said of himself, he had contracted a hesitating and disagreeable manner of speaking. He used to say that he always argued best when he argued alone; that is to say, he could master a subject in his study with his pen in his hand; but when he came into company he grew confused, and was unable to talk about it. Johnson made a remark concerning him to somewhat of the same purport. "No man," said he, "is more foolish than Goldsmith when he has not a pen in his hand, or more wise when he has." Yet, with all this conscious deficiency, he was continually getting involved in colloquial contests with Johnson and other prime talkers of the literary circle. He felt that he had become a notoriety—that he had entered the lists, and was expected to

make fight; so with that heedlessness which characterised him in everything else, he dashed on at a venture, trusting to chance in this as in other things, and hoping occasionally to make a lucky hit. Johnson perceived his hap-hazard temerity, but gave him no credit for the real diffidence that lay at bottom. "The misfortune of Goldsmith in conversation," said he, "is this—he goes on without knowing how he is to get off. His genius is great, but his knowledge is small. As they say of a generous man, it is a pity he is not rich, we may say of Goldsmith, it is a pity he is not knowing. He would not keep his knowledge to himself." And, on another occasion, he observes, "Goldsmith, rather than not talk, will talk of what he knows himself to be ignorant, which can only end in exposing him. If in company with two founders, he would fall a talking on the method of making cannon, though both of them would soon see that he did not know what metal a cannon is made of." And again—"Goldsmith should not be for ever attempting to shine in conversation; he has not a temper for it, he is so much mortified when he falls. Sir, a game of jokes is composed partly of skill, partly of chance; a man may be beat at times by one who has not the tenth part of his wit. Now Goldsmith, putting himself against another, is like a man laying a hundred to one who cannot spare the hundred. It is not worth a man's while. A man should not lay a hundred to one unless he can easily spare it, though he has a hundred chances for him; he can get but a guinea, and he may lose a hundred. Goldsmith is in this state. When he contends, if he gets the better, it is a very little addition to a man of his literary reputation; if he does not get the better, he is miserably vexed."

Johnson was not aware how much he was himself to blame in producing this vexation. "Goldsmith," said Miss Reynolds, "always appeared to be overawed by Johnson, particularly when in company with people of any consequence—always as if impressed with fear of disgrace; and, indeed, well he might. I have been witness to many mortifications he has suffered in Dr. Johnson's company."

It may not have been disgrace that he feared, but rudeness. The great lexicographer, spoiled by the homage of society, was still more prone than himself to lose temper when the argument went against him. He could not brook appearing to be worsted, but would attempt to bear down his adversary by the rolling thunder of his periods; and when that failed would become downright insulting. Boswell called it "having recourse to some sudden mode of robust sophistry;" but Goldsmith designated it much more happily. "There is no arguing with Johnson," said he, "*for, when his pistol misses fire, he knocks you down with the butt-end of it.*"*

In several of the intellectual collisions recorded by Boswell as triumphs of Dr. Johnson, it really appears to us that Goldsmith had the best, both of the wit and the argument, and especially of the courtesy and good-nature.

On one occasion he certainly gave Johnson a capital reproof as to his own colloquial peculiarities. Talking of fables, Goldsmith observed that the animals introduced in them seldom talked in character. "For instance," said he, "the fable of the little fishes who saw birds fly over their heads, and, envying them, petitioned Jupiter to be changed into birds. The skill consists in making them talk like little fishes." Just then, observing that Dr. Johnson was shaking his sides and laughing, he immediately added, "why, Dr. Johnson, this is not so easy as you seem to think; for, if you were to make little fishes talk, they would talk like whales."

* The following is given by Boswell, as an instance of robust sophistry:—"Once, when I was pressing upon him with visible advantage, he stopped me thus—'My dear Boswell, let's have no more of this; you'll make nothing of it. I'd rather hear you whistle a Scotch tune.'"

But though Goldsmith suffered frequent mortifications in society from the overbearing, and sometimes harsh, conduct of Johnson, he always did justice to his benevolence. When royal pensions were granted to Dr. Johnson and Dr. Shebbeare, a punster remarked that the king had pensioned a *she-bear* and a *he-bear*; to which Goldsmith replied, "Johnson, to be sure, has a roughness in his manner, but no man alive has a more tender heart. *He has nothing of the bear but the skin.*"

Goldsmith, in conversation, shone most when he least thought of shining—when he gave up all effort to appear wise and learned, or to cope with the oracular sententiousness of Johnson, and gave way to his natural impulses. Even Boswell could perceive his merits on these occasions. "For my part," said he, condescendingly, "I like very well to hear honest Goldsmith talk away carelessly;" and many a much wiser man than Boswell delighted in those outpourings of a fertile fancy and a generous heart. In his happy moods Goldsmith had an artless simplicity and buoyant good-humour that led to a thousand amusing blunders and whimsical confessions, much to the entertainment of his intimates; yet, in his most thoughtless garrulity, there was occasionally the gleam of the gold and the flash of the diamond.

CHAP. XIX.

Social resorts—The shilling whist-club—A practical joke—The Wednesday club—The "tun-man"—The pig-butcher—Tom King—Hugh Kelly—Glover and his characteristics.

Though Goldsmith's pride and ambition led him to mingle occasionally with high society, and to engage in the colloquial conflicts of the learned circle, in both of which he was ill at ease and conscious of being undervalued, yet he had some social resorts in which he indemnified himself for their restraints by indulging his humour without control. One of them was a shilling whist-club, which held its meeting at the Devil Tavern, near Temple Bar, a place rendered classic, we are told, by a club held there in old times, to which "Rare Ben Jonson" had furnished the rules. The company was of a familiar, unceremonious kind, delighting in that very questionable wit which consists in playing off practical jokes upon each other. Of one of these Goldsmith was made the butt. Coming to the club one night in a hackney coach, he gave the coachman by mistake a guinea instead of a shilling, which he set down as a dead loss, for there was no likelihood, he said, that a fellow of this class would have the honesty to return the money. On the next club evening he was told a person at the street door wished to speak with him. He went forth, but soon returned with a radiant countenance. To his surprise and delight the coachman had actually brought back the guinea. While he launched forth in praise of this unlooked for piece of honesty, he declared it ought not to go unrewarded. Collecting a small sum from the club, and no doubt increasing it largely from his own purse, he dismissed the Jehu with many encomiums on his good conduct. He was still chanting his praises, when one of the club requested a sight of the guinea thus honestly returned. To Goldsmith's confusion, it proved to be a counterfeit. The universal burst of laughter which succeeded, and the jokes by which he was assailed on every side, showed him that the whole was a hoax, and the pretended coachman as much a counterfeit as the guinea. He was so disconcerted, it is said, that he soon beat a retreat for the evening.

Another of these free-and-easy clubs met on Wednesday evenings at the Globe Tavern, in Fleet-street. It was somewhat in the style of the Three Jolly Pigeons;

songs, jokes, dramatic imitations, burlesque parodies, and broad sallies of humour, formed a contrast to the sententious morality, pedantic casuistry, and polished sarcasm of the learned circle. Here a huge "tun of man," by the name of Gordon, used to delight Goldsmith by singing the jovial song of "Nottingham Ale," and looking like a butt of it. Here, too, a wealthy pig-butcher, charmed, no doubt, by the mild philanthropy of "The Traveller," aspired to be on the most social footing with the author; and here was Tom King, the comedian, recently risen in consequence by his performance of Lord Ogleby, in the new comedy of "The Clandestine Marriage."

A member of more note was one Hugh Kelly, a second-rate author, who, as he became a kind of competitor of Goldsmith's, deserves particular mention. He was an Irishman about twenty-eight years of age, originally apprenticed to a staymaker in Dublin; then writer to a London attorney; then a Grubb-street hack, scribbling for magazines and newspapers. At length he had set up for theatrical censor and satirist; and in a paper called "Thespis," in emulation of Churchill's "Rosciad," had harassed many of the poor actors without mercy, and often without wit; but had lavished his incense on Garrick, who, in consequence, took him into favour. He was the author of several works of superficial merit, but which had sufficient vogue to inflate his vanity. This, however, must have been mortified on his first introduction to Johnson; after sitting a short time he got up to take leave, expressing a fear that a longer visit might be troublesome. "Not in the least, sir," said the surly moralist; "I had forgotten you were in the room." Johnson used to speak of him as a man who had written more than he had read.

A prime wag of this club was one of Goldsmith's poor countrymen and hangers-on, by the name of Glover. He had originally been educated for the medical profession, but had taken in early life to the stage, though apparently without much success. While performing at Cork, he undertook, partly in jest, to restore life to the body of a malefactor who had just been executed. To the astonishment of every one, himself among the number, he succeeded. The miracle took wind. He abandoned the stage, resumed his wig and cane, and considered his fortune as secure. Unluckily, there were not many people to be restored to life in Ireland; his practice did not equal his expectation, so he came to London, where he continued to dabble indifferently, and rather unprofitably, in physic and literature.

He was a great frequenter of the Globe and Devil taverns, where he used to amuse the company by his talent at story-telling and his powers of mimicry, giving capital imitations of Garrick, Foote, Colman, Sterne, and other public characters of the day. He seldom happened to have money enough to pay his reckoning, but was always sure to find some ready purse among those who had been amused by his humours. Goldsmith, of course, was one of the readiest. It was through him that Glover was admitted to the Wednesday Club, of which his theatrical imitations became the delight. Glover, however, was a little anxious for the dignity of his patron, which appeared to him to suffer from the over-familiarity of some of the members of the club. He was especially shocked by the free-and-easy tone in which Goldsmith was addressed by the pig-butcher. "Come, Noll," would he say, as he pledged him, "here's my service to you, old boy!"

Glover whispered to Goldsmith that he "should not allow such liberties." "Let him alone," was the reply, "you'll see how civilly I'll let him down." After a time he called out, with marked ceremony and politeness, "Mr. B., I have the honour of drinking your good health." Alas! dignity was not poor Goldsmith's forte: he could keep no one at a distance. "Thank'ee, thank'ee, Noll," nodded the pig-butcher, scarce taking the pipe

out of his mouth. "I don't see the effect of your reproof," whispered Glover. "I give it up," replied Goldsmith, with a good-humoured shrug; "I ought to have known before now there is no putting a pig in the right way."

Johnson used to be severe upon Goldsmith for mingling in these motley circles, observing, that having been originally poor, he had contracted a love for low company. Goldsmith, however, was guided, not by a taste for what was low, but for what was comic and characteristic. It was the feeling of the artist—the feeling which furnished out some of his best scenes in familiar life—the feeling with which "Rare Ben Jonson" sought these very haunts and circles in days of yore, to study "Every Man in his Humour."

It was not always, however, that the humour of these associates was to his taste; as they became boisterous in their merriment, he was apt to become depressed. "The company of fools," says he, in one of his essays, "may at first make us smile; but at last never fails of making us melancholy."—"Often he would become moody," says Glover, "and would leave the party abruptly, to go home and brood over his misfortune."

It is possible, however, that he went home for quite a different purpose—to commit to paper some scene or passage suggested for his comedy of "The Good-natured Man." The elaboration of humour is often a most serious task; and we have never witnessed a more perfect picture of mental misery than was once presented to us by a popular dramatic writer—still, we hope, living—whom we found in the agonies of producing a farce, which subsequently set the theatres in a roar.

CHAP. XX.

The great Cham of literature and the King—Scene at Sir Joshua Reynolds's—Goldsmith accused of jealousy—Negotiations with Garrick—The author and the actor—Their correspondence.

The comedy of "The Good-natured Man" was completed by Goldsmith early in 1767, and submitted to the perusal of Johnson, Burke, Reynolds, and others of the literary club, by whom it was heartily approved. Johnson, who was seldom half way, either in censure or applause, pronounced it the best comedy that had been written since "The Provoked Husband," and promised to furnish the prologue. This immediately became an object of great solicitude with Goldsmith, knowing the weight an introduction from the Great Cham of literature would have with the public; but circumstances occurred which he feared might drive the comedy and the prologue from Johnson's thoughts. The latter was in the habit of visiting the royal library at the Queen's (Buckingham) House—a noble collection of books, in the formation of which he had assisted the librarian, Mr. Bernard, with his advice. One evening, as he was seated there by the fire reading, he was surprised by the entrance of the King (George III.), then a young man, who sought this occasion to have a conversation with him. The conversation was varied and discursive, the King shifting from subject to subject according to his wont. "During the whole interview," says Boswell, "Johnson talked to his majesty with profound respect, but still in his open, manly manner, with a sonorous voice, and never in that subdued tone, which is commonly used at the levee and in the drawing-room. 'I found his majesty wished I should talk,' said he, 'and I made it my business to talk. I find it does a man good to be talked to by his sovereign. In the first place, a man cannot be in a passion.' It would have been as well for Johnson's colloquial disputants could he have often been under such decorous restraint. Profoundly monarchical in his principles, he retired from the interview highly gratified with the conversation of the King,

and with his gracious behaviour. "Sir," said he to the librarian, "they may talk of the King as they will, but he is the finest gentleman I have ever seen."—"Sir," said he, subsequently, to Bennet Langton, "his manners are those of as fine a gentleman as we may suppose Louis the Fourteenth or Charles the Second."

While Johnson's face was still radiant with the reflex of royalty, he was holding forth one day to a listening group at Sir Joshua Reynolds's, who were anxious to hear every particular of this memorable conversation. Among other questions, the King had asked him whether he was writing anything. His reply was, that he thought he had already done his part as a writer. "I should have thought so too," said the King, "if you had not written so well."—"No man," said Johnson, commenting on this speech, "could have made a handsomer compliment; and it was fit for a king to pay. It was decisive."—"But did you make no reply to this high compliment?" asked one of the company. "No, sir," replied the profoundly deferential Johnson, "when the King had said it, it was to be so. It was not for me to bandy civilities with my sovereign."

During all the time that Johnson was thus holding forth, Goldsmith, who was present, appeared to take no interest in the royal theme, but remained seated on a sofa at a distance, in a moody fit of abstraction; at length, recollecting himself, he sprang up, and advancing, exclaimed, with what Boswell calls his usual "frankness and simplicity," "Well, you acquitted yourself in this conversation better than I should have done, for I should have bowed and stammered through the whole of it." He afterwards explained his seeming inattention, by saying that his mind was completely occupied about his play, and by fears lest Johnson, in his present state of royal excitement, would fail to furnish the much-desired prologue.

How natural and truthful is this explanation! Yet Boswell presumes to pronounce Goldsmith's inattention affected; and attributes it to jealousy. "It was strongly suspected," says he, "that he was fretting with chagrin and envy at the singular honour Dr. Johnson had lately enjoyed." It needed the littleness of mind of Boswell to ascribe such pitiful motives to Goldsmith, and to entertain such exaggerated notions of the honour paid to Dr. Johnson.

"The Good-natured Man" was now ready for performance, but the question was, how to get it on the stage. The affairs of Covent Garden, for which it had been intended, were thrown into confusion by the recent death of Rich, the manager. Drury Lane was under the management of Garrick, but a feud, it will be recollected, existed between him and the poet, from the animadversions of the latter on the mismanagement of theatrical affairs, and the refusal of the former to give the poet his vote for the secretaryship of the Society of Arts. Times, however, were changed. Goldsmith, when that feud took place, was an anonymous writer, almost unknown to fame, and of no circulation in society. Now he had become a literary lion; he was a member of the Literary Club; he was the associate of Johnson, Burke, Topham Beauclerc, and other magnates—in a word, he had risen to consequence in the public eye, and of course was of consequence in the eye of David Garrick. Sir Joshua Reynolds saw the lurking scruples of pride existing between the author and the actor, and thinking it a pity that two men of such congenial talents, and who might be so serviceable to each other, should be kept asunder by a worn-out pique, exerted his friendly offices to bring them together. The meeting took place in Reynolds's house in Leicester-square. Garrick, however, could not entirely put off the mock-majesty of the stage; he meant to be civil, but he was rather too gracious and condescending. Tom Davies, in his "Life of Garrick," gives an amusing picture of the coming together of these punctilious parties. "The manager,"

says he, "was fully conscious of his (Goldsmith's) merit, and perhaps more ostentatious of his abilities to serve a dramatic author than became a man of his prudence; Goldsmith was, on his side, as fully persuaded of his own importance and independent greatness. Mr. Garrick, who had so long been treated with the complimentary language paid to a successful patentee and admired actor, expected that the writer would esteem the patronage of his play a favour; Goldsmith rejected all idea of kindness in a bargain that was intended to be of mutual advantage to both parties—and in this he was certainly justifiable; Mr. Garrick could reasonably expect no thanks for the acting a new play, which he would have rejected if he had not been convinced it would have amply rewarded his pains and expense. I believe the manager was willing to accept the play, but he wished to be courted to it; and the doctor was not disposed to purchase his friendship by the resignation of his sincerity." They separated, however, with an understanding on the part of Goldsmith that his play would be acted. The conduct of Garrick subsequently proved evasive, not through any lingering of past hostility, but from habitual indecision in matters of the kind, and from real scruples and delicacy. He did not think the piece likely to succeed on the stage, and avowed that opinion to Reynolds and Johnson; but hesitated to say as much to Goldsmith, through fear of wounding his feelings. A further misunderstanding was the result of this want of decision and frankness; repeated interviews and some correspondence took place without bringing matters to a point, and in the meantime the theatrical season passed away.

Goldsmith's pocket, never well supplied, suffered grievously by this delay, and he considered himself entitled to call upon the manager, who still talked of acting the play, to advance him forty pounds upon a note of the younger Newbery. Garrick readily complied, but subsequently suggested certain important alterations in the comedy as indispensable to its success; these were indignantly rejected by the author, but pertinaciously insisted on by the manager. Garrick proposed to leave the matter to the arbitration of Whitehead, the laureate, who officiated as his "reader" and elbow-critic. Goldsmith was more indignant than ever, and a violent dispute ensued, which was only calmed by the interference of Burke and Reynolds.

Just at this time order came out of confusion in the affairs of Covent Garden. A pique having arisen between Colman and Garrick, in the course of their joint authorship of "The Clandestine Marriage," the former had become manager and part-proprietor of Covent Garden, and was preparing to open a powerful competition with his former colleague. On hearing of this, Goldsmith made overtures to Colman, who, without waiting to consult his fellow-proprietors, who were absent, gave instantly a favourable reply. Goldsmith felt the contrast of this warm, encouraging conduct, to the chilling delays and objections of Garrick. He at once abandoned his piece to the discretion of Colman. "Dear sir," says he, in a letter dated Temple-garden-court, July 9th, "I am very much obliged to you for your kind partiality in my favour, and your tenderness in shortening the interval of my expectation. That the play is liable to many objections I well know, but I am happy that it is in hands the most capable in the world of removing them. If, then, dear sir, you will complete your favour by putting the piece into such a state as it may be acted, or of directing me how to do it, I shall ever retain a sense of your goodness to me. And indeed, though most probably this may be the last I shall ever write, yet I can't help feeling a secret satisfaction that poets for the future are likely to have a protector who declines taking advantage of their dreadful situation, and scorns that importance which may be acquired by trifling with their anxieties."

The next day Goldsmith wrote to Garrick, who was at Lichfield, informing him of his having transferred his piece to Covent Garden, for which it had been originally written, and by the patentee of which it was claimed, observing, "As I found you had very great difficulties about that piece, I complied with his desire. * *

* * I am extremely sorry that you should think me warm at our last meeting; your judgment certainly ought to be free, especially in a matter which must in some measure concern your own credit and interest. I assure you, sir, I have no disposition to differ with you on this or any other account, but am, with a high opinion of your abilities, and a very real esteem, sir, your most obedient humble servant,

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

In his reply Garrick observed, "I was, indeed, much hurt that your warmth at our last meeting mistook my sincere and friendly attention to your play for the remains of a former misunderstanding, which I had as much forgot as if it had never existed. What I said to you at your own house I now repeat, that I felt more pain in giving my sentiments than you possibly would in receiving them. It has been the business, and ever will be, of my life to live on the best terms with men of genius; and I know that Dr. Goldsmith will have no reason to change his previous friendly disposition towards me, as I shall be glad of every future opportunity to convince him how much I am his obedient servant and well-wisher. D. GARRICK."

CHAP. XXI.

More hack authorship—Tom Davies and the Roman History—Canonbury Castle—Political authorship—Pecuniary temptation—Death of Newbery the elder.

Though Goldsmith's comedy was now in train to be performed, it could not be brought out before Christmas; in the meantime, he must live. Again, therefore, he had to resort to literary jobs for his daily support. These obtained for him petty occasional sums, the largest of which was ten pounds, from the elder Newbery, for an historical compilation; but this scanty rill of *quasi* patronage, so sterile in its products, was likely soon to cease—Newbery being too ill to attend to business, and having to transfer the whole management of it to his nephew.

At this time Tom Davies, the sometime Roscius, sometime bibliopole, stepped forward to Goldsmith's relief, and proposed that he should undertake an easy popular history of Rome in two volumes. An arrangement was soon made. Goldsmith undertook to complete it in two years, if possible, for two hundred and fifty guineas, and forthwith set about his task with cheerful alacrity. As usual, he sought a rural retreat during the summer months, where he might alternate his literary labours with strolls about the green fields. "Merry Islington" was again his resort; but he now aspired to better quarters than formerly, and engaged the chambers occupied occasionally by Mr. Newbery, in Canonbury House, or Castle, as it is popularly called. This had been a hunting-lodge of Queen Elizabeth, in whose time it was surrounded by parks and forests. In Goldsmith's day nothing remained of it but an old brick tower; it was still in the country, amid rural scenery, and was a favourite nestling-place of authors, publishers, and others of the literary order.* A number of these he had for

fellow-occupants of the castle, and they formed a temporary club, which held its meetings at the Crown Tavern, on the Islington lower road; and here he presided in his own genial style, and was the life and delight of the company.

The writer of these pages visited old Canonbury Castle some years since, out of regard to the memory of Goldsmith. The apartment was still shown which the poet had inhabited, consisting of a sitting-room and small bedroom, with paneled wainscots and Gothic windows. The quaintness and quietude of the place were still attractive. It was one of the resorts of citizens on their Sunday walks, who would ascend to the top of the tower and amuse themselves with reconnoitring the city through a telescope. Not far from this tower were the gardens of the White Conduit House, a Cockney elysium, where Goldsmith used to figure in the humbler days of his fortune. In the first edition of his *Essays* he speaks of a stroll in these gardens, where he at that time, no doubt, thought himself in perfect genteel society. After his rise in the world, however, he became too knowing to speak of such plebeian haunts. In a new edition of his *Essays*, therefore, the White Conduit House and its garden disappear, and he speaks of "a stroll in the Park."

While Goldsmith was literally living from hand to mouth by the forced drudgery of the pen, his independence of spirit was subjected to a sore pecuniary trial. It was the opening of Lord North's administration, a time of great political excitement. The public mind was agitated by the question of American taxation, and other questions of like irritating tendency. Junius and Wilkes and other powerful writers were attacking the administration with all their force; Grubb-street was stirred up to its lowest depths; inflammatory talent of all kinds was in full activity, and the kingdom was deluged with pamphlets, lampoons, and libels of the grossest kind. The ministry were looking anxiously round for literary support. It was thought that the pen of Goldsmith might be readily enlisted. His hospitable friend and countryman, Lord Nugent, politically known as Squire Gawky, had come out strenuously for local taxation; had been selected for a lordship of the board of trade, and raised to the rank of Baron Nugent and Viscount Clare. His example, it was thought, would be enough of itself to bring Goldsmith into the ministerial ranks; and then what writer of the day was proof against a full purse or a pension? Accordingly, one Parson Scott, chaplain to Lord Sandwich, and author of "Anti-Sejanus Panurge," and other political libels in support of the administration, was sent to negotiate with the poet, who at this time was returned to town. Dr. Scott, in after years, when his political subservieny had been rewarded by two fat crown livings, used to make what he considered a good story out of this embassy to the poet. "I found him," said he, "in a miserable suite of chambers in the Temple. I told him my authority. I told how I was empowered to pay most liberally for his exertions; and, would you believe it! he was so absurd as to say 'I can earn as much as will supply my wants without writing for any party; the assistance you offer is therefore unnecessary to me'—and so I left him in his garret!" Who does not admire the sturdy independence of poor Goldsmith, toiling in his garret for nine guineas the job, and smile with contempt at the indignant wonder of the political divine, albeit his subservieny was repaid by two fat crown livings.

Not long after this occurrence, Goldsmith's old friend, though frugal-handed employer, Newbery, of picture-book renown, closed his mortal career. The poet has celebrated him as the friend of all mankind; he certainly lost nothing by his friendship. He coined the brains of his authors in the times of their exigency, and made them pay dear for the plank put out to keep them

* See on the distant slope, majestic shows
Old Canonbury's tower, an ancient pile
To various fates assigned; and where by turns
Meanness and grandeur have alternate reigned.
Thither, in latter days, hath genius fled
From yonder city, to respire and die.
There the sweet bard of Auburn sat, and tuned
The plaintive moanings of his village dirge.
There learned Chambers treasured lore for men,
And Newbery there his A B C's for babes.

from drowning. It is not likely his death caused much lamentation among the scribbling tribe; we may express decent respect for the memory of the just, but we shed tears only at the grave of the generous.

CHAP. XXII.

Theatrical manœuvring—The comedy of "False Delicacy"—First performance of the "Good-natured Man"—Conduct of Johnson—Conduct of the author—Intermeddling of the press.

The comedy of "The Good-natured Man" was doomed to experience delays and difficulties to the very last. Garrick, notwithstanding his professions, had still a lurking grudge against the author, and tasked his managerial arts to thwart him in his theatrical enterprise. For this purpose he undertook to build up Hugh Kelly, Goldsmith's boon companion of the Wednesday club, as a kind of rival. Kelly had written a comedy called "False Delicacy," in which were embodied all the meretricious qualities of the sentimental school. Garrick, though he had derided that school, and had brought out his comedy of the "Clandestine Marriage" in opposition to it, now lauded "False Delicacy" to the skies, and prepared to bring it out at Drury Lane with all possible stage effect. He even went so far as to write a prologue and epilogue for it, and to touch up some parts of the dialogue. He had become reconciled to his former colleague, Colman, and it is intimated one condition in the treaty of peace between these potentates in the realms of pasteboard (equally prone to play into each other's hands with the confederate potentates on the great theatre of life) was, that Goldsmith's play should be kept back until Kelly's had been brought forward.

In the meantime the poor author, little dreaming of the deleterious influence at work behind the scenes, saw the appointed time arrive and pass by without the performance of his play; while "False Delicacy" was brought out at Drury Lane (January 23, 1768) with all the trickery of managerial management. Houses were packed to applaud it to the echo; the newspapers vied with each other in their venal praises, and night after night seemed to give it a fresh triumph.

While "False Delicacy" was thus borne on the full tide of fictitious prosperity, "The Good-natured Man" was creeping through the last rehearsals at Covent Garden. The success of the rival piece threw a damp upon author, manager, and actors. Goldsmith went about with a face full of anxiety; Colman's hopes in the piece declined at each rehearsal; as to his fellow-proprietors, they declared they had never entertained any. All the actors were discontented with their parts, excepting Ned Shuter, an excellent low-comedian, and a pretty actress named Miss Walford; both of whom the poor author ever afterward held in grateful recollection.

Johnson, Goldsmith's growling monitor and unsparing castigator in times of heedless levity, stood by him at present with that protecting kindness with which he ever befriended him in time of need. He attended the rehearsals; he furnished the prologue according to promise; he pish'd and pshaw'd at any doubts and fears on the part of the author, but gave him sound counsel, and helped him up with a steadfast and manly hand. Inspired by his sympathy, Goldsmith plucked up new heart, and arrayed himself for the grand trial with unusual care. Ever since his elevation into the polite world, he had improved in his wardrobe and toilet. Johnson could no longer accuse him of being shabby in his appearance; he rather went to the other extreme. On the present occasion there is an entry in the books of his tailor, Mr. William Filby, of a suit of "Tyrian bloom, satin grain, and garter blue silk breeches,

£8 2s. 7d." Thus magnificently attired he attended the theatre, and watched the reception of the play and the effect of each individual scene with that vicissitude of feeling incident to his mercurial nature."

Johnson's prologue was solemn in itself, and being delivered by Brinsley in lugubrious tones, suited to the Ghost in "Hamlet," seemed to throw a portentous gloom on the audience. Some of the scenes met with great applause, and at such times Goldsmith was highly elated; others went off coldly, or there were slight tokens of disapprobation, and then his spirits would sink. The fourth act saved the piece; for Shuter, who had the main comic character of Croaker, was so varied and ludicrous in his execution of the scene in which he reads an incendiary letter, that he drew down thunders of applause. On his coming behind the scenes, Goldsmith greeted him with an overflowing heart; declaring that he exceeded his own idea of the character, and made it almost as new to him as to any of the audience.

On the whole, however, both the author and his friends were disappointed at the reception of the piece, and considered it a failure. Poor Goldsmith left the theatre with his towering hopes completely cut down. He endeavoured to hide his mortification, and even to assume an air of unconcern while among his associates; but the moment he was alone with Dr. Johnson, in whose rough and magnanimous nature he reposed unlimited confidence, he threw off all restraint, and gave way to an almost child-like burst of grief. Johnson, who had shown no want of sympathy at the proper time, saw nothing in the partial disappointment of over-rated expectations to warrant such ungoverned emotions, and rebuked him sternly for what he termed a silly affectation, saying that "no man should be expected to sympathise with the sorrows of vanity."

When Goldsmith had recovered from the blow, he, with his usual unreserve, made his past distress a subject of amusement to his friends. Dining one day, in company with Dr. Johnson, at the chaplain's table at St. James's Palace, he entertained the company with a particular and comic account of all his feelings on the night of representation, and his despair when the piece was hissed. How he went, he said, to the Literary Club; chatted gaily, as if nothing had gone amiss; and to give a greater idea of his unconcern, sang his favourite song about an old woman tossed in a blanket seventeen times as high as the moon. . . . "All this while," added he, "I was suffering horrid tortures, and, had I put a bit in my mouth, I verily believe it would have strangled me on the spot, I was so excessively ill; but I made more noise than usual to cover all that; so they never perceived my not eating, nor suspected the anguish of my heart; but when all were gone except Johnson here, I burst out a-crying, and even swore that I would never write again."

Dr. Johnson sat in a maze at the old frankness and childlike self-accusation of poor Goldsmith. When the latter came to a pause, "All this, doctor," said he, drily, "I thought had been a secret between you and me, and I am sure I would not have said anything about it for the world." But Goldsmith had no secrets: his follies, his weaknesses, his errors, were all thrown to the surface; his heart was really too guileless and innocent to seek mystery and concealment. It is too often the false, designing man that is guarded in his conduct, and never offends proprieties.

It is singular, however, that Goldsmith, who thus in conversation could keep nothing to himself, should be the author of a maxim which would inculcate the most thorough dissimulation. "Men of the world," says he, in one of the papers of the "Bee," "maintain that the true end of speech is not so much to express our wants as to conceal them." How often is this quoted as one of the subtle remarks of the fine-witted Talleyrand!

"The Good-natured Man" was performed for ten

nights in succession; the third, sixth, and ninth nights were for the author's benefit; the fifth night it was commanded by their majesties; after this it was played occasionally, but rarely, having always pleased more in the closet than on the stage.

As to Kelly's comedy, Johnson pronounced it entirely devoid of character, and it has long since passed into oblivion. Yet it is an instance how far an inferior production, by dint of puffing and trumpeting, may be kept up for a time on the surface of popular opinion, or rather of popular talk. What had been done for "False Delicacy" on the stage was continued by the press. The booksellers vied with the manager in launching it upon the town. They announced that the first impression of three thousand copies was exhausted before two o'clock on the day of publication; four editions, amounting to ten thousand copies, were sold in the course of the season; a public breakfast was given to Kelly at the Chapter Coffee-house, and a piece of plate presented to him by the publishers. The comparative merits of the two plays were continually subjects of discussion in green-rooms, coffee-houses, and other places where theatrical questions were discussed.

Goldsmith's old enemy, Keurick, that "viper of the press," endeavoured on this, as on many other occasions, to detract from his well-earned fame; the poet was excessively sensitive to these attacks, and had not the art and self-command to conceal his feelings.

Some scribblers on the other side insinuated that Kelly had seen the manuscript of Goldsmith's play, while in the hands of Garrick or elsewhere, and had borrowed some of the situations and sentiments. Some of the wags of the day took a mischievous pleasure in stirring up a feud between the two authors. Goldsmith became nettled, though he could scarcely be deemed jealous of one so far his inferior. He spoke disparagingly, though no doubt sincerely, of Kelly's play: the latter retorted. Still, when they met one day behind the scenes at Covent Garden, Goldsmith, with his customary urbanity, congratulated Kelly on his success. "If I thought you sincere, Mr. Goldsmith," replied the other, abruptly, "I should thank you." Goldsmith was not a man to harbour spleen or ill-will, and soon laughed at this unworthy rivalry; but the jealousy and envy awakened in Kelly's mind long continued. He is even accused of having given vent to his hostility by anonymous attacks in the newspapers—the basest resource of dastardly and malignant spirits; but of this there is no positive proof.

CHAP. XXIII.

Burning the candle at both ends—Fine apartments, fine furniture, fine clothes, fine acquaintances—Shoemakers' holiday and "Jolly Pigeon" associates—Peter Barlow, Glover, and the Hampstead hoax—Poor friends among great acquaintances.

The profits resulting from "The Good-natured Man" were beyond any that Goldsmith had yet derived from his works. He netted about four hundred pounds from the theatre, and one hundred pounds from his publisher.

Five hundred pounds! and all at one miraculous draught! It appeared to him wealth inexhaustible. It at once opened his heart and hand, and led him into all kinds of extravagance. The first symptom was ten guineas to Shuter for a box ticket for his benefit, when the "Good-natured Man" was to be performed. The next was an entire change of his domicile. The shabby lodgings with Jeffs, the butler, in which he had been worried by Johnson's scrutiny, were now exchanged for chambers more becoming a man of his ample fortune. The apartments consisted of three rooms on the second floor of No. 2, Brick-court, Middle Temple, on the right

hand ascending the staircase, and over-looked the umbrageous walks of the Temple-garden. The lease he purchased for four hundred pounds, and then went on to furnish his rooms with mahogany sofas, card-tables, and bookcases; with curtains, mirrors, and Wilton carpets. His awkward little person was also furnished out in a style befitting his apartment; for, in addition to his suit of "Tyrian bloom, satin grain," we find another charged about this time, in the books of Mr. Filby, in no less gorgeous terms, being "lined with silk and furnished with gold buttons." Thus lodged, and thus arrayed, he invited the visits of his most aristocratic acquaintances, and no longer quailed beneath the courtly eye of Beauclerc. He gave dinners to Johnson, Reynolds, Percy, Bickerstaff, and other friends of note; and supper parties to young folks of both sexes. These last were preceded by round games of cards, at which there was more laughter than skill, and in which the sport was to cheat each other; or by romping games of forfeits and blindman's-buff, at which he enacted the lord of misrule. Blackstone, whose chambers were immediately below, and who was studiously occupied on his "Commentaries," used to complain of the racket made over-head by his revelling neighbour.

Sometimes Goldsmith would make up a rural party, composed of four or five of his "Jolly Pigeon" friends, to enjoy what he humorously called a "shoemakers' holiday." These would assemble at his chambers in the morning to partake of a plentiful and rather expensive breakfast; the remains of which, with his customary benevolence, he generally gave to some poor woman in attendance. The repast ended, the party would set out on foot, in high spirits, making extensive rambles by foot-paths and green lanes to Blackheath, Wandsworth, Chelsea, Hampton Court, Highgate, or some other pleasant resort within a few miles of London. A simple but gay and heartily-relished dinner at a country inn crowned the excursion. In the evening they strolled back to town, all the better in health and spirits for a day spent in rural and social enjoyment. Occasionally, when extravagantly inclined, they adjourned from dinner to drink tea at the White Conduit House; and, now and then, concluded their festive day by supping at the Grecian or Temple Exchange Coffee houses, or at the Globe Tavern in Fleet-street. The whole expenses of the day never exceeded a crown, and were oftener from three and sixpence to four shillings; for the best part of their entertainment—sweet air and rural scenes, excellent exercise and joyous conversation—cost nothing.

One of Goldsmith's humble companions on these excursions was his occasional amanuensis Peter Barlow, whose quaint peculiarities afforded much amusement to the company. Peter was poor but punctilious, squaring his expenses according to his means. He always wore the same garb; fixed his regular expenditure for dinner at a trifling sum, which, if left to himself, he never exceeded, but which he always insisted on paying. His oddities always made him a welcome companion on the "shoemakers' holidays." The dinner on these occasions generally exceeded considerably his tariff; he put down, however, no more than his regular sum, and Goldsmith made up the difference.

Another of these hangers-on, for whom, on such occasions, he was content to "pay the shot," was his countryman Glover, of whom mention has already been made as one of the wags and sponges of the Globe and Devil taverns, and a prime mimic at the Wednesday Club.

This vagabond genius has bequeathed us a whimsical story of one of his practical jokes upon Goldsmith, in the course of a rural excursion in the vicinity of London. They had dined at an inn on Hampstead Heights, and were descending the hill, when, in passing a cottage, they saw through the open window a party at tea. Goldsmith, who was fatigued, cast a wistful glance at the cheerful tea-table. "How I should like to be of that

party," exclaimed he. "Nothing more easy," replied Glover; "allow me to introduce you." So saying, he entered the house with an air of the most perfect familiarity, though an utter stranger, and was followed by the unsuspecting Goldsmith, who supposed, of course, that he was a friend of the family. The owner of the house rose on the entrance of the strangers. The undaunted Glover shook hands with him in the most cordial manner possible, fixed his eye on one of the company who had a peculiarly happy good-natured physiognomy, muttered something like a recognition, and forthwith launched into an amusing story, invented at the moment, of something which he pretended had occurred upon the road. The host supposed the newcomers were friends of his guests; the guests that they were friends of the host. Glover did not give them time to find out the truth. He followed one droll story with another; brought his powers of mimicry into play, and kept the company in a roar. Tea was offered and accepted; an hour went off in the most sociable manner imaginable, at the end of which Glover bowed himself and his companion out of the house with many facetious last words, leaving the host and his company to compare notes, and to find out what an impudent intrusion they had experienced.

Nothing could exceed the dismay and vexation of Goldsmith when triumphantly told by Glover that it was all a hoax, and that he did not know a single soul in the house. His first impulse was to return instantly and vindicate himself from all participation in the jest; but a few words from his free-and-easy companion dissuaded him. "Doctor," said he, coolly, "we are unknown; you quite as much as I; if you return and tell the story, it will be in the newspapers to-morrow; nay, upon recollection, I remember in one of their offices the face of that squinting fellow who sat in the corner, as if he were treasuring up my stories for future use, and we shall be sure of being exposed; let us therefore keep our own counsel."

This story was frequently afterward told by Glover with rich dramatic effect, repeating and exaggerating the conversation, and mimicking, in ludicrous style, the embarrassment, surprise, and indignation of Goldsmith.

It is a trite saying that a wheel cannot run in two ruts; nor a man keep two opposite sets of intimates. Goldsmith sometimes found his old friends of the "Jolly Pigeon" order turning up rather awkwardly when he was in company with his new aristocratic acquaintances. He gave a whimsical account of the sudden apparition of one of them at his gay apartments in the Temple, who may have been a welcome visitor at his squalid quarters in Green-arbour-court. "How do you think he served me?" said he to a friend. "Why, sir, after staying away two years, he came one evening to my chambers half drunk, as I was taking a glass of wine with Topham Beauclerc and General Oglethorpe; and sitting himself down, with most intolerable assurance inquired after my health and literary pursuits, as if we were upon the most friendly footing. I was at first so much ashamed of ever having known such a fellow, that I stifled my resentment, and drew him into a conversation on such topics as I knew he could talk upon; in which, to do him justice, he acquitted himself very respectably; when all of a sudden, as if recollecting something, he pulled two papers out of his pocket, which he presented to me with great ceremony, saying, 'Here, my dear friend, is a quarter of a pound of tea, and a half a pound of sugar, I have brought you; for though it is not in my power at present to pay you the two guineas you so generously lent me, you, nor any man else, shall ever have it to say that I want gratitude.' This," added Goldsmith, "was too much. I could no longer keep in my feelings, but desired him to turn out of my chambers directly; which he very coolly did, taking up his tea and sugar; and I never saw him afterwards."

CHAP. XXIV.

Reduced again to book-building—Rural retreat at Shoemakers' Paradise—Death of Henry Goldsmith—Tributes to his memory in the "Deserted Village."

The heedless expenses of Goldsmith, as may easily be supposed, soon brought him to the end of his "prize-money," but when his purse gave out he drew upon futurity, obtaining advances from his booksellers and loans from his friends, in the confident hope of soon turning up another trump. The debts which he thus thoughtlessly incurred in consequence of a transient gleam of prosperity embarrassed him for the rest of his life; so that the success of the "Good-natured Man" may be said to have been ruinous to him.

He was soon obliged to resume his old craft of book-building, and set about his "History of Rome," undertaken for Davies.

It was his custom, as we have shown, during the summer time, when pressed by a multiplicity of literary jobs, or urged to the accomplishment of some particular task, to take country lodgings a few miles from town, generally on the Harrow or Edgware road, and bury himself there for weeks and months together. Sometimes he would remain closely occupied in his room; at other times he would stroll out along the lanes and hedge-rows, and, taking out paper and pencil, note down thoughts to be expanded and connected at home. His summer retreat for the present year, 1768, was a little cottage with a garden, pleasantly situated about eight miles from town on the Edgware Road. He took it in conjunction with a Mr. Edmund Botts, a barrister and man of letters, his neighbour in the Temple, having rooms immediately opposite him on the same floor. They had become cordial intimates, and Botts was one of those with whom Goldsmith now and then took the friendly but pernicious system of borrowing.

The cottage which they had hired belonged to a rich shoemaker of Piccadilly, who had embellished his little domain of half an acre with statues and jets, and all the decorations of landscape gardening; in consequence of which Goldsmith gave it the name of "The Shoemaker's Paradise." As his fellow-occupant, Mr. Botts, drove a gig, he sometimes, in an interval of literary labour, accompanied him to town, partook of a social dinner there, and returned with him in the evening. On one occasion, when they had probably lingered too long at the table, they came near breaking their necks on their way homeward by driving against a post on the side-walk, while Botts was proving with legal eloquence that they were in the very middle of the broad Edgware Road.

In the course of this summer, Goldsmith's career of gaiety was suddenly brought to a pause by intelligence of the death of his brother Henry, then but forty-five years of age. He had led a quiet and blameless life amid the scenes of his youth, fulfilling the duties of a village pastor with unaffected piety; conducting the school at Lissoy with a degree of industry and ability that gave it celebrity, and acquitting himself in all the duties of life with undeviating rectitude and the mildest benevolence. How truly Goldsmith loved and venerated him is evident in all his letters and throughout his works, in which his brother continually forms his model for an exemplification of all the most endearing of the Christian virtues; yet his affection at his death was embittered by the fear that he died with some doubt upon his mind of the warmth of his affection. Goldsmith had been urged by his friends in Ireland, since his elevation in the world, to use his influence with the great, which they supposed to be all powerful, in favour of Henry, to obtain for him church preferment. He did exert himself as far as his diffident nature would permit, but without success; we have seen that, in the

case of the Earl of Northumberland, when, as Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, that nobleman proffered him his patronage, he asked nothing for himself, but only spoke on behalf of his brother. Still some of his friends, ignorant of what he had done, and of how little he was able to do, accused him of negligence. It is not likely, however, that his amiable and estimable brother joined in the accusation.

To the tender and melancholy recollections of his early days, awakened by the death of this loved companion of his childhood, we may attribute some of the most heartfelt passages in the "Deserted Village." Much of that poem, we are told, was composed this summer, in the course of solitary strolls about the green lanes and beautiful rural scenes of the neighbourhood; and thus much of the softness and sweetness of English landscape became blended with the ruder features of Lissoy. It was in these lonely and subdued moments, when tender regret was half mingled with self-upbraiding, that he poured forth that homage of the heart, rendered as it were at the grave of his brother. The picture of the village pastor in this poem, which we have already hinted was taken in part from the character of his father, embodied likewise the recollections of his brother Henry; for the natures of the father and the son seem to be identical. In the following lines, however, Goldsmith evidently contrasted the quiet settled life of his brother, passed at home, in the benevolent exercise of the Christian duties, with his own restless and vagrant career:—

Remote from towns he ran his godly race,
Nor e'er had changed, nor wish'd to change his place.

To us the whole character seems traced, as it were, in an expiatory spirit; as if, conscious of his own wandering restlessness, he sought to humble himself at the shrine of excellence which he had not been able to practise—

At church, with meek and unaffected grace,
His looks adorn'd the venerable place:
Truth from his lips prevail'd with double sway,
And fools, who came to scoff, remain'd to pray.
The service past, around the pious man
With steady zeal each honest rustic ran;
Even children follow'd with endearing wile,
And pluck'd his gown to share the good man's smile:
His ready smile a parent's warmth express'd,
Their welfare pleas'd him, and their cares distress'd;
To them his heart, his love, his griefs were given,
But all his serious thoughts had rest in heaven.

And, as a bird each fond endearment tries
To tempt its new-fledged offspring to the skies,
He tried each art, reprov'd each dull delay,
Allured to brighter worlds, and led the way.

CHAP. XXV.

Dinner at Bickerstaff's.—Hiffernan and his "impecuniosity"—Kenrick's epigram—Johnson's consolation—Goldsmith's toilet—The bloom-coloured coat—New acquaintances—The Hornecks—A touch of poetry and passion—The "Jessamy Bride."

In October, Goldsmith returned to town and resumed his usual haunts. We hear of a dinner given to him by his countryman, Isaac Bickerstaff, author of "Love in a Village," "Lionel and Clarissa," and other successful dramatic pieces. The dinner was to be followed by the reading by Bickerstaff of a new play. Among the guests was one Paul Hiffernan, likewise an Irishman, somewhat idle and intemperate, who lived nobody knew how nor where, sponging wherever he had a chance, and often of course upon Goldsmith, who was ever the vagabond's friend, or rather victim. Hiffernan was something of a physician, and elevated the emptiness of his purse into the dignity of a disease, which he termed *impecuniosity*, and against which he claimed a right to call

for relief from the healthier purses of his friends. He was a scribbler for the newspapers, and latterly a dramatic critic, which had probably gained him an invitation to the dinner and reading. The wine and wassail, however, befogged his senses. Scarce had the author got into the second act of his play, when Hiffernan began to nod, and at length snored outright. Bickerstaff was embarrassed, but continued to read in a more elevated tone. The louder he read the louder Hiffernan snored; until the author came to a pause. "Never mind the brute, Bick., but go on," cried Goldsmith. "He would have served Homer just so, if he were here and reading his own works."

Kenrick, Goldsmith's old enemy, travestied this anecdote in the following lines, pretending that the poet had compared his countryman Bickerstaff to Homer:—

What are your Bretons, Romans, Grecians,
Compared with thorough-bred Milesians!
Step into Griffin's shop, he'll tell ye
Of Goldsmith, Bickerstaff, and Kelly—
And, take one Irish evidence for t'other,
E'en Homer's self is but their foster-brother.

Johnson was a rough consolator to a man when wincing under an attack of this kind. "Never mind, sir," said he to Goldsmith, when he saw that he felt the sting. "A man whose business it is to be talked of is much helped by being attacked. Fame, sir, is a shuttlecock; if it be struck only at one end of the room it will soon fall to the ground; to keep it up it must be struck at both ends."

Bickerstaff at the time of which we are speaking was in high vogue, the associate of the first wits of the day; a few years afterwards he was obliged to fly the country to escape the punishment of an infamous crime. Johnson expressed great astonishment at hearing the offence for which he had fled. "Why, sir? said Thrane; 'he had long been a suspected man.' Perhaps there was a knowing look on the part of the eminent brewer, which provoked a somewhat contemptuous reply. "By those who look close to the ground," said Johnson, "dirt will sometimes be seen; I hope I see things from a greater distance."

We have already noticed the improvement, or rather the increased expense, of Goldsmith's wardrobe since his elevation into polite society. "He was fond," said one of his contemporaries, "of exhibiting his muscular little person in the gayest apparel of the day, to which was added a bag-wig and sword." Thus arrayed, he used to figure about in the sunshine in the Temple Gardens, much to his own satisfaction, but to the amusement of his acquaintances.

Boswell, in his memoirs, has rendered one of his suits for ever famous. That worthy, on the 16th of October in this same year, gave a dinner to Johnson, Goldsmith, Reynolds, Garrick, Murphy, Bickerstaff, and Davies. Goldsmith was generally apt to bustle in at the last moment, when the guests were taking their seats at table, but on this occasion he was unusually early. While waiting for some lingerers to arrive, "he strutted about," says Boswell, "bragging of his dress, and I believe was seriously vain of it, for his mind was undoubtedly prone to such impressions. 'Come, come,' said Garrick, 'talk no more of that. You are perhaps the worst—eh, eh!' Goldsmith was eagerly attempting to interrupt him, when Garrick went on, laughing ironically, 'Nay, you will always look like a gentleman; but I am talking of your being well or ill-dressed.' 'Well, let me tell you,' said Goldsmith, 'when the tailor brought home my bloom-coloured coat, he said, 'Sir, I have a favour to beg of you; when anybody asks you who made your clothes, be pleased to mention John Filby, at the Harrow, in Water-lane.' 'Why, sir,' cried Johnson, 'that was because he knew the strange colour would attract crowds to gaze at it, and thus they might hear of him, and see how well he could make a coat of so absurd a colour.'"

But though Goldsmith might permit this raillery on the part of his friends, he was quick to resent any personalities of the kind from strangers. As he was one day walking the Strand in grand array with bag-wig and sword, he excited the merriment of two coxcombs, one of whom called to the other to "look at that fly with a long pin stuck through it." Stung to the quick, Goldsmith's first resort was to caution the passers-by to be on their guard against "that brace of disguised pick-pockets"—his next was to step into the middle of the street, where there was room for action, half-draw his sword, and beckon the joker, who was armed in like manner, to follow him. This was literally a war of wit which the other had not anticipated. He had no inclination to push the joke to such an extreme, but abandoning the ground, sneaked off with his brother wag amid the hootings of the spectators.

This proneness to finery in dress, however, which Boswell and other of Goldsmith's contemporaries, who did not understand the secret plies of his character, attributed to vanity, arose, we are convinced, from a widely different motive. It was from a painful idea of his own personal defects, which had been cruelly stamped upon his mind in his boyhood by the sneers and jeers of his playmates, and had been ground deeper into it by rude speeches made to him in every step of his struggling career, until it had become a constant cause of awkwardness and embarrassment. This he had experienced the more sensibly since his reputation had elevated him into polite society; and he was constantly endeavouring by the aid of dress to acquire that personal *acceptability*, if we may use the phrase, which nature had denied him. If ever he betrayed a little self-complacency on first turning out in a new suit, it may, perhaps, have been because he felt as if he had achieved a triumph over his ugliness.

There were circumstances, too, about the time of which we are treating, which may have rendered Goldsmith more than usually attentive to his personal appearance. He had recently made the acquaintance of a most agreeable family from Devonshire, which he met at the house of his friend Sir Joshua Reynolds. It consisted of Mrs. Horneck, widow of Captain Kane Horneck; two daughters, seventeen and nineteen years of age, and an only son, Charles, *the Captain in Lace*, as his sisters playfully and somewhat proudly called him, he having lately entered the Guards. The daughters are described as uncommonly beautiful, intelligent, sprightly, and agreeable. Catherine, the eldest, went among her friends by the name of *Little Comedy*—indicative, very probably, of her disposition. She was engaged to William Henry Bunbury, second son of a Suffolk baronet. The hand and heart of her sister Mary were yet unengaged, although she bore the by-name among her friends of the *Jessamy Bride*. This family was prepared, by their intimacy with Reynolds and his sister, to appreciate the merits of Goldsmith. The poet had always been a chosen friend of the eminent painter; and Miss Reynolds, as we have shown, ever since she had heard his poem of "The Traveller" read aloud, had ceased to consider him ugly. The Hornecks were equally capable of forgetting his person in admiring his works. On becoming acquainted with him too, they were delighted with his guileless simplicity, his buoyant good-nature and his innate benevolence, and an enduring intimacy soon sprang up between them. For once poor Goldsmith had met with polite society with which he was perfectly at home, and by which he was fully appreciated; for once he had met with lovely women, to whom his ugly features were not repulsive. A proof of the easy and playful terms in which he was with them remains in a whimsical epistle in verse, of which the following was the occasion. A dinner was to be given to their family by a Dr. Baker, a friend of their mother's, at which Reynolds and Angelica Kauffman were to be present.

The young ladies were eager to have Goldsmith of the party, and their intimacy with Dr. Baker allowing them to take the liberty, they wrote a joint invitation to the poet at the last moment. It came too late, and drew from him the following reply, on the top of which was scrawled, "This is a poem! This is a copy of verses!"

Your mandate I got,	"Little Comedy's" face
You may all go to pot;	And the "Captain in Lace"—
Had your senses been right	Tell each other to rue
You'd have sent before night—	Your Devonshire crew,
So tell Horneck and Nesbitt,	For sending so late
And Baker and his bit,	To one of my state.
And Kauffman beside,	But 'tis Reynolds's way
And the "Jessamy Bride,"	From wisdom to stray,
With the rest of the crew,	And Angelica's whim
The Reynoldses too,	To befool like him:
But, alas! your good worships, how could they be wiser,	
When both have been spoil'd in to-day's "Advertiser!"	

It has been intimated that the intimacy of poor Goldsmith with the Miss Hornecks, which began in so sprightly a vein, gradually assumed something of a more tender nature, and that he was not insensible to the fascinations of the younger sister. This may account for some of the phenomena which about this time appeared in his wardrobe and toilet. During the first year of his acquaintance with these lovely girls, the tell-tale book of his tailor, Mr. William Filby, displays entries of four or five full suits, besides separate articles of dress. Among the items we find a green half-trimmed frock and breeches, lined with silk; a queen's blue dress suit; a half-dress suit of ratteen, lined with satin; a pair of silk stocking breeches, and another pair of a bloom colour. Alas! poor Goldsmith! how much of this silken finery was dictated, not by vanity, but humble consciousness of thy defects; how much of it was to atone for the uncouthness of thy person, and to win favour in the eyes of the *Jessamy Bride*!

CHAP. XXVI.

Goldsmith in the Temple—Judge Day and Grattan—Labour and dissipation—Publication of the "Roman History"—Opinions of it—"History of Animated Nature"—Temple rookery—Anecdotes of a spider.

In the winter of 1768-9, Goldsmith occupied himself at his quarters in the Temple, slowly "building-up" "Roman History." We have pleasant views of him in this learned and half-cloistered retreat of wits and lawyers and legal students, in the reminiscences of Judge Day of the Irish Bench, who in his advanced age delighted to recal the days of his youth, when he was a templar, and to speak of the kindness with which he and his fellow-student Grattan were treated by the poet. "I was just arrived from college," said he "full freighted with academic gleanings, and our author did not disdain to receive from me some opinions and hints towards his Greek and Roman Histories. Being then a young man, I felt much flattered by the notice of so celebrated a person. He took great delight in the conversation of Grattan, whose brilliancy in the morning of life furnished full earnest of the unrivalled splendour which awaited his meridian; and finding us dwelling together in Essex-court, near himself, where

* The following lines had appeared in that day's "Advertiser," on the portrait of Sir Joshua by Angelica Kauffman:—

"While fair Angelica, with matchless grace,
Paints Conway's burly form and Stanhope's face,
Our hearts to beauty willing homage pay—
We praise, admire, and gaze our souls away.
But when the likeness she hath done for thee,
O Reynolds! with astonishment we see,
Forced to submit, with all our pride we own,
Such strength, such harmony, excell'd by none,
And thou art rival'd by thyself alone."

he frequently visited my immortal friend, his warm heart became naturally prepossessed towards the associate of one whom he so much admired."

The judge goes on in his reminiscences to give a picture of Goldsmith's social habits, similar in style to those already furnished. He frequented much the Grecian Coffee-house, then the favourite resort of the Irish and Lancashire Templars. He delighted in collecting his friends around him at evening parties at his chambers, where he entertained them with a cordial and unostentatious hospitality. "Occasionally," adds the judge, "he amused them with his flute, or with whist, neither of which he played well, particularly the latter, but on losing his money he never lost his temper. In a run of bad luck and worse play, he would fling his cards upon the floor and exclaim, 'Bye-bye George, I ought for ever to renounce thee, fickle, faithless fortune.'"

The judge was aware at the time that all the learned labour of poor Goldsmith upon his "Roman History" was mere hack work to recruit his exhausted finances. "His purse replenished," adds he, "by labours of this kind, the season of relaxation and pleasure took its turn, in attending the theatres, Ranelagh, Vauxhall, and other scenes of gaiety and amusement. Whenever his funds were dissipated—and they fled more rapidly from being the dupe of many artful persons, male and female, who practised upon his benevolence—he returned to his literary labours, and shut himself up from society to provide fresh matter for his bookseller, and fresh supplies for himself."

How completely had the young student discerned the characteristics of poor, genial, generous, drudging, holiday-loving Goldsmith! toiling, that he might play; earning his bread by the sweat of his brains, and then throwing it out of the window.

The "Roman History" was published in the middle of May, in two volumes of five hundred pages each. It was brought out without parade or pretension, and was announced as for the use of schools and colleges; but, though a work written for bread, not fame, such is its ease, perspicuity, good sense, and the delightful simplicity of its style, that it was well received by the critics, commanded a prompt and extensive sale, and has ever since remained in the hands of young and old.

Johnson—who, as we have before remarked, rarely praised or dispraised things by halves—broke forth in a warm eulogy of the author and the work, in a conversation with Boswell, to the great astonishment of the latter. "Whether we take Goldsmith," says he, "as a poet, as a comic writer, or as an historian, he stands in the first class." Boswell.—"An historian? My dear sir, you surely will not rank his compilation of 'Roman History' with the works of other historians of this age?" Johnson.—"Why, who are before him?" Boswell.—"Hume, Robertson, Lord Lyttleton." Johnson (his antipathy against the Scotch beginning to rise).—"I have not read Hume; but doubtless Goldsmith's History is better than the verbiage of Robertson, or the foppery of Dalrymple." Boswell.—"Will you not admit the superiority of Robertson, in whose history we find such penetration, such painting?" Johnson.—"Sir, you must consider how that penetration and that painting are employed. It is not history, it is imagination. He who describes what he never saw draws from fancy. Robertson paints minds as Sir Joshua paints faces in a history piece; he imagines an heroic countenance. You must look upon Robertson's work as romance, and try it by that standard. History it is not. Besides, sir, it is the great excellence of a writer to put into his book as much as his book will hold. Goldsmith has done this in his history. Now Robertson might have put twice as much in his book. Robertson is like a man who has packed gold in wool; the wool takes up more room than the gold. No, sir, I always thought Robertson would be

crushed with his own weight—would be buried under his own ornaments. Goldsmith tells you shortly all you want to know; Robertson detains you a great deal too long. No man will read Robertson's cumbrous detail a second time; but Goldsmith's plain narrative will please again and again. I would say to Robertson what an old tutor of a college said to one of his pupils—'Read over your compositions, and, whenever you meet with a passage which you think is particularly fine, strike it out!' Goldsmith's abridgment is better than that of Lucius Florus or Eutropius; and I will venture to say, that if you compare him with Vertot in the same places of the Roman History, you will find that he excels Vertot. Sir, he has the art of compiling, and of saying everything he has to say in a pleasing manner. He is now writing a Natural History, and will make it as entertaining as a Persian tale."

The Natural History to which Johnson alluded was the "History of Animated Nature," which Goldsmith commenced in 1769, under an engagement with Griffin, the bookseller, to complete it as soon as possible in eight volumes, each containing upwards of four hundred pages, in pica; a hundred guineas to be paid to the author on the delivery of each volume in manuscript.

He was induced to engage in this work by the urgent solicitations of the booksellers, who had been struck by the sterling merits and captivating style of an introduction which he wrote to "Brooke's Natural History." It was Goldsmith's intention originally to make a translation of Pliny, with a popular commentary; but the appearance of Buffon's work induced him to change his plan, and to make use of that author for a guide and model.

Cumberland, speaking of this work, observes—"Distrust drove Goldsmith upon undertakings neither congenial with his studies nor worthy of his talents. I remember him when, in his chambers in the Temple, he showed me the beginning of his 'Animated Nature'; it was with a sigh, such as genius draws when hard necessity diverts it from its bent to drudge for bread, and talk of birds and beasts, and creeping things, which Fidock's show-man would have done as well. Poor fellow! he hardly knows an ass from a mule, nor a turkey from a goose, but when he sees it on the table."

Others of Goldsmith's friends entertained similar ideas with respect to his fitness for the task, and they were apt now and then to banter him on the subject, and to amuse themselves with his easy credulity. The custom among the natives of Otaheite of eating dogs being once mentioned in company, Goldsmith observed that a similar custom prevailed in China; that a dog-butcher is as common there as any other butcher; and that, when he walks abroad, all the dogs fall on him. Johnson.—"That is not owing to his killing dogs; sir, I remember a butcher at Lichfield, whom a dog that was in the house where I lived always attacked. It is the smell of carnage which provokes this, let the animals he has killed be what they may." Goldsmith.—"Yes, there is a general abhorrence in animals at the signs of massacre. If you put a tub full of blood into a stable, the horses are likely to go mad." Johnson.—"I doubt that." Goldsmith.—"Nay, sir, it is a fact well authenticated." Thrale.—"You had better prove it before you put it into your book on Natural History. You may do it in my stable if you will." Johnson.—"Nay, sir, I would not have him prove it. If he is content to take his information from others, he may get through his book with little trouble, and without much endangering his reputation. But if he makes experiments for so comprehensive a book as his, there would be no end to them; his erroneous assertions would fall then upon himself; and he might be blamed for not having made experiments as to every particular."

Johnson's original prediction, however, with respect to this work, that Goldsmith would make it as enter-

taining as a Persian tale, was verified; and though much of it was borrowed from Buffon, and but little of it written from his own observation; though it was by no means profound, and was chargeable with many errors, yet the charms of his style and the play of his happy disposition throughout have continued to render it far more popular and readable than many works on the subject of much greater scope and science. Cumberland was mistaken, however, in his notion of Goldsmith's ignorance and lack of observation as to the characteristics of animals. On the contrary, he was a minute and shrewd observer of them; but he observed them with the eye of a poet and a moralist as well as a naturalist. We quote two passages from his works illustrative of this fact, and we do so the more readily because they are in a manner a part of his history, and give us another peep into his private life in the Temple, of his mode of occupying himself in his lonely and apparently idle moments, and of another class of acquaintances which he made there.

Speaking in his "Animated Nature" of the habitudes of rooks, "I have often amused myself," says he, "with observing their plans of policy from my window in the Temple, that looks upon a grove, where they have made a colony in the midst of a city. At the commencement of spring the rookery, which, during the continuance of winter, seemed to have been deserted, or only guarded by about five or six, like old soldiers in a garrison, now begins to be once more frequented; and in a short time all the bustle and hurry of business will be fairly commenced."

The other passage which we take the liberty to quote at some length is from an admirable paper in the "Bee," and relates to the house-spider.

"Of all the solitary insects I have ever remarked, the spider is the most sagacious, and its motions to me, who have attentively considered them, seem almost to exceed belief. * * * I perceived, about four years ago, a large spider in one corner of my room making its web; and, though the maid frequently levelled her broom against the labours of the little animal, I had the good fortune then to prevent its destruction, and I may say it more than paid me by the entertainment it afforded.

"In three days the web was, with incredible diligence, completed; nor could I avoid thinking that the insect seemed to exult in its new abode. It frequently traversed it round, examined the strength of every part of it, retired into its hole, and came out very frequently. The first enemy, however, it had to encounter was another and a much larger spider, which having no web of its own, and having probably exhausted all its stock in former labours of this kind, came to invade the property of its neighbour. Soon, then, a terrible encounter ensued, in which the invader seemed to have the victory, and the laborious spider was obliged to take refuge in its hole. Upon this I perceived the victor using every art to draw the enemy from its stronghold. He seemed to go off, but quickly returned; and when he found all arts in vain, began to demolish the new web without mercy. This brought on another battle, and, contrary to my expectations, the laborious spider became conqueror, and fairly killed his antagonist.

"Now, then, in peaceable possession of what was justly its own, it waited three days with the utmost impatience, repairing the breaches of its web, and taking no sustenance that I could perceive. At last, however, a large blue fly fell into the snare, and struggled hard to get loose. The spider gave it leave to entangle itself as much as possible, but seemed to be too strong for the cobweb. I must own I was greatly surprised when I saw the spider immediately sally out, and in less than a minute weave a new net round its captive, by which the motion of its wings was stopped; and, when it was fairly hampered in this manner, it was seized and dragged into the hole.

"In this manner it lived in a precarious state; and nature seemed to have fitted it for such a life, for upon a single fly it subsisted for more than a week. I once put a wasp into the net; but when the spider came out in order to seize it as usual, upon perceiving what kind of an enemy it had to deal with it instantly broke all the bands that held it fast, and contributed all that lay in its power to disengage so formidable an antagonist. When the wasp was set at liberty, I expected the spider would have set about repairing the breaches that were made in its net; but those, it seems, were irreparable: wherefore the cobweb was now entirely forsaken, and a new one begun, which was completed in the usual time.

"I had now a mind to try how many cobwebs a single spider could furnish; wherefore I destroyed this, and the insect set about another. When I destroyed the other also, its whole stock seemed exhausted, and it could spin no more. The arts it made use of to support itself, now deprived of its great means of subsistence, were indeed surprising. I have seen it roll up its legs like a ball, and lie motionless for hours together, but cautiously watching all the time: when a fly happened to approach sufficiently near, it would dart out all at once, and often seize its prey.

"Of this life, however, it soon began to grow weary, and resolved to invade the possession of some other spider, since it could not make a web of its own. It formed an attack upon a neighbouring fortification with great vigour, and at first was as vigorously repulsed. Not daunted, however, with one defeat, in this manner it continued to lay siege to another's web for three days, and at length, having killed the defendant, actually took possession. When smaller flies happen to fall into the snare, the spider does not sally out at once, but very patiently waits till it is sure of them; for, upon his immediately approaching, the terror of his appearance might give the captive strength sufficient to get loose; the manner, then, is to wait patiently till, by ineffectual and impotent struggles, the captive has wasted all its strength, and then he becomes a certain and easy conquest.

"The insect I am now describing lived three years, every year it changed its skin and got a new set of legs. I have sometimes plucked off a leg, which grew again in two or three days. At first it dreaded my approach to its web, but at last it became so familiar as to take a fly out of my hand; and, upon touching any part of the web, would immediately leave its hole, prepared either for a defence or an attack."

CHAP. XXVII.

Honours at the Royal Academy—Letter to his brother Maurice—Family fortunes—Jane Contarine and the miniature—Portraits and engravings—School associations—Johnson and Goldsmith in Westminster Abbey.

The latter part of the year 1768 had been made memorable in the world of taste by the institution of the Royal Academy of Arts, under the patronage of the King, and the direction of forty of the most distinguished artists. Reynolds, who had been mainly instrumental in founding it, had been unanimously elected president, and had thereupon received the honour of knighthood.* Johnson was so delighted with his friend's elevation, that he broke through a rule of total abstinence with respect to wine, which he had maintained for several

* We must apologise for the anachronism we have permitted ourselves in the course of this memoir, in speaking of Reynolds as "Sir Joshua," when treating of circumstances which occurred prior to his being dubbed; but it is so customary to speak of him by that title, that we found it difficult to dispense with it.

years, and drank bumpers on the occasion. Sir Joshua eagerly sought to associate his old and valued friends with him in his new honours, and it is supposed to be through his suggestions that, on the first establishment of professorships, which took place in December, 1769, Johnson was nominated to that of Ancient Literature, and Goldsmith to that of History. They were mere honorary titles, without emolument, but gave distinction, from the noble institution to which they appertained. They also gave the possessors honourable places at the annual banquet, at which were assembled many of the most distinguished persons of rank and talent, all proud to be classed among the patrons of the arts.

The following letter of Goldsmith to his brother alludes to the foregoing appointment, and to a small legacy bequeathed to him by his uncle Contarine:—

"To Mr. Maurice Goldsmith, at James Lawder's, Esq., at Kilmore, near Carrick-on-Shannon."

"January, 1770."

"DEAR BROTHER,—I should have answered your letter sooner, but, in truth, I am fond of thinking of the necessities of those I love, when it is so very little in my power to help them. I am sorry to find you are every way unprovided for; and what adds to my uneasiness is, that I have received a letter from my sister Johnson, by which I learn that she is pretty much in the same circumstances. As to myself, I believe I think I could get both you and my poor brother-in-law something like that which you desire, but I am determined never to ask for little things, nor exhaust any little interest I may have, until I can serve you, him, and myself more effectually. As yet no opportunity has offered; but I believe you are pretty well convinced that I will not be remiss when it arrives.

"The king has lately been pleased to make me Professor of Ancient History in the Royal Academy of Painting, which he has just established, but there is no salary annexed; and I took it rather as a compliment to the institution than any benefit to myself. Honours to one in my situation are something like ruffles to one that wants a shirt.

"You tell me that there are fourteen or fifteen pounds left me in the hands of my cousin Lawder, and you ask me what I would have done with them. My dear brother, I would by no means give any directions to my dear worthy relations at Kilmore how to dispose of money which is, properly speaking, more theirs than mine. All that I can say is, that I entirely, and this letter will serve to witness, give up my right and title to it; and I am sure they will dispose of it to the best advantage. To them I entirely leave it; whether they or you may think the whole necessary to fit you out, or whether our poor sister Johnson may not want the half, I leave entirely to their and your discretion. The kindness of that good couple to our shattered family demands our sincerest gratitude; and, though they have almost forgotten me, yet, if good things at last arrive, I hope one day to return and increase their good-humour by adding to my own.

"I have sent my cousin Jenny a miniature portrait of myself, as I believe it is the most acceptable present I can offer. I have ordered it to be left for her at George Faulkener's folded in a letter. The face, you well know, is ugly enough, but it is finely painted. I will shortly also send my friends over the Shannon some mezzotinto prints of myself, and some more of my friends here, such as Burke, Johnson, Reynolds, and Colman. I believe I have written a hundred letters to different friends in your country, and never received an answer to any of them. I do not know how to account for this, or why they are unwilling to keep up for me those regards which I must ever retain for them.

"If, then, you have a mind to oblige me, you will write often, whether I answer you or not. Let me par-

ticularly have the news of our family and old acquaintances. For instance, you may begin by telling me about the family where you reside, how they spend their time, and whether they ever make mention of me. Tell me about my mother, my brother Hodson and his son, my brother Harry's son and daughter, my Sister Johnson, the family of Ballyoughter, what is become of them, where they live, and how they do. You talked of being my only brother: I don't understand you. Where is Charles? A sheet of paper occasionally filled with the news of this kind would make me very happy, and would keep you nearer my mind. As it is, my dear brother, believe me to be,

"Yours, most affectionately,

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

By this letter we find the Goldsmiths the same shifting, shiftless race as formerly—a "shattered family," scrambling on each other's back as soon as any rise above the surface. Maurice is "every way unprovided for;" living upon cousin Jane and her husband; and, perhaps, amusing himself by hunting otter in the river Lunny. Sister Johnson and her husband are as poor off as Maurice, with, perhaps, no one at hand to quarter themselves upon; as to the rest, "what is become of them; where do they live; how do they do; what is become of Charles?" What forlorn, hap-hazard life is implied by these questions! Can we wonder that, with all the love for his native place which is shown throughout Goldsmith's writings, he had not the heart to return there? Yet his affections are still there. He wishes to know whether the Lawders (which means his cousin Jane, his early Valentine) ever make mention of him; he sends Jane his miniature; he believes "it is the most acceptable present he can offer;" he evidently, therefore, does not believe she has almost forgotten him, although he intimates that he does: in his memory she is still Jane Contarine, as he last saw her, when he accompanied her harpsichord with his flute. Absence, like death, sets a seal on the image of those we have loved; we cannot realise the intervening changes which time may have effected.

As to the rest of Goldsmith's relatives, he abandons his legacy of fifteen pounds to be shared among them. It is all he has to give. His heedless improvidence is eating up the pay of the booksellers in advance. With all his literary success, he has neither money nor influence; but he has empty fame, and he is ready to participate with them; he is honorary professor, without pay; his portrait is to be engraved in mezzotint, in company with those of his friends, Burke, Reynolds, Johnson, Colman, and others, and he will send prints of them to his friends over the Shannon, though they may not have a house to hang them up in. What a motley letter! How indicative of the motley character of the writer! By-the-by, the publication of a splendid mezzotinto engraving of his likeness by Reynolds was a great matter of glorification to Goldsmith, especially as it appeared in such illustrious company. As he was one day walking the streets in a state of high elation, from having just seen it figuring in the print-shop windows, he met a young gentleman with a newly-married wife hanging on his arm, whom he immediately recognised for Master Bishop, one of the boys he had petted and treated with sweetmeats when an humble usher at Milner's school. The kindly feelings of old times revived, and he accosted him with cordial familiarity, though the youth may have found some difficulty in recognising in the personage, arrayed, perhaps, in garments of Tyrian dye, the dingy pedagogue of the Milners. "Come, my boy," cried Goldsmith, as if still speaking to a school-boy, "Come, Sam, I am delighted to see you. I must treat you to something—what shall it be? Will you have some apples?" glancing at an old woman's stall; then recollecting the print-shop window, "Sam," said he, "have you seen my picture, by Sir Joshua Reynolds? Have

you seen it, Sam? Have you got an engraving?" Bishop was caught; he equivocated; he had not yet bought it; but he was furnishing his house, and had fixed upon a place where it was to be hung. "Ah, Sam!" rejoined Goldsmith reproachfully, "if your picture had been published, I should not have waited an hour without having it."

After all, it was honest pride, not vanity, in Goldsmith, that was gratified at seeing his portrait deemed worthy of being perpetuated by the classic pencil of Reynolds, and "hung up in history" beside that of his revered friend Johnson. Even the great moralist himself was not insensible to a feeling of this kind. Walking one day with Goldsmith, in Westminster Abbey, among the tombs of monarchs, warriors, and statesmen, they came to the sculptured mementoes of literary worthies in poet's-corner. Casting his eyes round upon these memorials of genius, Johnson muttered in a low tone to his companion—

Forsit an nostrum nomen miscabitur istis.

Goldsmith treasured up the intimated hope, and shortly afterwards, as they were passing by Temple-bar, where the heads of the Jacobite rebels, executed for treason, were mouldering aloft on spikes, pointed up to the grizzly mementoes, and echoed the intimation—

Forsit an nostrum nomen miscabitur istis.

CHAP. XXVIII.

Publication of the "Deserted Village"—Notices and illustrations of it.

Several years had now elapsed since the publication of "The Traveller," and much wouder was expressed that the great success of that poem had not incited the author to further poetic attempts. On being questioned at the annual dinner of the Royal Academy by the Earl of Lisburn, why he neglected the muses to compile histories and write novels, "My Lord," replied he, "by courting the muses I shall starve; but by my other labours I eat, drink, have good clothes, and can enjoy the luxuries of life." So, also, on being asked by a poor writer what was the most profitable mode of exercising the pen, "My dear fellow," replied he, good humouredly, "pay no regard to the draggle-tailed muses; for my part I have found productions in prose much more sought after and better paid for."

Still, however, as we have heretofore shown, he found sweet moments of dalliance to steal away from his prosaic toils, and court the muse among the green lanes and hedge-rows in the rural environs of London, and on the 26th of May, 1770, he was enabled to bring his "Deserted Village" before the public.

The popularity of "The Traveller" had prepared the way for this poem, and its sale was instantaneous and immense. The first edition was immediately exhausted; in a few days more a second was issued; in a few days more a third, and by the 16th of August the fifth edition was hurried through the press. As is the case with popular writers, he had become his own rival, and critics were inclined to give the preference to his first poem; but with the public at large, we believe the "Deserted Village" has ever been the greatest favourite. Previous to its publication, the bookseller gave him in advance a note for the price agreed upon, one hundred guineas. As the latter was returning home he met a friend, to whom he mentioned the circumstance, and who, apparently judging of the poetry by quantity rather than quality, observed that it was a great sum for so small a poem. "In truth," said Goldsmith, "I think so too; it is much more than the honest man can afford or the piece is worth. I have not been easy since I received it." In fact, he actually returned the note to

the bookseller, and left it to him to graduate the payment according to the success of the work. The bookseller, as may well be supposed, soon repaid him in full, with many acknowledgments of his disinterestedness. This anecdote has been called in question, we know not on what grounds; we see nothing in it incompatible with the character of Goldsmith, who was very impulsive, and prone to acts of inconsiderate generosity.

As we do not pretend, in this summary memoir, to go into a criticism or analysis of any of Goldsmith's writings, we shall not dwell upon the peculiar merits of this poem; we cannot help noticing, however, how truly it is a mirror of the author's heart, and of all fond pictures of early friends and early life for ever present there. It seems to us as if the very last accounts received from home of his "shattered family," and the desolation that seemed to have settled upon the haunts of his childhood, had cut to the roots one feebly-cherished hope, and produced the following exquisitely tender and mournful lines:—

In all my wand'rings round this world of care,
In all my griefs—and God has giv'n my share—
I still had hopes my latest hours to crown,
Amid these humble bowers to lay me down;
To husband out life's taper at the close,
And keep the flame from wasting by repose:
I still had hopes, for pride attends us still,
Amid the swains to show my book-learn'd skill,
Around my fire an evening group to draw,
And tell of all I felt and all I saw;
And as a hare, whom hounds and horns pursue,
Pants to the place from which at first she flew,
I still had hopes, my long vexations past,
Here to return—and die at home at last.

How touchingly expressive are the succeeding lines, wrung from a heart which all the trials and temptations and buffetings of the world could not render worldly! which, amid a thousand follies and errors of the head, still retained its childlike innocence; and which, doomed to struggle on to the last amidst the din and turmoil of the metropolis, had ever been cheating itself with a dream of rural quiet and seclusion:—

Oh bless'd retirement! friend to life's decline,
Retreats from care, that never must be mine;
How blest is he who crowns, in shades like these,
A youth of labour with an age of ease;
Who quits a world where strong temptations try,
And, since 'tis hard to combat, learns to fly!
For him no wretches, born to work and weep,
Explore the mine or tempt the dangerous deep:
Nor surly porter stands, in guilty state,
To spurn imploring famine from the gate;
But on he moves to meet his latter end,
Angels around bedfriending Virtue's friend;
Sinks to the grave with unperceived decay,
While resignation gently slopes the way;
And all his prospects brightening to the last,
His heaven commences ere the world be past.

NOTE.—The following article, which appeared in a London periodical, shows the effect of Goldsmith's poem in renovating the fortunes of Lissoy:—

"About three miles from Ballymahon, a very central town in the sister kingdom, is the mansion and village of Auburn, so called by their present possessor, Captain Hogan. Through the taste and improvement of this gentleman, it is now a beautiful spot, although fifteen years since it presented a very bare and unpoetical aspect. This, however, was owing to a cause which serves strongly to corroborate the assertion, that Goldsmith had this scene in view when he wrote his poem of 'The Deserted Village.' The then possessor, General Napier, turned all his tenants out of their farms, that he might enclose them in his own private domain. Littleton, the mansion of the general, stands not far off, a complete emblem of the desolating spirit lamented by the poet, dilapidated, and converted into a barrack.

"The chief object of attraction is Lissoy, once the parsonage-house of Henry Goldsmith, that brother to

whom the poet dedicated his 'Traveller,' and who is represented as the village-pastor,

Passing rich with forty pounds a year.

"When I was in the country the lower chambers were inhabited by pigs and sheep, and the drawing-room by oats. Captain Hogan, however, has, I believe, got it since into his possession, and has, of course, improved its condition.

"Though at first strongly inclined to dispute the identity of Auburn, Lissoy House overcame my scruples. As I clambered over the rotten gate, and crossed the grass-grown lawn or court, the tide of association became too strong for casuistry: here the poet dwelt and wrote, and here his thoughts fondly recurred when composing his 'Traveller' in a foreign land. Yonder was the decent church, that literally 'topped the neighbouring hill.' Before me lay the little hill of Knockrue, on which he declares, in one of his letters, he had rather sit with a book in hand than mingle in the proudest assemblies. And, above all, startlingly true, beneath my feet was

Yonder copse, where once the garden smiled,
And still where many a garden-flower grows wild.

"A painting from the life could not be more exact. 'The stubborn currant-bush' lifts its head above the rank grass, and the proud hollyoak flaunts where its sisters of the flower-knot are no more.

"In the middle of the village stands the old 'hawthorn-tree,' built up with masonry to distinguish and preserve it; it is old and stunted, and suffers much from the depredations of post-chaise travellers, who generally stop to procure a twig. Opposite to it is the village alehouse, over the door of which swings 'The Three Jolly Pigeons.' Within, everything is arranged according to the letter:—

The whitewash'd wall, the nicely-sanded floor,
The varnish'd clock that click'd behind the door:
The chest, contrived a double debt to pay—
A bed by night, a chest of drawers by day;
The pictures placed for ornament and use,
The twelve good rules, the royal game of goose.

"Captain Hogan, I have heard, found great difficulty in obtaining 'the twelve good rules,' but at length purchased them at some London bookstall to adorn the whitewashed parlour of 'The Three Pigeons.' However laudable this may be, nothing shook my faith in the reality of Auburn so much as this exactness, which had the disagreeable air of being got up for the occasion. The last object of pilgrimage is the quondam habitation of the schoolmaster—

There, in his noisy mansion, skill'd to rule.

It is surrounded with fragrant proofs of identity in

The blossom'd furze, unprofitably gay.

"There is to be seen the chair of the poet, which fell into the hands of its present possessors at the wreck of the parsonage-house; they have frequently refused large offers of purchase; but more, I dare say, for the sake of drawing contributions from the curious than from any reverence for the bard. The chair is of oak, with back and seat of cane, which precluded all hopes of a secret drawer, like that lately discovered in Gay's. There is no fear of its being worn out by the devout earnestness of sitters—as the cocks and hens have usurped undisputed possession of it, and protest most clamorously against all attempts to get it cleansed, or to seat one's self.

"The controversy concerning the identity of this Auburn was formerly a standing theme of discussion among the learned of the neighbourhood; but, since the *pros* and *cons* have been all ascertained, the argument has died away. Its abettors plead the singular agreement between the local history of the place and the Auburn of the poem, and the exactness with which the scenery of the one answers to the description of the other. To this is opposed the mention of the nightingale—

And fill'd each pause the nightingale had made—

there being no such bird in the island. The objection is slighted, on the other hand, by considering the passage as a mere poetical licence. 'Besides,' say they, 'the robin is the Irish nightingale.' And if it be hinted how unlikely it was that Goldsmith should have laid the scene in a place from which he was, and had been, so long absent, the rejoinder is always, 'Pray, sir, was Milton in hell when he built Pandemonium?'

"The line is naturally drawn between; there can be no doubt that the poet intended England by

The land to hast'ning ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.

But it is very natural to suppose that, at the same time, his imagination had in view the scenes of his youth, which give such strong features of resemblance to the picture.

Best, an Irish clergyman, told Davis, the traveller in America, that the hawthorn bush, mentioned in the poem, was still remarkably large. "I was riding once," said he, "with Brady, titular Bishop of Ardagh, when he observed to me, 'Ma foy, Best, this huge overgrown bush is mightily in the way. I will order it to be cut down.'—'What, sir!' replied I, 'cut down the bush that supplies so beautiful an image in 'The Deserted Village?'—'Ma foy!' exclaimed the bishop, 'is that the hawthorn-bush? Then let it be sacred from the edge of the axe, and evil be to him that should cut off a branch.'—The hawthorn-bush, however, has long since been cut up, root and branch, in furnishing relics to literary pilgrims.

CHAP. XXIX.

The Poet among the ladies—Description of his person and manners—Expedition to Paris with the Horneck family—The traveller of twenty and the traveller of forty—Hickey, the special attorney—An unlucky exploit.

"The Deserted Village" had shed an additional poetic grace round the homely person of the author; he was becoming more and more acceptable in ladies' eyes, and finding himself more and more at ease in their society; at least in the society of those whom he met in the Reynolds circle, among whom he particularly affected the beautiful family of the Hornecks.

But let us see what were really the looks and manners of Goldsmith about this time, and what right he had to aspire to ladies' smiles; and, in so doing, let us not take the sketches of Boswell and his compeers, who had a propensity to represent him in caricature; but let us take the apparently truthful and discriminating picture of him as he appeared to Judge Day, when the latter was a student in the Temple.

"In person," says the judge, "he was short; about five feet five or six inches; strong, but not heavy made; rather fair in complexion, with brown hair; such, at least, as could be distinguished from his wig. His features were plain but not repulsive—certainly not so when lighted up by conversation. His manners were simple, natural, and perhaps on the whole, we may say, not polished—at least, without the refinement and good-breeding which the exquisite polish of his compositions would lead us to expect. He was always cheerful and animated, often, indeed, boisterous in his mirth; entered with spirit into convivial society; contributed largely to its enjoyments by solidity of information, and the naïveté and originality of his character; talked often without premeditation, and laughed loudly without restraint."

This, it will be recollected, represents him as he appeared to a young Templar, who probably saw him only in Temple coffee-houses, at students' quarters, or at the jovial supper-parties given at the poet's own chambers; here, of course, his mind was in its rough dress; his

laugh may have been loud, and his mirth boisterous; but we trust all these matters became softened and modified when he found himself in polite drawing-rooms and in female society.

But what say the ladies themselves of him? and here, fortunately, we have another sketch of him, as he appeared at the time to one of the Horneck circle—in fact, we believe, to the Jessamy Bride herself. After admitting, apparently with some reluctance, that “he was a very plain man,” she goes on to say, “but had he been much more so, it was impossible not to love and respect his goodness of heart, which broke out on every occasion. His benevolence was unquestionable, and his countenance bore every trace of it: no one that knew him intimately could avoid admiring and loving his good qualities.” When to all this we add the idea of intellectual delicacy and refinement associated with him by his poetry, and the newly-plucked bays that were flourishing round his brow, we cannot be surprised that fine and fashionable ladies should be proud of his attentions, and that even a young beauty should not be altogether displeased with the thoughts of having a man of his genius in her chains.

We are led to indulge some notions of the kind from finding him in the month of July, but a few weeks after the publication of the “Deserted Village,” setting off on a six weeks’ excursion to Paris, in company with Mrs. Horneck and her two beautiful daughters. A day or two before his departure, we find another new gala suit charged to him on the books of Mr. William Filby. Were the bright eyes of the Jessamy Bride responsible for this additional extravagance of wardrobe? Goldsmith had recently been editing the works of Parnell; had he taken courage from the example of Edwin, in the Fairy tale?—

Yet spite of all that nature did
To make his uncouth form forbid,
This creature dared to love.
He felt the force of Edith’s eyes,
Nor wanted hope to gain the prize
Could ladies look within—

All this we throw out as mere hints and surmises, leaving it to our readers to draw their own conclusions. It will be found, however, that the poet was subject to shrewd bantering among his contemporaries about the beautiful Mary Horneck, and that he was extremely sensitive on the subject.

It was in the month of June that he set out for Paris with his fair companions, and the following letter was written by him to Sir Joshua Reynolds, soon after the party landed at Calais:—

“MY DEAR FRIEND,—We had a very quick passage from Dover to Calais, which we performed in three hours and twenty minutes, all of us extremely sea-sick, which must necessarily have happened, as my machine to prevent sea-sickness was not completed. We were glad to leave Dover, because we hated to be imposed upon; so were in high spirits at coming to Calais, where we were told that a little money would go a great way.

“Upon landing, with two little trunks, which were all we carried with us, we were surprised to see fourteen or fifteen fellows all running down to the ship to lay their hands upon them; four got under each trunk, the rest surrounded and held the hasps; and in this manner our little baggage was conducted with a kind of funeral solemnity, till it was safely lodged at the custom-house. We were well enough pleased with the people’s civility till they came to be paid; every creature that had the happiness of but touching our trunks with their finger expected sixpence; and they had so pretty and civil a manner of demanding it, that there was no refusing them.

“When we had done with the porters, we had next to speak with the custom-house officers, who had their pretty civil way too. We were directed to the Hotel d’Angleterre, where a valet-de-place came to offer his

service, and spoke to me ten minutes before I once found out that he was speaking English. We had no occasion for his services, so we gave him a little money because he spoke English, and because he wanted it. I cannot help mentioning another circumstance: I bought a new riband for my wig at Canterbury, and the barber at Calais broke it, in order to gain sixpence by buying me a new one.”

An incident which occurred in the course of this tour has been tortured by that literary magpie, Boswell, into a proof of Goldsmith’s absurd jealousy of any admiration shown to others in his presence. While stopping at an hotel in Lisle, they were drawn to the windows by a military parade in front. The extreme beauty of the Miss Hornecks immediately attracted the attention of the officers, who broke forth with enthusiastic speeches and compliments intended for their ears. Goldsmith was amused for awhile, but at length affected impatience at this exclusive admiration of his beautiful companions, and exclaimed with mock severity of aspect, “Elsewhere I also would have my admirers.”

It is difficult to conceive the obtuseness of intellect necessary to misconstrue so obvious a piece of mock petulance and dry humour into an instance of mortified vanity and jealous self-conceit.

Goldsmith jealous of the admiration of a group of gay officers for the charms of two beautiful young women! This even out-Boswells Boswell; yet this is but one of several similiar absurdities, evidently misconceptions of Goldsmith’s peculiar vein of humour, by which the charge of envious jealousy has been attempted to be fixed upon him. In the present instance it was contradicted by one of the ladies herself, who was annoyed that it had been advanced against him. “I am sure,” said she, “from the peculiar manner of his humour and assumed frown of countenance what was often uttered in jest was mistaken by those who did not know him for earnest.” No one was more prone to err on this point than Boswell. He had a tolerable perception of wit, but none of humour.

The following letter to Sir Joshua Reynolds was subsequently written:—

“To Sir Joshua Reynolds.

“Paris, July 29, 1770.

“MY DEAR FRIEND,—I began a long letter to you from Lisle, giving a description of that we had done and seen; but finding it very dull, and knowing that you would show it again, I threw it aside and it was lost. You see by the top of this letter that we are at Paris, and (as I have often heard you say) we have brought our own amusement with us, for the ladies do not seem to be very fond of what we have yet seen.

“With regard to myself, I find that travelling at twenty and forty are very different things. I set out with all my confirmed habits about me, and can find nothing on the continent so good as when I formerly left it. One of our chief amusements here is scolding at everything we meet with, and praising everything and every person we left at home. You may judge, therefore, whether your name is not frequently bandied at table among us. To tell you the truth, I never thought I could regret your absence so much as our various mortifications on the road have often taught me to do. I could tell you of disasters and adventures without number; of our lying in barns, and of my being half-poisoned with a dish of green peas; of our quarrelling with postillions, and being cheated by our landladies; but I reserve all this for a happy hour, which I expect to share with you upon my return.

“I have little to tell you more but that we are at present all well, and expect returning when we have stayed out one month, which I did not care if it were over this very day. I long to hear from you all, how you yourself do, how Johnson, Brooke, Dyer, Chamier, Colman, and every one of the club do. I wish I could send you

some amusement in this letter, but I protest I am so stupefied by the air of this country (for I am sure it cannot be natural) that I have not a word to say. I have been thinking of the plot of a comedy, which shall be entitled "A Journey to Paris," in which a family shall be introduced with a full intention of going to France to save money. You know there is not a place in the world more promising for that purpose. As for the meat of this country, I can scarce eat it; and, though we pay two good shillings a-head for our dinner, I find it all so tough that I have spent less time with my knife than my picktooth. I said this as a good thing at the table, but it was not understood. I believe it to be a good thing.

"As for our intended journey to Devonshire, I find it out of my power to perform it; for, as soon as I arrive at Dover, I intend to let the ladies go on, and I will take a country lodging somewhere near that place in order to do some business. I have so outrun the constable that I must mortify a little to bring it up again. For God's sake, the night you receive this, take your pen in your hand and tell me something about yourself and myself, if you know anything that has happened. About Miss Reynolda, about Mr. Bickerstaff, my nephew, or anybody that you regard. I beg you will send to Griffin, the bookseller, to know if there be any letters left for me, and be so good as to send them to me in Paris. They may, perhaps, be left for me at the Porter's Lodge, opposite the pump in Temple Lane. The same messenger will do. I expect one from Lord Clare from Ireland. As for the others, I am not much uneasy about.

"Is there anything I can do for you at Paris? I wish you would tell me. The whole of my own purchases here is one silk coat, which I have put on, and which makes me look like a fool. But no more of that. I find that Colman has gained his lawsuit. I am glad of it. I suppose you often meet. I will soon be among you, better pleased with my situation at home than ever I was before. And yet I must say, that if anything could make France pleasant, the very good women with whom I am at present would certainly do it. I could say more about that, but I intend showing them the letter before I send it away. What signifies teasing you longer with moral observations, when the business of my writing is over? I have one thing only more to say, and of that I think every hour of the day, namely, that I am your most sincere and most affectionate friend.

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

"Direct for me at the Hotel de Danemarc,
Rue Jacob, Faubourg St. Germain."

A word of comment on this letter. Travelling is, indeed, a very different thing with Goldsmith the poor student at twenty, and Goldsmith the poet and professor at forty. At twenty, though obliged to trudge on foot from town to town and country to country, paying for a supper and a bed by a tune on the flute, everything pleased, everything was good; a truckle-bed in a garret was a couch of down, and the homely fare of the peasant a feast fit for an epicure. Now, at forty, when he posts through the country in a carriage, with fair ladies by his side, everything goes wrong; he has to quarrel with postillions, he is cheated by landladies, the hotels are barns, the meat is too tough to be eaten, and he is half-poisoned by green-peas! A line in his letter explains the secret; "the ladies do not seem very fond of what we have yet seen." "One of our chief amusements is scolding at everything we meet with, and praising everything and every person we left at home!" The true English travelling amusement. Poor Goldsmith! he has "all his confirmed habits about him;" that is to say, he has recently risen into high life, and acquired high bred notions; he must be fastidious like his fellow-travellers; he dare not be pleased with what pleased the vulgar tastes of his youth. He is unconsciously illus-

trating the trait so humorously satirised by him in Bill Tibbs the shabby beau, who can find "no such dressing as he had at Lord Crump's or Lady Crimp's;" whose very senses have grown genteel, and who no longer "smacks at wretched wine or praises detestable custard." A lurking thorn, too, is worrying him throughout this tour; he has "outrun the constable;" that is to say, his expenses have outrun his means, and he will have to make up for this butterfly flight by toiling like a grub on his return.

Another circumstance contributes to mar the pleasure he had promised himself in this excursion. At Paris, the party is unexpectedly joined by a Mr. Hickey, a bustling attorney, who is well acquainted with that metropolis and its environs, and insists on playing the cicerone on all occasions. He and Goldsmith do not relish each other, and they have several petty altercations. The lawyer is too much a man of business and method for the careless poet, and is disposed to manage everything. He has perceived Goldsmith's whimsical peculiarities without properly appreciating his merits, and is prone to indulge in broad bantering and railery at his expense—particularly irksome if indulged in presence of the ladies. He makes himself merry on his return to England by giving the following anecdote as illustrative of Goldsmith's vanity:—

"Being with a party at Versailles, viewing the water-works, a question arose among the gentlemen present whether the distance from whence they stood to one of the little islands was within the compass of a leap. Goldsmith maintained the affirmative; but, being bantered on the subject, and remembering his former prowess as a youth, attempted the leap, but, falling short, descended into the water, to the great amusement of the company."

Was the Jessamy Bride a witness to this unlucky exploit?

This same Hickey is the one of whom Goldsmith, some time subsequently, gave a good-humoured sketch, in his poem of "The Retaliation."

Here Hickey reclines, a most blunt, pleasant creature,
And slander itself must allow him good nature;
He cherish'd his friend and he relish'd a bumper,
Yet one fault he had, and that one a thumper.
Perhaps you may ask if the man was a miser?
I answer No, no—for he always was wiser;
Too courteous, perhaps, or obligingly flat?
His very worst foe can't accuse him of that;
Perhaps he confided in men as they go,
And so was too foolishly honest? Ah, no!
Then what was his failing? Come, tell it, and burn ye—
He was, could he help it? a special attorney.

One of the few remarks extant made by Goldsmith during his tour is the following, of whimsical import, in his "Animated Nature."

"In going through the towns of France some time since, I could not help observing how much plainer their parrots spoke than ours, and how very distinctly I understood their parrots speak French when I could not understand our own, though they spoke my native language. I at first ascribed it to the different qualities of the two languages, and was for entering into an elaborate discussion on the vowels and consonants; but a friend that was with me solved the difficulty at once, by assuring me that the French women scarce did anything else the whole day than sit and instruct their feathered pupils; and that the birds were thus distinct in their lessons in consequence of continual schooling."

His tour does not seem to have left in his memory the most fragrant recollections; for being asked, after his return, whether travelling on the continent repaid "an Englishman for the privations and annoyances attendant on it," he replied, "I recommend it by all means to the sick, if they are without the sense of *smelling*, and to the poor, if they are without the sense of *feeling*; and to both if they can discharge from their

minds all idea of what in England we term comfort."

It is needless to say, that the universal improvement in the art of living on the continent has at the present day taken away the force of Goldsmith's reply, though even at the time it was more humorous than correct.

CHAP. XXX

Death of Goldsmith's mother—Biography of Parnell—Agreement with Davies for the "History of Rome"—"Life of Bolingbroke"—The "Haunch of Venison."

On his return to England, Goldsmith received the melancholy tidings of the death of his mother. Notwithstanding the fame as an author to which he had attained, she seems to have been disappointed in her early expectations from him. Like others of his family, she had been more vexed by his early follies than pleased by his proofs of genius; and in subsequent years, when he had risen to fame and to intercourse with the great, had been annoyed at the ignorance of the world and want of management which prevented him from pushing his fortune. He had always, however, been an affectionate son, and in the latter years of her life, when she had become blind, contributed from his precarious resources to prevent her from feeling want.

He now resumed the labours of the pen, which his recent excursion to Paris rendered doubly necessary. We should have mentioned a "Life of Parnell," published by him shortly after the "Deserted Village." It was, as usual, a piece of job-work, hastily got up for pocket-money. Johnson spoke slightly of it, and the author himself thought proper to apologise for its meagreness; yet, in so doing, used a simile, which, for beauty of imagery and felicity of language, is enough of itself to stamp a value upon the essay:—

"Such," says he, "is the very unpoetical detail of the life of a poet. Some dates and some few facts, scarcely more interesting than those that make the ornaments of a country tombstone, are all that remain of one whose labours now begin to excite universal curiosity. A poet, while living, is seldom an object sufficiently great to attract much attention; his real merits are known but to a few; and these are generally sparing in their praises. When his fame is increased by time, it is then too late to investigate the peculiarities of his disposition; *the days of morning are past, and we vainly try to continue the chase by the meridian splendour.*"

He now entered into an agreement with Davies to prepare an abridgment, in one volume duodecimo, of his "History of Rome;" but first to write a work for which there was more immediate demand. Davies was about to republish Lord Bolingbroke's "Dissertation on Parties," which he conceived would be exceedingly applicable to the affairs of the day, and make a probable hit during the existing state of violent political excitement; to give it still greater effect and currency, he engaged Goldsmith to introduce it with a prefatory life of Lord Bolingbroke.

About this time Goldsmith's friend and countryman, Lord Clare, was in great affliction, caused by the death of his only son, Colonel Nugent, and stood in need of the sympathies of a kind-hearted friend. At his request, therefore, Goldsmith paid him a visit at his noble seat of Gosford, taking his tasks with him. Davies was in a worry lest Gosford Park should prove a Caqua to the poet, and the time be lost. "Dr. Goldsmith," writes he to a friend, "has gone with Lord Clare into the country, and I am plagued to get the proofs from him of the 'Life of Lord Bolingbroke.'" The proofs, however, were furnished in time for the publication of the work in December. The biography, though written during a time of political turmoil, and introducing a work intended to be thrown into the arena

of politics, maintained that freedom from party prejudice observable in all the writings of Goldsmith. It was a selection of facts, drawn from many unreadable sources, and arranged into a clear, flowing narrative, illustrative of the career and character of one, who, as he intimates, "seemed formed by nature to take delight in struggling with opposition; whose most agreeable hours were passed in storms of his own creating; whose life was spent in a continual conflict of politics, and as if that was too short for the combat, has left his memory as a subject of lasting contention." The sum received by the author for this memoir is supposed, from circumstances, to have been forty pounds.

Goldsmith did not find the residence among the great unattended with mortifications. He had now become accustomed to be regarded in London as a literary lion, and he was annoyed at what he considered a slight on the part of Lord Camden. He complained of it on his return to town at a party of his friends. "I met him," said he, "at Lord Clare's house in the country; and he took no more notice of me than if I had been an ordinary man." "The company," says Boswell, "laughed heartily at this piece of diverting simplicity." And foremost among the laughers was doubtless the rattled Boswell. Johnson, however, stepped forward, as usual, to defend the poet, whom he would allow no one to assail but himself; perhaps in the present instance he thought the dignity of literature itself involved in this question. "Nay, gentlemen," roared he, "Dr. Goldsmith is in the right. A nobleman ought to have made up to such a man as Goldsmith, and I think it is much against Lord Camden that he neglected him."

After Goldsmith's return to town he received from Lord Clare a present of game, which he has celebrated and perpetuated in his amusing verses, entitled the "Haunch of Venison." Some of the lines pleasantly set forth the embarrassment caused by the appearance of such an aristocratic delicacy in the humble kitchen of a poet, accustomed to look up to mutton as a treat:—

Thanks, my lord, for your venison; for finer or fatter
Never ranged in a forest or smoked in a platter:
The haunch was a picture for painters to study,
The fat was so white, and the lean was so ruddy;
Though my stomach was sharp, I could scarce help regretting
To spoil such a delicate picture by eating:
I had thought in my chambers to place it in view,
To be shown to my friends as a piece of "virtu";
As in some Irish houses where things are so-so,
One gammon of bacon hangs up for a show;
But, for eating a rasher of what they take pride in,
They'd as soon think of eating the pan it was fried in.

But hang it—to poets, who seldom can eat,
Your very good mutton's a very good treat;
Such dainties to them, their health it might hurt;
It's like sending them ruffles when wanting a shirt.

We have an amusing anecdote of one of Goldsmith's blunders, which took place on a subsequent visit to Lord Clare's when that nobleman was residing in Bath.

Lord Clare and the Duke of Northumberland had houses next to each other, of similar architecture. Returning home one morning from an early walk, Goldsmith, in one of his frequent fits of absence, mistook the house, and walked up into the duke's dining-room, where he and the duchess were about to sit down to breakfast. Goldsmith, still supposing himself in the house of Lord Clare, and that they were visitors, made them an easy salutation, being acquainted with them, and threw himself on a sofa in the lounging manner of a man perfectly at home. The duke and duchess soon perceived his mistake, and while they smiled internally, endeavoured, with the considerateness of well-bred people, to prevent any awkward embarrassment. They chatted sociably with him about matters in Bath, until, breakfast being served, they invited him to partake. The truth at once flashed upon poor heedless Goldsmith; he started up from his free-and-easy position, made a con-

fused apology for his blunder, and would have retired perfectly disconcerted, had not the duke and duchess treated the whole as a lucky occurrence to throw him in their way, and exacted a promise from him to dine with them.

This may be hung up as a companion-piece to his blunder on his first visit to Northumberland House.

CHAP. XXXI.

Dinner at the Royal Academy—The Rowley controversy—Horace Walpole's conduct to Chatterton—Johnson at Redcliffe church—Goldsmith's "History of England"—Davies's criticism—Letter to Bennet Langton.

On St. George's-day of this year (1771), the first annual banquet of the Royal Academy was held in the exhibition-room, the walls of which were covered with works of art, about to be submitted to public inspection. Sir Joshua Reynolds, who first suggested this elegant festival, presided in his official character; Dr. Johnson and Goldsmith, of course, were present, as professors of the academy; and beside the academicians, there was a large number of the most distinguished men of the day as guests. Goldsmith on this occasion drew on himself the attention of the company, by launching out with enthusiasm on the poems recently given to the world by Chatterton, as the works of an ancient author by the name of Rowley, discovered in the tower of Redcliffe Church, at Bristol. Goldsmith spoke of them with rapture, as a treasure of old English poetry. This immediately raised the question of their authenticity, they having been pronounced a forgery of Chatterton's. Goldsmith was warm for their being genuine. When he considered, he said, the merit of the poetry, the acquaintance with life and the human heart displayed in them, the antique quaintness of the language, and the familiar knowledge of historical events of their supposed day, he could not believe it possible they could be the work of a boy of sixteen, of narrow education, and confined to the duties of an attorney's office. They must be the productions of Rowley.

Johnson, who was a stout unbeliever in Rowley, as he had been in Ossian, rolled in his chair and laughed at the enthusiasm of Goldsmith. Horace Walpole, who sat near by, joined in the laugh and jeer as soon as he found that the "*trouvaille*," as he called it, "*of his friend Chatterton*" was in question. This matter, which had excited the simple admiration of Goldsmith, was no novelty to him he said. "He might, had he pleased, have had the honour of ushering the great discovery to the learned world." And so he might had he followed his own impulse in the matter, for he himself had been an original believer; had pronounced some specimen verses sent to him by Chatterton wonderful for their harmony and spirit; and had been ready to print them and publish them to the world with his sanction. When he found, however, that his unknown correspondent was a mere boy, humble in sphere and indigent in circumstances, and when Gray and Mason pronounced the poems forgeries, he had changed his whole conduct towards the unfortunate author, and by his neglect and coldness had dashed all his sanguine hopes to the ground.

Exulting in his superior discernment, this cold-hearted man of society now went on to divert himself as he says with the credulity of Goldsmith, whom he was accustomed to pronounce "an inspired idiot;" but his mirth was soon dashed, for on asking the poet what had become of this Chatterton, he was answered, doubtless in the feeling tone of one who had experienced the pangs of desponding genius, that "he had been to London, and had destroyed himself."

The reply struck a pang of self-reproach even to the cold heart of Walpole; a faint blush may have visited

his cheek at his recent levity. "The persons of honour and veracity who were present," said he, in after years, when he found it necessary to exculpate himself from the charge of heartless neglect of genius, "will attest with what surprise and concern I thus first heard of his death." Well might he feel concern. His cold neglect had doubtless contributed to madden the spirit of that youthful genius, and hurry him towards his untimely end; nor have all the excuses and palliations of Walpole's friends and admirers been ever able entirely to clear this stigma from his fame.

But what was there in this enthusiasm and credulity of honest Goldsmith in this matter, to subject him to the laugh of Johnson or the raillery of Walpole? Granting the poems were not ancient, were they not good? Granting they were not the productions of Rowley, were they the less admirable for being the productions of Chatterton? Johnson himself testified to their merits and the genius of their composer, when some years afterwards, he visited the tower of Redcliffe church, and was shown the coffer in which poor Chatterton had pretended to find them. "This," said he, "is the most extraordinary young man that has encountered my knowledge. *It is wonderful how the whelp has written such things.*"

As to Goldsmith, he persisted in his credulity, and had subsequently a dispute with Dr. Percy on the subject, which interrupted and almost destroyed their friendship. After all, his enthusiasm was of a generous, poetic kind; the poems remain beautiful monuments of genius, and it is even now difficult to persuade oneself that they could be entirely the productions of a youth of sixteen.

In the month of August was published anonymously the History of England, on which Goldsmith had been for some time employed. It was in four volumes, compiled chiefly, as he acknowledged in the preface, from Rapin, Carle, Smollett, and Hume, "each of whom," says he, "have their admirers, in proportion as the reader is studious of political antiquities, fond of minute anecdote, a warm partisan, or a deliberate reasoner." It possessed the same kind of merit as his other historical compilations—a clear, succinct narrative, a simple, easy, and graceful style, and an agreeable arrangement of facts; but was not remarkable for either depth of observation or minute accuracy of research. Many passages were transferred, with little if any alteration, from his "Letters from a Nobleman to his Son" on the same subject. The work, though written without party feeling, met with sharp animadversions from political scribblers. The writer was charged with being unfriendly to liberty, disposed to elevate monarchy above its proper sphere; a tool of ministers—one who would betray his country for a pension. Tom Davies, the publisher, the pompous little bibliopole of Russell-street, alarmed lest the book should prove unsaleable, undertook to protect it by his pen, and wrote a long article in its defence in "The Public Advertiser." He was vain of his critical effusion, and sought by nods and winks and innuendoes to intimate his authorship. "Have you seen," said he in a letter to a friend, "An Impartial Account of Goldsmith's History of England? If you want to know who was the writer of it, you will find him in Russell-street;—*but, mum!*"

The history, on the whole, however, was well received; some of the critics declared that English History had never before been so usefully, so elegantly, and agreeably epitomised; and, like his other historical writings, it has kept its ground in English literature.

Goldsmith had intended this summer, in company with Sir Joshua Reynolds, to pay a visit to Bennet Langton, at his seat in Lincolnshire, where he was settled in domestic life, having the year previously married the Countess Dowager of Rothes. The following letter, however, dated from his chambers in the Temple, on the 7th of September, apologises for putting off the

visit, while it gives an amusing account of his summer occupations and of the attacks of the critics on his "History of England."

"MY DEAR SIR,—Since I had the pleasure of seeing you last, I have been almost wholly in the country at a farmer's house, quite alone, trying to write a comedy. It is now finished; but when or how it will be acted, or whether it will be acted at all, are questions I cannot resolve. I am therefore so much employed upon that, that I am under the necessity of putting off my intended visit to Lincolnshire for this season. Reynolds is just returned from Paris, and finds himself now in the case of a truant that must make up for his idle time by diligence. We have therefore agreed to postpone our journey till next summer, when we hope to have the honour of waiting upon Lady Rother and you, and staying double the time of our late intended visit. We often meet, and never without remembering you. I see Mr. Beauclerc very often both in town and country. He is now going directly forward to become a second Boyle—deep in chemistry and physics. Johnson has been down on a visit to a country parson, Dr. Taylor; and is returned to his old haunts at Mrs. Thrale's. Burke is a farmer, *en attendant* a better place; but visiting about too. Every soul is visiting about and merry but myself. And that is hard, too, as I have been trying these three months to do something to make people laugh. There have I been strolling about the hedges, studying jests with a most tragical countenance. The 'Natural History' is about half finished, and I will shortly finish the rest. God knows I am tired of this kind of finishing, which is but bungling work; and that not so much my fault as the fault of my scurvy circumstances. They begin to talk in town of the Opposition's gaining ground; the cry of liberty is still as loud as ever. I have published, or Davies has published for me, an 'Abridgment of the History of England,' for which I have been a good deal abused in the newspapers for betraying the liberties of the people. God knows I had no thought for or against liberty in my head—my whole aim being to make up a book of a decent size, that, as Squire Richard says, '*could do no harm to nobody.*' However, they set me down as an arrant Tory, and consequently an honest man. When you come to look at any part of it, you'll say that I am a sore Whig. God bless you, and with my most respectful compliments to her ladyship, I remain, dear Sir, your most affectionate humble servant,

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

CHAP. XXXII.

Marriage of *Little Comedy*—Goldsmith at Barton—Practical jokes at the expenses of his toilet—Amusements at Barton—Aquatic misadventure.

Though Goldsmith found it impossible to break from his literary occupations to visit Bennet Langton in Lincolnshire, he soon yielded to attractions from another quarter, in which somewhat of sentiment may have mingled. Miss Catherine Horneck, one of his beautiful fellow-travellers, otherwise called *Little Comedy*, had been married in August to Henry William Bunbury, Esq., a gentleman of fortune, who has become celebrated for the humorous productions of his pencil. Goldsmith was shortly afterwards invited to pay the newly-married couple a visit at their seat, at Barton, in Suffolk. How could he resist such an invitation—especially as the *Jessamy Bride* would of course be among the guests? It is true, he was hampered with work; he was still more hampered with debt; his accounts with Newbery were perplexed, but all must give way. New advances are procured from Newbery on the promise of a new tale in the style of the *Vicar of Wakefield*, of which he showed him a few roughly-

sketched chapters; so, his purse replenished in the old way, "by hook or by crook," he posted off to visit the bride at Barton. He found there a joyous household, and one where he was welcomed with affection. Garrick was there, and played the part of master of the revels, for he was an intimate friend of the master of the house. Notwithstanding early misunderstandings, a social intercourse between the actor and the poet had grown up of late, from their meeting together continually in the same circle. A few particulars have reached us concerning Goldsmith while on this happy visit. We believe the legend has come down from Miss Mary Horneck herself. "While at Barton," she says, "his manners were always playful and amusing, taking the lead in promoting any scheme of innocent mirth, and usually prefacing the invitation with 'Come, now, let us play the fool a little.' At cards, which was commonly a round game, and the stake small, he was always the most noisy, affected great eagerness to win, and teased his opponents of the gentler sex with continual jest and banter on their want of spirit in not risking the hazards of the game. But one of his most favourite enjoyments was to romp with the children, when he threw off all reserve, and seemed one of the most joyous of the group.

"One of the means by which he amused us was his songs, chiefly of the comic kind, which were sung with some taste and humour: several, I believe, were of his own composition, and I regret that I neither have copies, which might have been readily procured from him at the time, nor do I remember their names."

His perfect good humour made him the object of tricks of all kinds—often in retaliation of some prank which he himself had played off. Unluckily, these tricks were sometimes made at the expense of his toilet, which, with a view peradventure to please the eye of a certain fair lady, he had again enriched to the impoverishment of his purse. "Being at all times gay in his dress," says this lady-like legend, "he made his appearance at the breakfast-table in a smart black silk coat with an expensive pair of ruffles; the coat some one contrived to soil, and it was sent to be cleansed; but, either by accident, or probably by design, the day after it came home the sleeves became daubed with paint, which was not discovered until the ruffles also, to his great mortification, were irretrievably disfigured.

"He always wore a wig—a peculiarity which those who judge of his appearance only from the fine poetical head of Reynolds would not suspect; and on one occasion some person contrived seriously to injure this important adjunct to dress. It was the only one he had in the country, and the misfortune seemed irreparable until the services of Mr. Bunbury's valet were called in, who, however, performed his functions so indifferently, that poor Goldsmith's appearance became the signal for a general smile."

This was wicked waggy, especially when it was directed to mar all the attempts of the unfortunate poet to improve his personal appearance, about which he was at all times dubiously sensitive, and particularly when among the ladies.

We have in a former chapter recorded his unlucky tumble into a fountain at Versailles, when attempting a feat of agility in presence of the fair Hornecks. Water was destined to be equally baneful to him on the present occasion. "Some difference of opinion," says the fair narrator, "having arisen with Lord Harrington respecting the depth of a pond, the poet remarked that it was not so deep but that, if anything valuable was to be found at the bottom, he would not hesitate to pick it up. His lordship, after some banter, threw in a guinea; Goldsmith, not to be out-done in this kind of bravado, in attempting to fulfil his promise without getting wet, accidentally fell in, to the amusement of all present, but persevered, brought out the money, and kept it, remarking that he had abundant objects on whom to bestow

any further proofs of his lordship's whim or bounty."

All this is recorded by the beautiful Mary Horneck, the Jessamy Bride herself; but while she gives these amusing pictures of poor Goldsmith's eccentricities, and of the mischievous pranks played off upon him, she bears unqualified testimony, which we have quoted elsewhere, to the qualities of his head and heart, which shone forth in his countenance, and gained him the love of all who knew him.

Among the circumstances of this visit vaguely called to mind by this fair lady in after years, was that Goldsmith read to her and her sister the first part of a novel which he had in hand. It was doubtless the manuscript mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, on which he had obtained an advance of money from Newbery to stave off some pressing debts, and to provide funds for this very visit. It never was finished. The bookseller, when he came afterwards to examine the manuscript, objected to it as a mere narrative version of the "Good-natured Man." Goldsmith, too easily put out of conceit of his writings, threw it aside, forgetting that this was the very Newbery who kept his Vicar of Wakefield by him nearly two years through doubts of its success. The loss of the manuscript is deeply to be regretted; it doubtless would have been properly wrought up before given to the press, and might have given us new scenes in life and traits of character, while it could not fail to bear traces of his delightful style. What a pity he had not been guided by the opinions of his fair listeners at Barton, instead of that of the astute Mr. Newbery!

CHAP. XXXIII.

Dinner at General Oglethorpe's—Anecdotes of the General—
Dispute about duelling—Ghost stories

We have mentioned old General Oglethorpe as one of Goldsmith's aristocratical acquaintances. This veteran, born in 1698, had commenced early life by serving, when a mere stripling, under Prince Eugene against the Turks. He had continued in military life, and been promoted to the rank of major-general in 1745, and received a command during the Scottish rebellion. Being of strong Jacobite tendencies, he was suspected and accused of favouring the rebels; and, though acquitted by a court of inquiry, was never afterwards employed—or, in technical language, was shelved. He had since been repeatedly a member of parliament, and had always distinguished himself by learning, taste, active-benevolence, and high Tory principles. His name, however, has become historical, chiefly from his transactions in America, and the share he took in the settlement of the colony of Georgia. It lies embalmed in honourable immortality in a single line of Pope's:—

One, driven by strong benevolence of soul,
Shall fly, like Oglethorpe, from pole to pole.

The veteran was now seventy-four years of age, but healthy and vigorous, and as much the preux chevalier as in his younger days, when he served with Prince Eugene. His table was often the gathering-place of men of talent. Johnson was frequently there, and delighted in drawing from the General details of his various "experiences." He was anxious that he should give the world his life. "I know no man," said he, "whose life would be more interesting." Still the vivacity of the general's mind and the variety of his knowledge made him skip from subject to subject too fast for the lexicographer. "Oglethorpe," growled he, "never completes what he has to say."

Boswell gives us an interesting and characteristic account of a dinner party at the general's (April 10th, 1772), at which Goldsmith and Johnson were present. After dinner, when the cloth was removed, Oglethorpe,

at Johnson's request, gave an account of the siege of Belgrade, in the true veteran style. Pouring a little wine upon the table, he drew his lines and parallels with a wet finger, describing the positions of the opposing forces. "Here were we—here were the Turks," to all which Johnson listened with the most earnest attention, poring over the plans and diagrams with his usual purblind closeness.

In the course of conversation the general gave an anecdote of himself in early life, when serving under Prince Eugene. Sitting at table once in company with a prince of Wurtemberg, the latter gave a filip to a glass of wine, so as to make some of it fly in Oglethorpe's face. The manner in which it was done was somewhat equivocal. How was it to be taken by the stripling officer? If seriously, he must challenge the prince; but in so doing he might fix on himself the character of a draw-can-air. If passed over without notice, he might be charged with cowardice. His mind was made up in an instant. "Prince," said he, smiling, "that is an excellent joke; but we do it much better in England." So saying, he threw a whole glass of wine in the prince's face. "Il a bien fait, mon prince," cried an old general present, "vous l'avez commencé." (He has done right, my prince; you commenced it.) The prince had the good sense to acquiesce in the decision of the veteran, and Oglethorpe's retort in kind was taken in good part.

It was probably at the close of this story that the officious Boswell, ever anxious to promote conversation for the benefit of his note-book, started the question whether duelling were consistent with moral duty. The old general fired up in an instant. "Undoubtedly," said he, with a lofty air; "undoubtedly a man has a right to defend his honour." Goldsmith immediately carried the war into Boswell's own quarters, and pinned him with the question, "what he would do if affronted?" The pliant Boswell, who for the moment had the fear of the general rather than of Johnson before his eyes, replied, "he should think it necessary to fight." "Why, then, that solves the question," replied Goldsmith. "No, sir!" thundered out Johnson; "it does not follow that what a man would do is therefore right." He, however, subsequently went into a discussion to show that there were necessities in the case, arising out of the artificial refinement of society, and its proscription of any one who should put up with an affront without fighting a duel. "He, then," concluded he, "who fights a duel does not fight from passion against his antagonist, but out of self-defence, to avert the stigma of the world, and to prevent himself from being driven out of society. I could wish there were not that superfluity of refinement; but while such notions prevail, no doubt a man may lawfully fight a duel.

Another question started was, whether people who disagreed on a capital point could live together in friendship. Johnson said they might. Goldsmith said they could not, as they had not the *idem velle atque idem velle*—the same likings and aversions. Johnson rejoined, that they must shun the subject on which they disagreed. "But, sir," said Goldsmith "when people live together who have something as to which they disagree, and which they want to shun, they will be in the situation mentioned in the story of Blue Beard—you may look into all the chambers but one; but we should have the greatest inclination to look into that chamber, to talk of that subject." "Sir," thundered Johnson, in a loud voice, "I am not saying that you could live in friendship with a man from whom you differ as to some point; I am only saying that I could do it."

Who will not say that Goldsmith had not the best of this petty contest? How just was his remark! how felicitous the illustration of the blue chamber! how rude and overbearing was the *argumentum ad hominem* of Johnson, when he felt that he had the worst of the argument!

The conversation turned upon ghosts. General Oglethorpe told the story of a Colonel Pendergast, an officer in the Duke of Marlborough's army, who predicted among his comrades that he should die on a certain day. The battle of Malplaquet took place on that day. The colonel was in the midst of it, but came out unhurt. The firing had ceased, and his brother officers jested with him about the fallacy of his prediction. "The day is not over," replied he, gravely; "I shall die, notwithstanding what you see." His words proved true. The order for a cessation of firing had not reached one of the French batteries, and a random shot from it killed the colonel on the spot. Among his effects was found a pocket-book in which he had made a solemn entry, that, Sir John Friend, who had been executed for high treason, had appeared to him, either in a dream or vision, and predicted that he would meet him on a certain day (the very day of the battle). Colonel Cecil, who took possession of the effects of Colonel Pendergast, and read the entry in the pocket-book, told this story to Pope, the poet, in the presence of General Oglethorpe.

This story, as related by the general, appears to have been well received, if not credited, by both Johnson and Goldsmith, each of whom had something to relate in kind. Goldsmith's brother, the clergyman in whom he had such implicit confidence, had assured him of his having seen an apparition. Johnson, also, had a friend, old Mr. Cave, the printer, at St. John's Gate, "an honest man and a sensible man," who told him he had seen a ghost: he did not, however, like to talk of it, and seemed to be in great horror whenever it was mentioned. "And pray, sir," asked Boswell, "what did he say was the appearance?" "Why, sir, something of a shadowy being."

The reader will not be surprised at this superstitious turn in the conversation of such intelligent men, when he recollects that, but a few years before this time, all London had been agitated by the absurd story of the Cock-lane ghost; a matter which Dr. Johnson had deemed worthy of his serious investigation, and about which Goldsmith had written a pamphlet.

CHAP. XXXIV.

Mr. Joseph Cradock—An author's confidings—An amanuensis—Life at Edgeware—Goldsmith conjuring—George Colman—The Fantoccini.

Among the agreeable acquaintances made by Goldsmith about this time was a Mr. Joseph Cradock, a young gentleman of Leicestershire, living at his ease, but disposed to "make himself uneasy" by meddling with literature and the theatre; in fact, he had a passion for plays and players, and had come up to town with a modified translation of Voltaire's tragedy of Zobeide, with a view to get it acted. There was no great difficulty in the case, as he was a man of fortune, had letters of introduction to persons of note, and was altogether in a different position from the indigent man of genius who managers might harass with impunity. Goldsmith met him at the house of Yates, the actor, and finding that he was a friend of Lord Clare, soon became sociable with him. Mutual tastes quickened the intimacy, especially as they found means of serving each other. Goldsmith wrote an epilogue for the tragedy of Zobeide; and Cradock, who was an amateur musician, arranged the music for the *Threnodia Augustalis*, a lament on the death of the princess Dowager of Wales, the political mistress and patron of Lord Clare, which Goldsmith had thrown off hastily to please that nobleman. The tragedy was played with some success at Covent Garden; the lament was recited and sung at Mrs. Corne y's rooms—a very fashionable resort in Soho square, got up by a woman of enterprise of that name. It was in whimsical parody of those gay and somewhat

promiscuous assemblages that Goldsmith used to call the motley evening parties at his lodgings "little Cornelys."

The *Threnodia Augustalis* was not publicly known to be by Goldsmith until several years after his death.

Cradock was one of the few polite intimates who left more disposed to sympathise with the generous qualities of the poet than to sport with his eccentricities. He sought his society whenever he came to town, and occasionally had him to his seat in the country. Goldsmith appreciated his sympathy, and unburthened himself to him without reserve. Seeing the lettered ease in which this amateur author was enabled to live, and the time he could bestow on the elaboration of a manuscript, "Ah! Mr. Cradock," cried he, "think of me, that must write a volume every month!" He complained to him of the attempts made by inferior writers, and by others who could scarcely come under that denomination, not only to abuse and depreciate his writings, but to render him ridiculous as a man; perverting every harmless sentiment and action into charges of absurdity, malice, or folly. "Sir," said he, in the fulness of his heart, "I am as a lion baited by curs!"

Another acquaintance which he made about this time was a young countryman of the name of M'Donnell, whom he met in a state of destitution, and, of course, befriended. The following grateful recollections of his kindness and his merits were furnished by that person in after years:—

"It was in the year 1772," writes he, "that the death of my elder brother—when in London, on my way to Ireland—left me in a most forlorn situation. I was then about eighteen; I possessed neither friends nor money, nor the means of getting to Ireland, of which or of England I knew scarcely anything, from having so long resided in France. In this situation I had strolled about for two or three days, considering what to do, but unable to come to any determination, when Providence directed me to the Temple Gardens. I threw myself on a seat, and, willing to forget my miseries for a moment, drew out a book; that book was a volume of Boileau. I had not been there long when a gentleman, strolling about, passed near me, and observing, perhaps, something Irish or foreign in my garb or countenance, addressed me. 'Sir, you seem studious; I hope you find this a favourable place to pursue it.' 'Not very studious, sir; I fear it is the want of society that brings me hither; I am solitary and unknown in this metropolis;' and a passage from Cicero—*Oratio pro Archia*—occurring to me, I quoted it; *Hæc studia pronocant nobiscum, pergrinuntur, rusticantur.* 'You are a scholar, too, sir, I perceive.' 'A piece of one, sir; but I ought still to have been in the college where I had the good fortune to pick up the little I know.' A good deal of conversation ensued; I told him part of my history, and he, in return, gave his address in the Temple, desiring me to call soon, from which, to my infinite surprise and gratification, I found that the person who thus seemed to take an interest in my fate was my countryman, and a distinguished ornament of letters.

"I did not fail to keep the appointment, and was received in the kindest manner. He told me smilingly that he was not rich; that he could do little for me in direct pecuniary aid, but would endeavour to put me in the way of doing something for myself; observing, that he could at least furnish me with advice not wholly useless to a young man placed in the heart of the great metropolis. 'In London,' he continued, 'nothing is to be got for nothing: you must work; and no man who chooses to be industrious need be under obligations to another, for here labour of every kind commands its reward. If you think proper to assist me occasionally as amanuensis, I shall be obliged, and you will be placed under no obligation, until something more permanent can be secured for you.' This employment, which I pursued for some time, was to translate passages from

Buffon, which was abridged or altered, according to circumstances, for his "Natural History."

Goldsmith's literary tasks were fast getting a-head of him, and he began now to "toil after them in vain."

Five volumes of the "Natural History" here spoken of had long since been paid for by Mr. Griffin, yet most of them were still to be written. His young amanuensis bears testimony to his embarrassments and perplexities, but to the degree of equanimity with which he bore them:—

"It has been said," observes he, "that he was irritable. Such may have been the case at times; nay, I believe it was so; for what with the continual pursuit of authors, printers, and booksellers, and occasional pecuniary embarrassments, few could have avoided exhibiting similar marks of impatience. But it was never so towards me. I saw him only in his bland and kind moods, with a flow, perhaps an overflow, of the milk of human kindness for all who were in any manner dependent upon him. I looked upon him with awe and veneration, and he upon me as a kind parent upon a child.

"His manner and address exhibited much frankness and cordiality, particularly to those with whom he possessed any degree of intimacy. His good-nature was equally apparent. You could not dislike the man, although several of his follies and foibles you might be tempted to condemn. He was generous and inconsiderate: money with him had little value."

To escape from many of the tormentors just alluded to, and to devote himself without interruption to his task, Goldsmith took lodgings for the summer in a farmhouse, near the six-mile stone on the Edgeware-road, and carried down his books in two return post-chaises. He used to say he believed the farmer's family thought him an odd character, similar to that in which the *Spectator* appeared to his landlady and her children—he was *The Gentleman*. Boswell tells us that he went to visit him at the place in company with Mickle, translator of the *Lusiad*. Goldsmith was not at home. Having a curiosity to see his apartment, however, they went in, and found curious scraps of descriptions of animals scrawled upon the wall with a black lead pencil.

The farm-house in question is still in existence, though much altered. It stands upon a gentle eminence, in Hyde-lane, commanding a pleasant prospect towards Hendon. The room is still pointed out in which "She Stoops to Conquer" was written; a convenient and airy apartment, up one flight of stairs.

Some matter-of-fact traditions concerning the author were furnished, a few years since, by a son of the farmer, who was sixteen years of age at the time Goldsmith resided with his father. Though he had engaged to board with the family, his meals were generally sent to him in his room, in which he passed the most of his time, negligently dressed, with his shirt collar open, busily engaged in writing. Sometimes, probably when in moods of composition, he would wander into the kitchen, without noticing any one, stand musing with his back to the fire, and then hurry off again to his room—no doubt to commit to paper some thought which had struck him.

Sometimes he strolled about the fields, or was to be seen loitering and reading and musing under the hedges. He was subject to fits of wakefulness, and read much in bed; if not disposed to read he still kept the candle burning; if he wished to extinguish it, and it was out of his reach, he flung his slipper at it, which would be found in the morning near the overturned candlestick and daubed with grease. He was noted here, as everywhere else, for his charitable feelings. No beggar applied to him in vain, and he evinced on all occasions great commiseration for the poor.

He had the use of the parlour to receive and entertain

company, and was visited by Sir Joshua Reynolds, Hugh Boyd, the reputed author of *Junius*, Sir William Chambers, and other distinguished characters. He gave occasionally, though rarely, a dinner-party; and on one occasion, when his guests were detained by a thunder-shower, he got up a dance, and carried the merriment late into the night.

As usual, he was the promoter of hilarity among the young, and at one time took the children of the house to see a company of strolling players at Hendon. The greatest amusement to the party, however, was derived from his own jokes on the road and his comments on the performance, which produced infinite laughter among his youthful companions.

Near to his rural retreat at Edgeware, a Mr. Seguin, an Irish merchant of literary tastes, had country quarters for his family, where Goldsmith was always welcome.

In this family he would indulge in playful and even grotesque humour, and was ready for anything—conversation, music, or a game of romps. He prided himself upon his dancing, and would walk a minuet with Mrs. Seguin, to the infinite amusement of herself and the children, whose shouts of laughter he bore with perfect good-humour. He would sing Irish songs, and the Scotch ballad of Johnny Armstrong. He took the lead in the children's sports of blind man's buff, hunt the slipper, &c., or in their games at cards, and was the most noisy of the party, affecting to cheat, and to be excessively eager to win; while with children of smaller size he would turn the hind part of his wig before, and play all kinds of tricks to amuse them.

One word as to his musical skill and his performance on the flute, which comes up so invariably in all his fireside revels. He really knew nothing of music scientifically; he had a good ear, and may have played sweetly; but we are told he could not read a note of music. Roubillac, the statuary, once played a trick upon him in this respect. He pretended to score down an air as the poet played it, but put down crotchets and semibreves at random. When he had finished, Goldsmith cast his eyes over it and pronounced it correct! It is possible that his execution in music was like his style in writing—in sweetness and melody he may have snatched a grace beyond the reach of art!

He was at all times a capital companion for children, and knew how to fall in with their humours. "I little thought," said Miss Hawkins, the woman grown, "what I should have to boast when Goldsmith taught me to play Jack and Jill by two bits of paper on his fingers." He entertained Mrs. Garrick, we are told, with a whole budget of stories and songs; delivered the "Chimney Sweep" with exquisite taste as a solo; and performed a duet with Garrick of "Old Rose and Burn the Bellows."

"I was only five years old," says the late George Colman, "when Goldsmith, one evening when drinking coffee with my father, took me on his knee and began to play with me, which amiable act I returned with a very smart slap of the face; it must have been a tingler, for I left the marks of my little spiteful paw upon his cheek. This infantile outrage was followed by summary justice, and I was locked up by my father in an adjoining room, to undergo solitary imprisonment in the dark. Here I began to howl and scream most abominably. At length, a friend appeared to extricate me from jeopardy: it was the good-natured doctor himself, with a lighted candle in his hand, and a smile upon his countenance, which was still partially red from the effects of my petulance. I sulked and sobbed, and he fondled and soothed until I began to brighten. He seized the propitious moment, placed three hats upon the carpet, and a shilling under each; the shillings, he told me, were England, France, and Spain. 'Hey, presto, cockorum!' cried the doctor, and, lo! on uncovering the shillings they were all found congregated under one. I was no politician at the time, and therefore might not

have wondered at the sudden revolution which brought England, France, and Spain all under one crown; but, as I was also no conjuror, it amazed me beyond measure. From that time, whenever the doctor came to visit my father,

I pluck'd his gown to share the good man's smile; a game of romps constantly ensued, and we were always cordial friends and merry playfellows."

Although Goldsmith made the Edgeware farm-house his head-quarters for the summer, he would absent himself for weeks at a time on visits to Mr. Cradock, Lord Clare, and Mr. Langton, at their country-seats. He would often visit town, also, to dine and partake of the public amusements. On one occasion he accompanied Edmund Burke to witness a performance of the Italian Fantoccini, or puppets, in Pantion-street—an exhibition which had hit the caprice of the town, and was in great vogue. The puppets were set in motion by wires, so well concealed as to be with difficulty detected. Boswell, with his usual obtuseness with respect to Goldsmith, accuses him of being jealous of the puppets! "When Burke," said he, "praised the dexterity with which one of them tossed a pike, 'Pshaw,' said Goldsmith *with some warmth*, 'I can do it better myself.'" "The same evening," adds Boswell, "when supping at Burke's lodgings, he broke his shin by attempting to exhibit to the company how much better he could jump over a stick than the puppets."

Goldsmith jealous of puppets! This even passes in absurdity Boswell's charge upon him of being jealous of the beauty of the two Miss Hornecks.

The Pantion-street puppets were destined to be a source of further amusement to the town, and of annoyance to the little autocrat of the stage. Foote, the Aristophanes of the English drama, who was always on the alert to turn every subject of popular excitement to account, seeing the success of the Fantoccini, gave out that he should produce a Primitive Puppet-show at the Haymarket, to be entitled "The Handsome Chambermaid, or Piety in Pattens," intended to burlesque the *sentimental Comedy* which Garrick still maintained at Drury Lane. The idea of a play to be performed in a regular theatre by puppets excited the curiosity and talk of the town. "Will your puppets be as large as life, Mr. Foote?" demanded a lady of rank. "Oh, no, my lady," replied Foote, "*not much larger than Garrick*."

CHAP. XXXV.

Broken health—Dissipation and debts—The Irish widow—Practical jokes—A misquoted pun—Malagrida—Goldsmith proved to be a fool—Distressed ballad-singers—The poet at Ranelagh.

Goldsmith returned to town in the autumn (1772), with his health much disordered. His close fits of sedentary application, during which he in a manner tied himself to the mast, had laid the seeds of a lurking malady in his system, and produced a severe illness in the course of the summer. Town life was not favourable to the health either of body or mind. He could not resist the siren voice of temptation, which, now that he had become a notoriety, assailed him on every side. Accordingly we find him launching away in a career of social dissipation; dining and supping out; at clubs, at routs, at theatres; he is a guest with Johnson at the Thrales', and an object of Mrs. Thrale's lively sallies; he is a lion at Mrs. Vesey's and Mrs. Montagu's, where some of the high-bred blue-stockings pronounce him a "wild genius," and others, peradventure, a "wild Irishman." In the meantime his pecuniary difficulties are increasing upon him, conflicting with his proneness to pleasure and expense, and contributing by the harassment of his mind to the wear and tear of his constitution. His "Animated Nature," though not finished, has been

entirely paid for, and the money spent. The money advanced by Garrick on Newbery's note still hangs over him as a debt. The tale on which Newbery had loaned from two to three hundred pounds previous to the excursion to Barton has proved a failure. The bookseller is urgent for the settlement of his complicated account; the perplexed author has nothing to offer him in liquidation but the copyright of the comedy which he has in his portfolio; "Though to tell you the truth, Frank," said he, "there are great doubts of its success." The offer was accepted, and, like bargains wrung from Goldsmith in times of emergency, turned out a golden speculation to the bookseller.

In this way Goldsmith went on "overrunning the constable," as he termed it; spending everything in advance; working with an overtaken head and weary heart to pay for past pleasure and past extravagance, and at the same time incurring new debts, to perpetuate his struggles and darken his future prospects. While the excitement of society and the excitement of composition conspire to keep up a feverishness of the system, he has incurred an unfortunate habit of quacking himself with James's powders, a fashionable panacea of the day.

A farce produced this year by Garrick, and entitled "The Irish Widow," perpetuates the memory of practical jokes played off a year or two previously upon the alleged vanity of poor simple-hearted Goldsmith. He was one evening at the house of his friend Burke, when he was beset by a tenth muse, an Irish widow and authoress, just arrived from Ireland, full of brogue and blunders, and poetic fire and rantipole gentility. She was soliciting subscriptions for her poems, and assailed Goldsmith for his patronage—the great Goldsmith, her countryman, and of course her friend. She overpowered him with eulogiums on his own poems, and then read some of her own with vehemence of tone and gesture, appealing continually to the great Goldsmith to know how he relished them.

Poor Goldsmith did all that a kind-hearted and gallant gentleman could do in such a case; he praised her poems as far as the stomach of his sense would permit—perhaps a little further; he offered her his subscription, and it was not until she had retired with many parting compliments to poor Goldsmith, that he pronounced the poetry that had been inflicted on him execrable. The whole scene had been a hoax got up by Burke for the amusement of his company, and the Irish widow, so admirably performed, had been personated by a Mrs. Balfour, a lady of his connexion, of great sprightliness and talent.

We see nothing in the story to establish the alleged vanity of Goldsmith, but we think it tells rather to the disadvantage of Burke—being unwarrantable under their relations of friendship, and a species of waggery quite beneath his genius.

Croker, in his notes to Boswell, gives another of these practical jokes perpetrated by Burke at the expense of Goldsmith's credulity. It was related to Croker by Colonel O'Moore, of Cloghan Castle, in Ireland, who was a party concerned. The Colonel and Burke, walking one day through Leicester-square on their way to Sir Joshua Reynolds's, with whom they were to dine, observed Goldsmith, who was likewise to be a guest, standing and regarding a crowd which was staring and shouting at some foreign ladies in the window of an hotel. "Observe Goldsmith," said Burke to O'Moore, "and mark what passes between us at Sir Joshua's." They passed on and reached there before him. Burke received Goldsmith with affected reserve and coldness; being pressed to explain the reason, "Really," said he, "I am ashamed to keep company with a person who could act as you have just done in the Square." Goldsmith protested that he was ignorant of what was meant. "Why," said Burke, "did you not exclaim as you were looking up at those women, what stupid beasts the crowd must

be for staring with such admiration at those *painted Jzebels*, while a man of your talents passed by unnoticed?" "Surely, surely, my dear friend," cried Goldsmith, with alarm—"surely I did not say so?" "Nay," replied Burke, "if you had not said so, how should I have known it?" "That's true," answered Goldsmith, "I am very sorry—it was very foolish; *I do recollect that something of the kind passed through my mind, but I did not think I had uttered it.*"

It is proper to observe that these jokes were played off by Burke before he had attained the full eminence of his social position, and that he may have felt privileged to take liberties with Goldsmith as his countryman and college associate. It is evident, however, that the peculiarities of the latter, and his guileless simplicity, made him a butt for the broad waggery of some of his associates; while others more polished, though equally perfidious, were on the watch to give currency to his bulls and blunders.

The Stratford jubilee, in honour of Shakspeare, where Boswell had made a fool of himself, was still in every one's mind. It was sportively suggested that a fête should be held at Lichfield in honour of Johnson and Garrick, and that the "Beaux' Stratagem" should be played by the members of the Literary Club. "Then," exclaimed Goldsmith, "I shall certainly play Scrub. I should like of all things to try my hand at that character." The unwary speech, which any one else might have made without comment, has been thought worthy of record as whimsically characteristic. Beauclerc was extremely apt to circulate anecdotes at his expense, founded, perhaps, on some trivial incident, but dressed up with the embellishments of his sarcastic brain. One relates to a venerable dish of peas, served up at Sir Joshua's table, which should have been green, but were any other colour. A wag suggested to Goldsmith, in a whisper, that they should be sent to Hammersmith, as that was the way to *turn-'em-green* (Turnham-green). Goldsmith, delighted with the pun, endeavoured to repeat it at Burke's table, but missed his point. "That is the way to *make 'em green*," said he. Nobody laughed. He perceived he was at fault. "I mean that is the road to *turn 'em green*." A dead pause and a stare; "whereupon," adds Beauclerc, "he started up disconcerted, and abruptly left the table." This is evidently one of Beauclerc's caricatures.

On another occasion the poet and Beauclerc were seated at the theatre next to Lord Shelburne, the minister, whom political writers thought proper to nickname Malagrida. "Do you know," said Goldsmith to his lordship, in the course of conversation, "that I never could conceive why they call you Malagrida, for Malagrida was a very good sort of man." This was too good a trip of the tongue for Beauclerc to let pass: he serves it up in his next letter to Lord Charlemont, as a specimen of a mode of turning a thought the wrong way peculiar to the poet; he makes merry over it with his witty and sarcastic compeer, Horace Walpole, who pronounces it "a picture of Goldsmith's whole life." Dr. Johnson alone, when he hears it bandied about as Goldsmith's last blunder, growls forth a friendly defence; "Sir," said he, "it was a mere blunder in emphasis. He meant to say, I wonder they should use Malagrida as a term of reproach." Poor Goldsmith! On such points he was ever doomed to be misinterpreted. Rogers, the poet, meeting in times long subsequent with a survivor from those days, asked him what Goldsmith really was in conversation. The old conversational character was too deeply stamped in the memory of the veteran to be effaced. "Sir," replied the old wisacre, "*he was a fool*. The right word never came to him. If you gave him back a bad shilling, he'd say, Why its as good a shilling as ever was *born*. You know he ought to have said *coined*. Coined, sir, never entered his head. *He was a fool, sir.*"

We have so many anecdotes in which Goldsmith's simplicity is played upon, that it is quite a treat to meet with one in which he is represented playing upon the simplicity of others, especially when the victim of his joke is the "Great Cham" himself, whom all others are disposed to hold so much in awe. Goldsmith and Johnson were supping cosily together at a tavern in Dean-street, Soho, kept by Jack Roberts, a singer at Drury-lane, and a protégé of Garrick's. Johnson delighted in these gastronomical "*tête-à-têtes*," and was expatiating in high good humour on a dish of rumps and kidneys, the veins of his forehead swelling with the ardour of mastication. "These," said he, "are pretty little things; but a man must eat a great many of them before he is filled." "Aye; but how many of them," asked Goldsmith, with affected simplicity, "would reach to the moon?" "To the moon! Ah, sir, that I fear exceeds your calculation." "Not at all, sir; I think I could tell." "Pray, then, sir, let us hear." "Why, sir, one, *if it were long enough!*" Johnson growled for a time at finding himself caught in such a trite school-boy trap. "Well, sir," cried he at length, "I have deserved it. I should not have provoked so foolish an answer by so foolish a question."

Among the many incidents related as illustrative of Goldsmith's vanity and envy is one which occurred one evening when he was in a drawing-room with a party of ladies, and a ballad-singer under the window struck up his favourite song of "Sally Salisbury." "How miserably this woman sings!" exclaimed he. "Pray, doctor," said the lady of the house, "could you do it better?" "Yes, madam, and the company shall be judges." The company, of course, prepared to be entertained by an absurdity; but their smiles were well nigh brought to tears, for he acquitted himself with a skill and pathos that drew universal applause. He had, in fact, a delicate ear for music, which had been jarred by the false notes of the ballad-singer; and there were certain pathetic ballads, associated with recollections of his childhood, which were sure to touch the springs of his heart. We have another story of him, connected with ballad-singing, which is still more characteristic. He was one evening at the house of Sir William Chambers, in Berners-street, seated at a whist-table with Sir William, Lady Chambers, and Baretti, when all at once he threw down his cards, hurried out of the room, and into the street. He returned in an instant, resumed his seat, and the game went on. Sir William, after a little hesitation, ventured to ask the cause of his retreat, fearing he had been overcome by the heat of the room. "Not at all," replied Goldsmith; "but in truth I could not bear to hear that unfortunate woman in the street, half singing, half sobbing, for such tones could only arise from the extremity of distress; her voice grated painfully on my ear and jarred my frame, so that I could not rest until I had sent her away." It was, in fact, a poor ballad-singer, whose cracked voice had been heard by others of the party, but without having the same effect on their sensibilities. It was the reality of his fictitious scene in the story of the Man in Black; wherein he describes a woman in rags, with one child in her arms and another on her back, attempting to sing ballads, but with such a mournful voice that it was difficult to determine whether she was singing or crying. "A wretch," he adds, "who, in the deepest distress, still aimed at good humour, was an object my friend was by no means capable of withstanding." The Man in Black gave the poor woman all that he had—a bundle of matches. Goldsmith, it is probable, sent his ballad-singer away rejoicing, with all the money he had in his pocket.

Ranelagh was at that time greatly in vogue as a place of public entertainment. It was situated near Chelsea; the principal room was a Rotunda of great dimensions, with an orchestra in the centre, and tiers of boxes all

round. It was a place to which Johnson resorted occasionally. "I am a great friend to public amusements," said he, "for they keep people from vice."* Goldsmith was equally a friend to them, though perhaps not altogether on such moral grounds. He was particularly fond of masquerades, which were then exceedingly popular, and got up at Ranelagh with great expense and magnificence. Sir Joshua Reynolds, who had likewise a taste for such amusements, was sometimes his companion, at other times he went alone; his peculiarities of person and manner would soon betray him, whatever might be his disguise, and he would be singled out by wags acquainted with his foibles, and more successful than himself in maintaining their incognito, as a capital subject to be played upon. Some, pretending not to know him, would decry his writings, and praise those of his contemporaries; others would laud his verses to the skies, but purposely misquote and burlesque them; others would annoy him with parodies; while one young lady, whom he was teasing, as he supposed, with great success and infinite humour, silenced his rather boisterous laughter by quoting his own line about "the loud laugh that speaks the vacant mind." On one occasion he was absolutely driven out of the house by the persevering jokes of a wag, whose complete disguise gave him no means of retaliation.

His name appearing in the newspapers among the distinguished persons present at one of these amusements, his old enemy, Kenrick, immediately addressed to him a copy of anonymous verses, to the following purport:—

"To Dr. Goldsmith, on seeing his name in the list of numbers at the late masquerade:—"

How widely different, Goldsmith, are the ways
Of Doctors now and those of ancient days!
Theirs taught the truth in academic shades—
Ours in lewd hops and midnight masquerades.
So changed the times! say, philosophic sage,
Whose genius suits so well this tasteful age,
Is the Pantheon, late a sink obscene,
Become the fountain of chaste Hippocrene?
Or do thy moral numbers quaintly flow,
Inspired by th' "Aganippe" of Soho?
Do wisdom's sons gorge dates and vermicelli,
Like beastly Bickerstaff or bothering Kelly?
Or art thou tired of th' undeserved applause,
Bestow'd on bards affecting Virtue's cause?
Is this the good that makes the humble vain—
The good philosophy should not disdain?
If so, let pride dissemble all it can,
A modern sage is still much less than man.

Goldsmith was keenly sensitive to attacks of the kind, and, meeting Kenrick at the Chapter Coffee-house, called him to sharp account for taking such a liberty with his name, and calling his morals in question, merely on account of his being seen at a place of general resort and amusement. Kenrick shuffled and sneaked, protesting that he meant nothing derogatory to his private character. Goldsmith let him know, however, that he was aware of his having more than once indulged in attacks of this dastard kind, and intimated that another such outrage would be followed by personal chastisement.

Kenrick, having played the craven in his presence, avenged himself as soon as he was gone by complaining of his having made a wanton attack upon him, and by making coarse comments upon his writings, conversation, and person.

* "Alas, sir!" said Johnson, speaking, when in another mood, of grand houses, fine gardens, and splendid places of public amusement; "alas, sir! these are only struggles for happiness. When I first entered Ranelagh, it gave an expansion and gay sensation to my mind such as I never experienced anywhere else. But, as Xerxes wept when he viewed his immense army, and considered that not one of that great multitude would be alive a hundred years afterwards, so it went to my heart to consider that there was not one in all that brilliant circle that was not afraid to go home and think."

The scurrilous satire of Kenrick, however unmerited, may have checked Goldsmith's taste for masquerades. Sir Joshua Reynolds calling on the poet one morning, found him walking about his room in somewhat of a reverie, kicking a bundle of clothes before him like a foot-ball. It proved to be an expensive masquerade dress, which he said he had been fool enough to purchase, and as there was no other way of getting the worth of his money, he was trying to take it out in exercise.

CHAP. XXXVI.

Invitation to Christmas—The spring-velvet coat—The haymaking wig—The mischances of loo—The fair culprit—A dance with the Jessamy Bride.

From the feverish dissipations of town, Goldsmith is summoned away to partake of the genial dissipations of the country. In the month of December, a letter from Mrs. Bunbury invites him down to Barton to pass the Christmas holidays. The letter is written in the usual playful vein which marks his intercourse with this charming family. He is to come in his "smart spring-velvet coat," to bring a new wig to dance with the haymakers in, and above all, to follow the advice of herself and her sister (the Jessamy Bride) in playing loo. This letter, which plays so archly, yet kindly, with some of poor Goldsmith's peculiarities, and bespeaks such real ladylike regard for him, requires a word or two of annotation. The spring-velvet suit alluded to appears to have been a gallant adornment (somewhat in the style of the famous bloom-coloured coat) in which Goldsmith had figured in the preceding month of May—the season of blossoms—for, on the 21st of that month, we find the following entry in the chronicle of Mr. William Filby, tailor:—"To your blue velvet suit, £21 10s. 9d." Also, about the same time, a suit of livery and a crimson collar for the serving man. Again we hold the Jessamy Bride responsible for this gorgeous splendour of wardrobe.

The new wig, no doubt, is a bag-wig and solitaire, still highly the mode, and in which Goldsmith is represented as figuring when in full dress, equipped with his sword.

As to the dancing with the haymakers, we presume it alludes to some gambol of the poet in the course of his former visit to Barton, when he ranged the fields and lawns a chartered libertine, and tumbled into the fish-ponds.

As to the suggestions about loo, they are in sportive allusion to the doctor's mode of playing that game in their merry evening parties—affecting the desperate gambler and easy dupe—running counter to all rule—making extravagant ventures—reproaching all others with cowardice—dashing at all hazards at the pool, and getting himself completely loo'd, to the great amusement of the company. The drift of the fair sisters' advice was most probably to tempt him on, and then leave him in the lurch.

With these comments we subjoin Goldsmith's reply to Mrs. Bunbury, a fine piece of off-hand humorous writing, which has but in late years been given to the public, and which throws a familiar light on the social circle at Barton.

"Madam,—I read your letter with all that allowance which critical candour could require, but after all find so much to object to, and so much to raise my indignation, that I cannot help giving it a serious answer.—I am not so ignorant, madam, as not to see there are many sarcasms contained in it, and solecisms also. (Solecism is a word that comes from the town of Solcis in Atica, among the Greeks, built by Solon, and applied as we use the word Kidderminster for curtains from a town also of that name—but this is learning you

have no taste for!)—I say, madam, there are many sarcasms in it, and solecisms also. But not to seem an ill-natured critic, I'll take leave to quote your own words, and give you my remarks upon them as they occur. You begin as follows:—

I hope, my good Doctor, you soon will be here,
And your spring-velvet coat very smart will appear,
To open our ball the first day of the year.

"Pray, madam, where did you ever find the epithet 'good' applied to the title of doctor? Had you called me 'learned doctor,' or 'grave doctor,' or 'noble doctor,' it might be allowable, because they belong to the profession. But, not to cavil at trifles, you talk of my 'spring-velvet coat,' and advise me to wear it the first day in the year, that is, in the middle of winter!—a spring-velvet coat in the middle of winter!!! That would be a solecism indeed! and yet, to increase the inconsistency, in another part of your letter you call me a beau. Now, on one side or other you must be wrong. If I am a beau, I can never think of wearing a spring-velvet in winter; and if I am not a beau, why, then, that explains itself. But let me go on to your two next strange lines.—

And bring with you a wig, that is modish and gay,
To dance with the girls that are makers of hay.

"The absurdity of making hay at Christmas you yourself seem sensible of: you say your sister will laugh; and so indeed she well may! The Latins have an expression for a contemptuous kind of laughter, '*naso contemnere adunco*,' that is, to laugh with a crooked nose. She may laugh at you in the manner of the ancients if she thinks fit. But now I come to the most extraordinary of all extraordinary propositions, which is, to take your and your sister's advice in playing at loo. The presumption of the offer raises my indignation beyond the bounds of prose; it inspires me at once with verse and resentment. I take advice? and from whom? You shall hear:—

First let me suppose, what may shortly be true,
The company set, and the word to be Loo:
All smirking, and pleasant, and big with adventure,
And ogling the stake which is fix'd in the centre.
Round and round go the stakes, while I inwardly damn
At never once finding a visit from Pam.
I lay down my stake, apparently cool,
While the harpies about me all pocket the pool.
I fret in my gizzard, yet, cautious and shy,
I wish all my friends may be bolder than I:
Yet still they sit snug, not a creature will aim
By losing their money to venture at fame.
'Tis in vain that at niggardly caution I scold,
'Tis in vain that I flatter the brave and the bold:
All play their own way, and they think me an ass—
'What does Mrs. Bunbury?—'I, sir? I pass.'
'Pray what does Miss Horneck? take courage, come, do.'
'Who, I? let me see, sir, why I must pass too.'
Mr. Bunbury frets, and I fret like the devil,
To see them so cowardly, lucky, and civil.
Yet still I sit snug, and continue to sigh on,
Till, made by my losses as bold as a lion,
I venture at all, while my avarice regards
The whole pool as my own—"Come, give me five cards."
'Well done!' cry the ladies. 'Ah, Doctor, that's good!
The pool's very rich—ah! the Doctor is loo'd!
Thus foil'd in my courage, on all sides perplex,
I ask for advice from the lady that's next:
'Pray, ma'am, be so good as to give your advice;
Don't you think the best way is to venture for't twice?
'I advise,' cries the lady, 'to try it, I own—'
'Ah! the Doctor is loo'd! Come, Doctor, put down.'
Thus, playing, and playing, I still grow more eager,
And so bold, and so bold, I'm at last a bold beggar.
Now, ladies, I ask, if law matters you're skill'd in,
Whether crimes such as yours should not come before Fielding:
For giving advice that is not worth a straw,
May well be call'd picking of pockets in law;
Is, by quinto Elizabeth, Death without Clergy.
What justice, when both to the Old Bailey brought!
By the gods, I'll enjoy it, though 'tis but in thought!

Both are placed at the bar, with all proper decorum,
With bunches of fennel, and nosegays before 'em;
Both cover their faces with mobs and all that,
But the judge bids them, angrily, take off their hat.
When uncover'd, a buzz of inquiry runs round,
'Pray what are their crimes?—'They've been pilfering found.
'But pray what have they pilfer'd?—'A doctor, I hear.
'What, you solemn-faced, odd-looking man that stands near?
'The same.—'What a pity! how does it surprise one,
Two handsomer culprits I never set eyes on!
Then their friends all come round me with cringing and leering,
To melt me to pity, and soften my swearing.
First Sir Charles advances, with phrases well-strung—
'Consider, dear Doctor, the girls are but young.'
'The younger the worse,' I return him again,
'It shows that their habits are all dyed in grain.'
'But then they're so handsome, one's bosom it grieves.'
'What signifies handsome, when people are thieves?'
'But where is your justice? their cases are hard.'
'What signifies justice? I want the reward.'

"There's the parish of Edmonton offers forty pounds;
there's the parish of St. Leonard, Shoreditch, offers
forty pounds; there's the parish of Tyburn, from the
Hog-in-the-pound to St. Giles's watch-house, offers forty
pounds. I shall have all that if I convict them!—

'But consider their case—it may yet be your own!
And see how they kneel! Is your heart made of stone?
This moves: so at last I agree to relent,
For ten pounds in hand, and ten pounds to be spent.

"I challenge you all to answer this: I tell you, you
cannot. It cuts deep. But now for the rest of the letter:
and next—but I want room—so I believe I shall battle
the rest out at Barton some day next week—I don't
value you all? "O. G."

We regret that we have no record of this Christmas
visit to Barton—that the poet had no Boswell to follow
at his heels, and take notes of all his sayings and doings.
We can only picture him in our minds, casting off all
care—enacting the lord of misrule—presiding at the
Christmas revels—providing all kinds of merriment—
keeping the card-table in an uproar, and finally opening
the ball on the first day of the year in his spring-velvet
suit, with the Jessamy Bride for a partner.

CHAP. XXXVII.

Theatrical delays—Negotiations with Colman—Letter to Garrick—
Croaking of the manager—Naming of the play—"She Stoops
to Conquer"—Foot's primitive puppet-show, "Piety on
Pattens"—First performance of the comedy—Agitation of
the author—Success—Colman squibbed out of town.

The gay life depicted in the two last chapters, while it
kept Goldsmith in a state of continual excitement,
aggravated the malady which was impairing his con-
stitution; yet his increasing perplexities in money
matters drove him to the dissipation of society as a
relief from solitary care. The delays of the theatre
added to those perplexities. He had long since finished
his new comedy, yet the year 1772 passed away without
his being able to get it on the stage. No one, unin-
tiated in the interior of a theatre, that little world of
traps and trickery, can have any idea of the obstacles
and perplexities multiplied in the way of the most
eminent and successful author by the mismanagement
of managers, the jealousies and intrigues of rival authors,
and the fantastic and impertinent caprices of actors. A
long and baffling negotiation was carried on between
Goldsmith and Colman, the manager of Covent Garden,
who retained the play in his hands until the middle
of January (1773) without coming to a decision. The
theatrical season was rapidly passing away, and Gold-
smith's pecuniary difficulties were augmenting and
pressing on him. We may judge of his anxiety by the
following letter:—

"To George Colman, Esq.

"DEAR SIR,—I entreat you'll relieve me from that state of suspense in which I have been kept for a long time. Whatever objections you have made or shall make to my play, I will endeavour to remove and not argue about them. To bring in any new judges either of its merits or faults I can never submit to. Upon a former occasion, when my other play was before Mr. Garrick, he offered to bring me before Mr. Whitehead's tribunal, but I refused the proposal with indignation: I hope I shall not receive as harsh treatment from you as from him. I have, as you know, a large sum of money to make up shortly; by accepting my play, I can readily satisfy my creditor that way; at any rate, I must look to some certainty to be prepared. For God's sake take the play, and let us make the best of it, and let me have the same measure, at least, which you have given as bad plays as mine.

"I am, your friend and servant,

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

Colman returned the manuscript, with the blank sides of the leaves scored with disparaging comments and suggested alterations, but with the intimation that the faith of the theatre should be kept, and the play acted notwithstanding. Goldsmith submitted the criticisms to some of his friends, who pronounced them trivial, unfair, and contemptible, and intimated that Colman, being a dramatic writer himself, might be actuated by jealousy. The play was then sent, with Colman's comments written on it, to Garrick; but he had scarce sent it when Johnson interfered, represented the evil that might result from an apparent rejection of it by Covent Garden, and undertook to go forthwith to Colman and have a talk with him on the subject. Goldsmith, therefore, penned the following note to Garrick:—

"DEAR SIR,—I ask many pardons for the trouble I gave you yesterday. Upon more mature deliberation, and the advice of a sensible friend, I began to think it indelicate in me to throw upon you the odium of confirming Mr. Colman's sentence. I therefore request you will send my play back by my servant; for having been assured of having it acted at the other house, though I confess yours in every respect more to my wish, yet it would be folly in me to undergo an advantage which lies in my power, of appealing from Mr. Colman's opinion to the judgment of the town. I entreat, if not too late, you will keep this affair a secret for some time.

"I am, dear sir, your very humble servant,

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

The negotiation of Johnson with the manager of Covent Garden was effective. "Colman," he says, "was prevailed on at last, by much solicitation, nay a kind of force," to bring forward the comedy. Still the manager was ungenerous—or, at least, indiscreet enough to express his opinion that it would not reach a second representation. The plot, he said, was bad, and the interest not sustained; "it dwindled, and dwindled, and at last went out like the snuff of a candle." The effect of his croaking was soon apparent within the walls of the theatre. Two of the most popular actors, Woodward and Gentleman Smith, to whom the parts of Tony Lumpkin and Young Marlow were assigned, refused to act them—one of them alleging, in excuse, the evil predictions of the manager. Goldsmith was advised to postpone the performance of his play until he could get these important parts well supplied. "No," said he, "I would sooner that my play were damned by bad players than merely saved by good acting."

Quick was substituted for Woodward in Tony Lumpkin, and Lee Lewis, the harlequin of the theatre, for Gentleman Smith in Young Marlow; and both did justice to their parts.

Great interest was taken by Goldsmith's friends in the success of his piece. The rehearsals were attended

by Johnson, Cradock, Murphy, Reynolds and his sister, and the whole Horneck connexion, including, of course, the *Jessamy Bride*, whose presence may have contributed to flutter the anxious heart of the author. The rehearsals went off with great applause; but that Colman attributed to the partiality of friends. He continued to croak, and refused to risk any expense in new scenery or dresses on a play which he was sure would prove a failure.

The time was at hand for the first representation, and as yet the comedy was without a title. "We are all in labour for a name for Goldy's play," said Johnson, who, as usual, took a kind of fatherly protecting interest in poor Goldsmith's affairs. "The Old House a New Inn" was thought of for a time, but still did not please. Sir Joshua Reynolds proposed "The Belle's Stratagem," an elegant title, but not considered applicable, the perplexities of the comedy being produced by the mistake of the hero, not the stratagem of the heroine. The name was afterwards adopted by Mrs. Cowley for one of her comedies. "The Mistakes of a Night" was the title at length fixed upon, to which Goldsmith prefixed the words, "She Stoops to Conquer."

The evil bodings of Colman still continued: they were even communicated to the box-office to the servant of the Duke of Gloucester, who was sent to engage a box. Never did the play of a popular writer struggle into existence through more difficulties.

In the meantime Foote's "Primitive Puppet-show," entitled "The Handsome Housemaid, or Piety on Pattens," had been brought out at the Haymarket on the 15th of February. All the world, fashionable and unfashionable, had crowded to the theatre. The street thronged with equipages—the doors were stormed by the mob. The burlesque was completely successful, and sentimental comedy received its quietus. Even Garrick, who had recently befriended it, now gave it a kick, as he saw it going down hill, and sent Goldsmith a humorous prologue to help his comedy of the opposite school. Garrick and Goldsmith, however, were now on very cordial terms, to which the social meetings in the circle of the Hornecks and Bunburys may have contributed.

On the 15th of March the new comedy was to be performed. Those who had stood up for its merits, and been irritated and disgusted by the treatment it had received from the manager, determined to muster their forces, and aid in giving it a good launch upon the town. The particulars of this confederation, and of its triumphant success, are amusingly told by Cumberland in his Memoirs.

"We were not over sanguine of success, but perfectly determined to struggle hard for our author. We accordingly assembled our strength at the Shakspeare Tavern, in a considerable body, for an early dinner, where Samuel Johnson took the chair at the head of a long table, and was the life and soul of the corps: the poet took post silently by his side, with the Burkes, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Fitzherbert, Caleb Whitefoord, and a phalanx of North British predetermined applauders, under the banner of Major Mills, all good men and true. Our illustrious president was in inimitable glee; and poor Goldsmith that day took all his railery as patiently and complacently as my friend Boswell would have done any day or every day of his life. In the meantime we did not forget our duty, and though we had a better comedy going, in which Johnson was chief actor, we betook ourselves in good time to our separate and allotted posts, and waited the awful drawing up of the curtain. As our stations were preconcerted, so were our signals for plaudits arranged and determined upon, in a manner that gave every one his cue where to look for them, and how to follow them up.

"We had among us a very worthy and efficient member, long since lost to his friends and the world at large,

Adam Drummond, of amiable memory, who was gifted by nature with the most sonorous, and at the same time the most contagious, laugh that ever echoed from the human lungs. The neighing of the horse of the son of Hystaspes was a whisper to it—the whole thunder of the theatre could not drown it. This kind and ingenious friend fairly forewarned us that he knew no more when to give his fire than the cannon did that was planted on the battery. He desired, therefore, to have a flapper at his elbow, and I had the honour to be deputed to that office. I planted him in an upper box, pretty nearly over the stage, in full view of the pit and galleries, and perfectly well situated to give the echo all its play through the hollows and recesses of the theatre. The success of our manœuvre was complete. All eyes were upon Johnson, who sat in a front row of a side box; and when he laughed, everybody thought themselves warranted to roar. In the meantime, my friend followed signals with a rattle so irresistibly comic, that, when he had repeated it several times, the attention of the spectators was so engrossed by his person and performances, that the progress of the play seemed likely to become a secondary object, and I found it prudent to insinuate to him that he might halt his music without any prejudice to the author; but, alas! it was now too late to rein him in; he had laughed upon my signal where he found no joke, and now, unluckily, he fancied that he found a joke in almost everything that was said, so that nothing in nature could be more mal-apropos than some of his bursts every now and then were. These were dangerous moments, for the pit began to take umbrage; but we carried our point through, and triumphed, not only over Colman's judgment, but our own."

Much of this statement has been condemned as exaggerated or discoloured. Cumberland's memoirs have generally been characterised as partaking of romance, and in the present instance he had particular motives for tampering with the truth. He was a dramatic writer himself, jealous of the success of a rival, and anxious to have it attributed to the private management of friends. According to various accounts, public and private, such management was unnecessary, for the piece was "received throughout with the greatest acclamations."

Goldsmith, in the present instance, had not dared, as on a former occasion, to be present at the first performance. He had been so overcome by his apprehensions, that, at the preparatory dinner, he could hardly utter a word, and was so choked that he could not swallow a mouthful. When his friends trooped to the theatre, he stole away to St James's Park: there he was found by a friend, between seven and eight o'clock, wandering up and down the Mall like a troubled spirit. With difficulty he was persuaded to go to the theatre, where his presence might be important should any alteration be necessary. He arrived at the opening of the fifth act, and made his way behind the scenes. Just as he entered there was a slight hiss, at the improbability of Tony Lumpkin's trick on his mother, in persuading her she was forty miles off, on Crackskull Common, though she had been trundled about on her own grounds. "What's that? What's that?" cried Goldsmith to the manager, in great agitation. "Pshaw! Doctor," replied Colman, sarcastically, "don't be frightened at a squib, when we've been sitting these two hours on a barrel of gunpowder!" Though of a most forgiving nature, Goldsmith did not easily forget this ungracious and ill timed sally.

If Colman was, indeed, actuated by the paltry motives ascribed to him in his treatment of this play, he was most amply punished by its success, and by the taunts, epigrams, and censures levelled at him through the press, in which his false prophecies were jeered at, his critical judgment called in question, and he was openly taxed with literary jealousy. So galling and unrelenting

was the fire, that he at length wrote to Goldsmith, entreating him "to take him off the rack of the newspapers;" in the meantime, to escape the laugh that was raised about him in the theatrical world of London, he took refuge in Bath during the triumphant career of the comedy.

The following is one of the many squibs which assailed the ears of the manager:—

"To George Colman, Esq."

ON THE SUCCESS OF DR. GOLDSMITH'S NEW COMEDY.

Come, Coley, doff those mourning weeds,
Nor thus with jokes be flamm'd;
Tho' Goldsmith's present play succeeds,
The next may still be damn'd.
As this has 'scaped without a fall,
To sink his next prepare;
New actors hire from Wapping Wall,
And dresses from Rag Fair.
For scenes let tatter'd blankets fly,
The prologue Kelly write;
Then swear again the piece must die
Before the author's sight.
Should these tricks fail, the lucky elf,
To bring to lasting shame,
E'en write the best you can yourself,
And print it in his name."

The solitary hiss, which had startled Goldsmith, was ascribed by some of the newspaper scribblers to Cumberland himself, who was "manifestly miserable" at the delight of the audience, or to Ossian Macpherson, who was hostile to the whole Johnson clique, or to Goldsmith's rival, Kelly. The following is one of his epigrams which appeared:—

At Dr. Goldsmith's merry play,
All the spectators laugh, they say,
The assertion, sir, I must deny,
For Cumberland and Kelly cry.

Another, addressed to Goldsmith, alludes to Kelly's early apprenticeship to stay-making:—

If Kelly finds fault with the "shape" of your muse,
And thinks that too loosely it plays,
He surely, dear Doctor, will never refuse
To make it a new pair of Stays!"

Cradock had returned to the country before the production of the play; the following letter, written just after the performance, gives an additional picture of the thorns which beset an author in the path of theatrical literature:—

"MY DEAR SIR,—The play has met with a success much beyond your expectations or mine. I thank you sincerely for your epilogue, which, however, could not be used, but with your permission shall be printed. The story, in short, is this. Murphy sent me rather the outline of an epilogue, which was to be sung by Miss Catley, and which she approved; Mrs. Bulkley, hearing this, insisted on throwing up her part (Miss Hardcastle) unless, according to the custom of the theatre, she were permitted to speak the epilogue. In this embarrassment, I thought of making a quarrelling epilogue between Catley and her, debating who should speak the epilogue; but then Miss Catley refused, after I had taken the trouble of drawing it out. I was then at a loss indeed; an epilogue was to be made, and for none but Mrs. Bulkley. I made one, and Colman thought it too bad to be spoken; I was obliged, therefore, to try a fourth time, and I made a very mawkish thing, as you will shortly see. Such is the history of my stage adventures, and which I have at last done with. I cannot help saying that I am very sick of the stage; and though I believe I shall get three terrible benefits, yet I shall, on the whole, be a loser, even in a pecuniary light: my ease and comfort I certainly lost while it was in agitation.

"I am, my dear Cradock,

"Your obliged and obedient servant,

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

"P.S.—Present my most humble respects to Mrs. Cradock."

Johnson, who had taken such a conspicuous part in promoting the interests of poor "Goldy," was triumphant at the success of the piece. "I know of no comedy for many years," said he, "that has so much exhilarated an audience; that has answered so much the great end of comedy—in making an audience merry."

Goldsmith was happy also in gaining applause from less authoritative sources. Northcote, the painter, then a youthful pupil of Sir Joshua Reynolds, and Ralph, Sir Joshua's confidential man, had taken their stations in the gallery to lead the applause in that quarter. Goldsmith asked Northcote's opinion of the play. The youth modestly declared he could not presume to judge in such matters. "Did it make you laugh?" "Oh, exceedingly!" "That is all I require," replied Goldsmith; and rewarded him for his criticism by box-tickets for his first benefit night.

The comedy was immediately put to press, and dedicated to Johnson in the following grateful and affectionate terms:—

"In inscribing this slight performance to you, I do not mean so much to compliment you as myself. It may do me some honour to inform the public, that I have lived many years in intimacy with you. It may serve the interests of mankind, also, to inform them, that the greatest wit may be found in a character, without impairing the most unaffected piety."

The copyright was transferred to Mr. Newbery, according to agreement, whose profits on the sale of the work far exceeded the debts for which the author in his perplexities had pre-engaged it. The sum which accrued to Goldsmith from his benefit nights afforded but a slight palliation of his pecuniary difficulties. His friends, while they exulted in his success, little knew of his continually increasing embarrassments, and of the anxiety of mind which kept tasking his pen, while it impaired the ease and freedom of spirit necessary to felicitous composition.

CHAP. XXXVIII.

A newspaper attack—The Evans affair—Johnson's comment.

The triumphant success of "She Stoops to Conquer" brought forth, of course, those carplings and cavillings of underling scribblers which are the thorns and briars in the path of successful authors. Goldsmith, though easily nettled by attacks of the kind, was at present too well satisfied with the reception of his comedy to heed them; but the following anonymous letter, which appeared in a public paper, was not to be taken with equal equanimity:—

"For the *London Packet*.—To Dr. Goldsmith.

Vous vous noyez par vanité.

"Sir,—The happy knack which you have learned of puffing your own compositions provokes me to come forth. You have not been the editor of newspapers and magazines not to discover the trick of literary *humbug*; but the gauze is so thin that the very foolish part of the world see through it, and discover the doctor's monkey face and cloven foot. Your poetic vanity is as unpardonable as your personal. Would man believe it, and will woman bear it, to be told that for hours the great Goldsmith will stand surveying his grotesque ouran-outang figure in a pier-glass? Was but the lovely H—k as much enamoured, you would not sigh, my gentle swain, in vain. But your vanity is preposterous. How will this same bard of Bedlam ring the changes in the praises of Goldy? But what has he to be either proud or vain of? 'The Traveller' is a flimsy poem, built upon false principles—principles diametrically opposite to liberty.

What is the 'Good-natured Man' but a poor water-gruel dramatic dose? What is 'The Deserted Village,' but a pretty poem of easy numbers, without fancy, dignity, genius, or fire? And pray what may be the last *speaking pantomime*, so praised by the doctor himself, but an incoherent piece of stuff, the figure of a woman with a fish's tail, without plot, incident, or intrigue? We are made to laugh at stale, dull jokes, wherein we mistake pleasantry for wit, and grimace for humour—wherein every scene is unnatural, and inconsistent with the rules, the laws, of nature and of the drama; viz., two gentlemen come to a man of fortune's house, eat, drink, &c., and take it for an inn. The one is intended as a lover for the daughter; he talks with her for some hours, and, when he sees her again in a different dress, he treats her as a bar-girl, and swears she squinted. He abuses the master of the house, and threatens to kick him out of his own doors. The squire, whom we are told is to be a fool, proves to be the most sensible being of the piece; and he makes out a whole act by bidding his mother lie close behind a bush, persuading her that his father, her own husband, is a highwayman, and that he has come to cut their throats; and to give his cousin an opportunity to go off, he drives his mother over hedges, ditches, and through ponds. There is not, sweet, sucking Johnson, a natural stroke in the whole play but the young fellow's giving the stolen jewels to the mother, supposing her to be the landlady. That Mr. Colman did no justice to this piece I honestly allow; that he told all his friends it would be damned, I positively aver; and from such ungenerous insinuations, without a dramatic merit, it rose to public notice, and it is now the ton to go and see it, though I never saw a person that either liked it or approved it, any more than the absurd plot of Home's tragedy of "Alonzo." Mr. Goldsmith, correct your arrogance, reduce your vanity, and endeavour to believe—as a man, you are of the plainest sort; and, as an author, but a mortal piece of mediocrity.

Brise le miroir infidèle
Qui vous cache la vérité.

"TOM TICKLE."

It would be difficult to devise a letter more calculated to wound the peculiar sensibilities of Goldsmith. The attacks upon him as an author, though annoying enough, he could have tolerated; but then the allusion to his "grotesque" person, to his studious attempts to adorn it; and, above all, to his being an unsuccessful admirer of the lovely H—k (the Jessamy Bride), struck rudely upon the most sensitive part of his highly sensitive nature. The paragraph, it is said, was first pointed out to him by an officious friend, an Irishman, who told him he was bound in honour to resent it; but he needed no such prompting. He was in a high state of excitement and indignation, and, accompanied by his friend, who is said to have been a Captain Higgins of the marines, he repaired to Paternoster-row, to the shop of Evans, the publisher, whom he supposed to be the editor of the paper. Evans was summoned by his shopman from an adjoining room; Goldsmith announced his name. "I have called," added he, "in consequence of a scurrilous attack made upon me, and an unwarrantable liberty taken with the name of a young lady. As for myself, I care little; but her name must not be sported with."

Evans professed utter ignorance of the matter, and said he would speak to the editor. He stooped to examine a file of the paper, in search of the offensive article; whereupon Goldsmith's friend gave him a signal, that now was a favourable moment for the exercise of his cane. The hint was taken as quick as given, and the cane was vigorously applied to the back of the stooping publisher. The latter rallied in an instant, and, being a stout, high-blooded Welshman, returned the blows with interest. A lamp hanging overhead was broken, and sent down a shower of oil upon the combat

ants; but the battle raged with unceasing fury. The shopman ran off for a constable; but Dr. Kenrick, who happened to be in the adjacent room, sallied forth, interfered between the combatants, and put an end to the affray. He conducted Goldsmith to a coach, in exceedingly battered and tattered plight, and accompanied him home, soothing him with much mock commiseration, though he was generally suspected, and on good grounds, to be the author of the libel.

Evans immediately instituted a suit against Goldsmith for an assault, but was ultimately prevailed upon to compromise the matter, the poet contributing fifty pounds to the Welsh charity.

Newspapers made themselves, as may well be supposed, exceedingly merry with the combat. Some censured him severely for invading the sanctity of a man's own house; others accused him of having, in his former capacity of editor of a magazine, been guilty of the very offences that he now resented in others. This drew from him the following vindication:—

"To the Public.

"Lest it should be supposed that I have been willing to correct in others an abuse of which I have been guilty myself, I beg leave to declare, that in all my life I never wrote or dictated a single paragraph, letter, or essay in a newspaper, except a few moral essays under the character of a Chinese, about ten years ago in the "Ledger," and a letter, to which I signed my name, in the "St. James's Chronicle." If the liberty of the press, therefore, has been abused, I have had no hand in it.

"I have always considered the press as the protector of our freedom, as a watchful guardian, capable of uniting the weak against the encroachments of power. What concerns the public most properly admits of a public discussion. But, of late, the press has turned from defending public interest to making inroads upon private life—from combating the strong to overwhelming the feeble. No condition is now obscure for its abuse, and the protector has become the tyrant of the people. In this manner, the freedom of the press is beginning to sow the seeds of its own dissolution; the great must oppose it from principle, and the weak from fear; till at last every rank of mankind shall be found to give up its benefits, content with security from insults.

"How to put a stop to this licentiousness, by which all are indiscriminately abused, and by which vice consequently escapes in the general censure, I am unable to tell; all I could wish is, that, as the law gives us no protection against the injury, so it should give calumniators no shelter after having provoked correction. The insults which we receive before the public, by being more open, are the more distressing; by treating them with silent contempt, we do not pay a sufficient deference to the opinion of the world. By recurring to legal redress, we too often expose the weakness of the law, which only serves to increase our mortification by failing to relieve us. In short, every man should singly consider himself as the guardian of the liberty of the press, and, as far as his influence can extend, should endeavour to prevent its licentiousness becoming at last the grave of its freedom.

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

Boswell, who had just arrived in town, met with this article in a newspaper which he found at Dr. Johnson's. The doctor was from home at the time, and Bozzy and Mrs. Williams, in a critical conference over the letter, determined from the style that it must have been written by the lexicographer himself. The latter on his return soon undeceived them. "Sir," said he to Boswell, "Goldsmith would no more have asked me to have wrote such a thing as that for him, than he would have asked me to feed him with a spoon, or do anything else that denoted his imbecility. Sir, had he shown it to any one friend, he would not have been allowed to

publish it. He has, indeed, done it very well; but it is a foolish thing well done. I suppose he has been so much elated with the success of his new comedy, that he has thought everything that concerned him must be of importance to the public."

CHAP. XXXIX.

Boswell in Holy-Week—Dinner at Oglethorpe's—Dinner at Paoli's—The policy of truth—Goldsmith affects independence of royalty—Paoli's compliment—Johnson's eulogium on the fiddle—Question about suicide—Boswell's subservieney.

The return of Boswell to town to his task of noting down the conversations of Johnson, enables us to glean from his journal some scanty notices of Goldsmith. It was now Holy-Week—a time during which Johnson was particularly solemn in his manner and strict in his devotions. Boswell, who was the imitator of the great moralist in everything, assumed, of course, an extra devoutness on the present occasion. "He had an odd mock solemnity of tone and manner," said Miss Burney (afterwards Madame D'Arblay), "which he had acquired from constantly thinking of and imitating Dr. Johnson." It would seem that he undertook to deal out some second-hand homilies, *a la Johnson*, for the edification of Goldsmith during Holy-Week. The poet, whatever might be his religious feeling, had no disposition to be schooled by so shallow an apostle. "Sir," said he in reply, "as I take my shoes from the shoemaker, and my coat from the tailor, so I take my religion from the priest."

Boswell treasured up the reply in his memory or his memorandum-book. A few days afterwards, the 9th of April, he kept Good Friday with Dr. Johnson in orthodox style; breakfasted with him on tea and crossbuns; went to church with him morning and evening; fasted in the interval, and read with him in the Greek Testament; then, in the piety of his heart, complained of the sore rebuff he had met with in the course of his religious exhortations to the poet, and lamented that the latter should indulge in "this loose way of talking." "Sir," replied Johnson, "Goldsmith knows nothing—he has made up his mind about nothing."

This reply seems to have gratified the lurking jealousy of Boswell, and he has recorded it in his journal. Johnson, however, with respect to Goldsmith, and indeed with respect to everybody else, blew hot as well as cold, according to the humour he was in. Boswell, who was astonished and piqued at the continually increasing celebrity of the poet, observed some time after to Johnson, in a tone of surprise, that Goldsmith had acquired more fame than all the officers of the war who were not generals. "Why, sir," answered Johnson, his old feeling good-will working uppermost, "you will find ten thousand fit to do what they did, before you find one to do what Goldsmith has done. You must consider that a thing is valued according to its rarity. A pebble that paves the street is in itself more useful than the diamond upon a lady's finger."

On the 13th of April, we find Goldsmith and Johnson at the table of old General Oglethorpe, discussing the question of the degeneracy of the human race. Goldsmith asserts the fact, and attributes it to the influence of luxury. Johnson denies the fact; and observes, that even admitting it, luxury could not be the cause. It reached but a small proportion of the human race. Soldiers on sixpence a day could not indulge in luxuries; the poor and labouring classes, forming the great mass of mankind, were out of its sphere. Wherever it could reach them, it strengthened them and rendered them prolific. The conversation was not of particular force or point, as reported by Boswell: the dinner party was a very small one, in which there was no provocation to intellectual display.

After dinner they took tea with the ladies, where we find poor Goldsmith happy and at home, singing Tony Lumpkin's song of the "Three Jolly Pigeons," and another, called the "Humours of Ballamaguery," to a very pretty Irish tune. It was to have been introduced in "She Stoops to Conquer," but was left out, as the actress who played the heroine could not sing.

It was in these genial moments that the sunshine of Goldsmith's nature would break out, and he would say and do a thousand whimsical and agreeable things that made him the life of the strictly social circle. Johnson, with whom conversation was everything, used to judge Goldsmith too much by his own colloquial standard, and undervalue him for being less provided than himself with acquired facts, the ammunition of the tongue, and often the mere lumber of the memory; others, however, valued him for the native felicity of his thoughts, however carelessly expressed, and for certain good-fellow qualities, less calculated to dazzle than to endear. "It is amazing," said Johnson one day, after he himself had been talking like an oracle; "it is amazing how little Goldsmith knows; he seldom comes where he is not more ignorant than any one else." "Yet," replied Sir Joshua Reynolds, with affectionate promptness, "there is no man whose company is more liked."

Two or three days after the dinner at General Oglethorpe's, Goldsmith met Johnson again at the table of General Paoli, the hero of Corsica. Martinelli, of Florence, author of an Italian History of England, was among the guests; as was Boswell, to whom we are indebted for minutes of the conversation which took place. The question was debated whether Martinelli should continue his history down to that day. "To be sure he should," said Goldsmith. "No, sir," cried Johnson, "it would give great offence. He would have to tell of almost all the living great what they did not wish told." Goldsmith.—"It may, perhaps, be necessary for a native to be more cautious; but a foreigner, who comes among us without prejudice, may be considered as holding the place of a judge, and may speak his mind freely." Johnson.—"Sir, a foreigner, when he sends a work from the press, ought to be on his guard against catching the error and mistaken enthusiasm of the people among whom he happens to be." Goldsmith.—"Sir, he wants only to sell his history, and to tell truth; one an honest, the other a laudable motive." Johnson.—"Sir, they are both laudable motives. It is laudable in a man to wish to live by his labours; but he should write so as he may live by them, not so as he may be knocked on the head. I would advise him to be at Calais before he publishes his history of the present age. A foreigner who attaches himself to a political party in this country is in the worst state that can be imagined; he is looked upon as a mere intermeddler. A native may do it for interest." Boswell.—"Or principle." Goldsmith.—"There are people who tell a hundred political lies every day, and are not hurt by it. Surely, then, one may tell truth with perfect safety." Johnson.—"Why, sir, in the first place, he who tells a hundred lies has disarmed the force of his lies. But, besides, a man had rather have a hundred lies told of him than one truth which he does not wish to be told." Goldsmith.—"For my part, I'd tell the truth and shame the devil." Johnson.—"Yes, sir, but the devil will be angry. I wish to shame the devil as much as you do, but I should choose to be out of the reach of his claws." Goldsmith.—"His claws can do you no hurt where you have the shield of truth."

This last reply was one of Goldsmith's lucky hits, and closed the argument in his favour.

"We talked," writes Boswell, "of the king's coming to see Goldsmith's new play." "I wish he would," said Goldsmith, adding, however, with an affected indifference, "not that it would do me the least good." "Well, then," cried Johnson, laughing, "let us say it would do him good. No, sir, this affectation will not pass;—it is

mighty idle. In such a state as ours, who would not wish to please the chief magistrate?"

"I do wish to please him," rejoined Goldsmith. "I remember a line in Dryden:—

And every poet is the monarch's friend;
it ought to be reversed." "Nay," said Johnson, "there are finer lines in Dryden on this subject:

For colleges on bounteous kings depend,
And never rebel was to arts a friend.

General Paoli observed that "successful rebels might be." "Happy rebellions," interjected Martinelli. "We have no such phrase," cried Goldsmith. "But have you not the thing?" asked Paoli. "Yes," replied Goldsmith, "all our happy revolutions. They have hurt our constitutions, and will hurt it, till we mend it by another HAPPY REVOLUTION." This was a sturdy sally of Jacobitism that quite surprised Boswell, but must have been relished by Johnson.

General Paoli mentioned a passage in the play, which had been construed into a compliment to a lady of distinction, whose marriage with the Duke of Cumberland had excited the strong disapprobation of the king as a mésalliance. Boswell, to draw Goldsmith out, pretended to think the compliment unintentional. The poet smiled, and hesitated. The general came to his relief. "*Monsieur Goldsmith*," said he, "*est comme la mer, qui jette des perles et beaucoup d'autres belles choses, sans s'en apercevoir*." (Mr. Goldsmith is like the sea, which casts forth pearls and many other beautiful things without perceiving it.)

"Très-bien dit, et très-élégamment" (very well said, and very elegantly) exclaimed Goldsmith, delighted with so beautiful a compliment from such a quarter.

Johnson spoke disparagingly of the learning of a Mr. Harris, of Salisbury, and doubted his being a good Grecian. "He is what is much better," cried Goldsmith, with prompt good nature, "he is a worthy, humane man." "Nay, sir," rejoined the logical Johnson, "that is not to the purpose of our argument; that will prove that he can play upon a fiddle as well as Giardini, as that he is an eminent Grecian." Goldsmith found that he had got into a scrape, and seized upon Giardini to help him out of it. "The greatest musical performers," said he, dexterously turning the conversation, "have but small emoluments; Giardini, I am told, does not get above seven hundred a year." "That is indeed but little for a man to get," observed Johnson, "who does best that which so many endeavour to do. There is nothing, I think, in which the power of art is shown so much as in playing on the fiddle. In all other things we can do something at first. Any man will forge a bar of iron, if you give him a hammer—not so well as a smith, but tolerably. A man will saw a piece of wood, and make a box, though a clumsy one; but give him a fiddle and a fiddlestick, and he can do nothing."

This upon the whole, though reported by the one-sided Boswell, is a tolerable specimen of the conversations of Goldsmith and Johnson; the former heedless, often illogical, always on the kind-hearted side of the question, and prone to redeem himself by lucky hits; the latter closely argumentative, studiously sententious, often profound, and sometimes laboriously prosaic.

They had an argument a few days later at Mr. Thrale's table, on the subject of suicide. "Do you think, sir," said Boswell, "that all who commit suicide are mad?" "Sir," replied Johnson, "they are not often universally disordered in their intellects, but one passion presses so upon them that they yield to it, and commit suicide, as a passionate man will stab another. I have often thought," added he, "that after a man has taken the resolution to kill himself, it is not courage in him to do anything, however desperate, because he has nothing to fear." "I don't see that," observed Goldsmith. "Nay, but my dear sir," rejoined Johnson, "why should you not see what every one else does?" "It is," replied

Goldsmith, "for fear of something that he has resolved to kill himself; and will not that timid disposition restrain him?" "It does not signify," pursued Johnson, "that the fear of something made him resolve; it is upon the state of his mind, after the resolution is taken, that I argue. Suppose a man, either from fear, or pride, or conscience, or whatever motive, has resolved to kill himself; when once the resolution is taken he has nothing to fear. He may then go and take the King of Prussia by the nose at the head of his army. He cannot fear the rack who is determined to kill himself." Boswell reports no more of the discussion, though Goldsmith might have continued it with advantage; for the very timid disposition which, through fear of something, was impelling the man to commit suicide, might restrain him from an act involving the punishment of the rack, more terrible to him than death itself.

It is to be regretted in all these reports by Boswell we have scarcely anything but the remarks of Johnson; it is only by accident that he now and then gives us the observations of others, when they are necessary to explain or set off those of his hero. "When in *that presence*," says Miss Burney, "he was unobservant, if not contemptuous, of every one else. In truth, when he met with Dr. Johnson, he commonly forbore even answering anything that was said, or attending to anything that went forward, lest he should miss the smallest sound from that voice, to which he paid such exclusive, though merited homage. But the moment that voice burst forth, the attention which it excited on Mr. Boswell amounted almost to pain. His eyes goggled with eagerness; he leant his ear almost on the shoulder of the Doctor; and his mouth dropped open to catch every syllable that might be uttered; nay, he seemed not only to dread losing a word, but to be anxious not to miss a breathing; as if hoping from it latently, or mystically, some information."

On one occasion the doctor detected Boswell, or Bozzy as he called him, eavesdropping behind his chair, as he was conversing with Miss Burney at Mr. Thrale's table. "What are you doing there, sir?" cried he, turning round angrily, and clapping his hand upon his knee; "go to the table, sir."

Boswell obeyed, with an air of affright and submission which raised a smile on every face. Scarce had he taken his seat, however, at a distance, than, impatient to get again at the side of Johnson, he rose and was running off in quest of something to show him, when the doctor roared after him authoritatively, "What are you thinking of, sir? why do you get up before the cloth is removed? Come back to your place, sir!"—and the obsequious spaniel did as he was commanded.—"Running about in the middle of meals!" muttered the doctor, pursing his mouth at the same time to restrain his rising risibility.

Boswell got another rebuff from Johnson, which would have demolished any other man. He had been teasing him with many direct questions, such as "What did you do, sir?"—"What did you say, sir?" until the philologist became perfectly enraged. "I will not be put to the question!" roared he. "Don't you consider, sir, that these are not the manners of a gentleman? I will not be baited with *what* and *why*—What is this? What is that! Why is a cow's tail long? Why is a fox's tail bushy?" "Why, sir," replied pil-garlick, "you are so good that I venture to trouble you." "Sir," replied Johnson, "my being so good is no reason why you should be so ill." "You have but two topics, sir," exclaimed heon another occasion—"yourself and me, and I am sick of both."

Boswell's inveterate disposition to *toad* was a sore cause of mortification to his father, the old laird of Auchinleck (or Affleck). He had been annoyed by his extravagant devotion to Paoli, but then he was something of a military hero; but this tagging at the heels

of Dr. Johnson, whom he considered a kind of pedagogue, set his Scotch blood in a ferment. "There's nae hope for Jamie, mon," said he to a friend; "Jamie is gaen clean gyte. What do you think, mon? He's done wi' Paoli; he is off wi' the land-louping scoundrel of a Corsican; and whose tail do you think he has pinn'd himself to now, mon? A *dominie*, mon; an auld dominie: he keep'd a schule, and caud it an acadamy."

We shall show in the next chapter that Jamie's devotion to the dominie did not go unrewarded.

CHAP. XL.

Changes in the Literary Club—Johnson's objection to Garrick—Election of Boswell.

The Literary Club (as we have termed the club in Gerard-street, though it took that name some time later) had now been in existence several years. Johnson was exceedingly chary at first of its exclusiveness and opposed to its being augmented in number. Not long after its institution Sir Joshua Reynolds was speaking of it to Garrick. "I like it much," said little David, briskly; "I think I shall be of you." When Sir Joshua mentioned this to Dr. Johnson, says Boswell, "he was much displeased with the actor's conceit. '*He'll be of us!*' growled he; 'How does he know we will permit him? The first duke in England has no right to hold such language.'"

When Sir John Hawkins spoke favourably of Garrick's pretensions, "Sir," replied Johnson, "he will disturb us by his buffoonery." In the same spirit, he declared to Mr. Thrale that if Garrick should apply for admission he would black-ball him. "Who, sir?" exclaimed Thrale, with surprise; "Mr. Garrick—your friend, your companion—black-ball him!" "Why, sir," replied Johnson, "I love my little David dearly—better than all or any of his flatterers, do; but surely one ought to sit in a society like ours,

Unelbow'd by a gamester, pimp, or player."

The exclusion from the club was a sore mortification to Garrick, though he bore it without complaining. He could not help continually to ask questions about it—what was going on there?—whether he was ever the subject of conversation? By degrees the rigour of the club relaxed; some of the members grew negligent. Beauclerc lost his right of membership by neglecting to attend. On his marriage, however, with Lady Diana Spencer, daughter of the Duke of Marlborough, and recently divorced from Viscount Bolingbroke, he had claimed and regained his seat in the club. The number of members had likewise been augmented. The proposition to increase it originated with Goldsmith. "It would give," he thought, "an agreeable variety to their meetings: for there can be nothing new amongst us," said he; "we have travelled over each other's mind." Johnson was piqued at the suggestion. "Sir," said he, "you have not travelled over my mind, I promise you." Sir Joshua, less confident in the exhaustless fecundity of his mind, felt and acknowledged the force of Goldsmith's suggestion. Several new members, therefore, had been added; the first, to his great joy, was David Garrick. Goldsmith, who was now on cordial terms with him, had zealously promoted his election, and Johnson had given it his warm approbation. Another new member was Beauclerc's friend, Lord Charlemont; and a still more important one was Mr. (afterwards Sir William) Jones, the famous Orientalist, at that time a young lawyer of the Temple and a distinguished scholar.

To the great astonishment of the club, Johnson now proposed his devoted follower, Boswell, as a member. He did it in a note addressed to Goldsmith, who pre-

CHAP. XLI.

sided on the evening of the 23rd of April. The nomination was seconded by Beauclerc. According to the rules of the club, the ballot would take place at the next meeting (on the 30th); there was an intervening week, therefore, in which to discuss the pretensions of the candidate. We may easily imagine the discussions that took place. Boswell had made himself absurd in such a variety of ways, that the very idea of his admission was exceedingly irksome to some of the members. "The honour of being elected into the Turk's Head Club," said the Bishop of St. Asaph, "is not inferior to that of being representative of Westminster and Surrey;" what had Boswell done to merit such an honour? What chance had he of gaining it? The answer was simple: he had been a persevering worshiper, if not sycophant, of Johnson. The great lexicographer had a heart to be won by apparent affection; he stood forth authoritatively in support of his vassal. If asked to state the merits of the candidate, he summed them up in an indefinite but comprehensive word of his own coining: he was *dubable*. He, moreover, gave insignificant hints, that if Boswell were kept out he should oppose the admission of any other candidate. No further opposition was made; in fact, none of the members had been so fastidious and exclusive in regard to the club as Johnson himself; and if he were pleased, they were easily satisfied: besides, they knew that, with all his faults, Boswell was a cheerful companion, and possessed lively social qualities.

On Friday, when the ballot was to take place, Beauclerc gave a dinner at his house in the Adelphi, where Boswell met several of the members who were favourable to his election. After dinner Beauclerc adjourned to the club, leaving Boswell in company with Lady Di Beauclerc until the fate of his election should be known. He sat, he says, in a state of anxiety, which even the charming conversation of Lady Di could not entirely dissipate. It was not long before tidings were brought of his election, and he was conducted to the place of meeting, where, besides the company he had met at dinner, Burke, Dr. Nugent, Garrick, Goldsmith, and Mr. William Jones were waiting to receive him. The club, notwithstanding all its learned dignity in the eyes of the world, could at times "unbend and play the fool" as well as less important bodies. Some of its jocose conversations have at times leaked out, and a society in which Goldsmith could venture to sing his song of "An Old Woman Tossed in a Blanket" could not be so very staid in its gravity. We may suppose, therefore, the jokes that had been passing among the members while awaiting the arrival of Boswell. Beauclerc himself could not have repressed his disposition for a sarcastic pleasantry. At least we have a right to presume all this from the conduct of Dr. Johnson himself.

With all his gravity he possessed a deep fund of quiet humour, and felt a kind of whimsical responsibility to protect the club from the absurd propensities of the very questionable associate he had thus inflicted on them. Rising, therefore, as Boswell entered, he advanced with a very docterial air, placed himself behind a chair, on which he leaned as on a desk or pulpit, and then delivered, *ex cathedra*, a mock solemn charge, pointing out the conduct expected from him as a good member of the club; what he was to do, and especially what he was to avoid; including in the latter, no doubt, all those petty, prying, questioning, gossiping, babbling habits which had so often grieved the spirit of the lexicographer. It is to be regretted that Boswell has never thought proper to note down the particulars of this charge, which, from the well known characters and positions of the parties, might have furnished a parallel to the noted charge of Launcelot Gobbo to his dog.

Dinner at Dilly's—Conversations on natural history—Intermeddling of Boswell—Dispute about toleration—Johnson's rebuff to Goldsmith—His apology—Man-worship—Doctors Major and Minor—A farewell visit

A few days after the serio-comic scene of the elevation of Boswell into the Literary Club, we find that indefatigable biographer giving particulars of a dinner at the Dillys, booksellers in the Poultry, at which he met Goldsmith and Johnson, with several other literary characters. His anecdotes of the conversation of course go to glorify Dr. Johnson; for, as he observes in his biography, "his conversation alone, or what led to it, or was interwoven with it, is the business of this work." Still, on the present, as on other occasions, he gives unintentional and perhaps unavoidable gleams of Goldsmith's good sense, which show that the latter only wanted a less prejudiced and more impartial reporter, to put down the charge of colloquial incapacity so unjustly fixed upon him. The conversation turned upon the natural history of birds—a beautiful subject, on which the poet, from his recent studies, his habits of observation, and his natural tastes, must have talked with instruction and feeling; yet, though we have much of what Johnson said, we have only a casual remark or two of Goldsmith. One was on the migration of swallows, which he pronounced partial; "the stronger ones," said he "migrate, the others do not."

Johnson denied the brute creation the faculty of reason. "Birds," said he, "build by instinct; they never improve; they build their first nest as well as any one they ever build." "Yet we see," observed Goldsmith, "if you take away a bird's nest with the eggs in it, she will make a slighter nest and lay again." "Sir," replied Johnson, "that is because at first she has full time, and makes her nest deliberately. In the case you mention, she is pressed to lay, and must, therefore, make her nest quickly, and consequently it will be slight." "The nidification of birds," rejoined Goldsmith, "is what is least known in natural history, though one of the most curious things in it." While conversation was going on in this placid, agreeable, and instructive manner, the eternal meddler and busy-body, Boswell, must intrude to put it in a brawl. The Dillys were dissenters; two of their guests were dissenting clergymen; another, Mr. Toplady, was a clergyman of the established church. Johnson himself was a zealous, uncompromising churchman. None but a Marplot like Boswell would have thought, on such an occasion and in such company, to broach the subject of religious toleration; but, as has been well observed, "it was his perverse inclination to introduce subjects that he hoped would produce difference and debate." In the present instance he gained his point. An animated dispute immediately arose, in which according to Boswell's report, Johnson monopolised the greater part of the conversation, not always treating the dissenting clergymen with the greatest courtesy, and even once wounding the feelings of the mild and amiable Bennet Langton by his harshness.

Goldsmith mingled a little in the dispute, and with some advantage, but was cut short by flat contradiction when most in the right. He sat for a time silent but impatient under such overbearing dogmatism, though Boswell, with his usual misinterpretation, attributes his "restless agitation" to a wish *to get in and shine*. "Finding himself excluded," continues Boswell, "he had taken his hat to go away, but remained for a time with it in his hand, like a gamester, who, at the end of a long night, lingers for a little while to see if he can have a favourable opportunity to finish with success." Once he was beginning to speak, when he was overpowered by the loud voice of Johnson, who was at the opposite end of the table, and did not perceive his attempt; whereupon he threw down, as it were, his hat and his

argument, and, darting an angry glance at Johnson, exclaimed in a bitter tone, "*Take it.*"

Just then one of the disputants was beginning to speak, when Johnson, uttering some sound as if about to interrupt him, Goldsmith, according to Boswell, seized the opportunity to vent his own *envy and spleen*, under pretext of supporting another person. "Sir," said he to Johnson, "the gentleman has heard you patiently for an hour; pray allow us now to hear him." It was a reproof in the lexicographer's own style, and he may have felt that he merited it; but he was not accustomed to be reproofed. "Sir," said he sternly, "I was not interrupting the gentleman; I was only giving him a signal of my attention. Sir, *you are impertinent.*" Goldsmith made no reply, but after some time went away, having another engagement.

That evening, as Boswell was on the way with Johnson and Langton to the club, he seized the occasion to make some disparaging remarks on Goldsmith, which he thought would just then be acceptable to the great lexicographer. "It was a pity," he said, "that Goldsmith would on every occasion endeavour to shine, by which he so often exposed himself." Langton contrasted him with Addison, who, content with the fame of his writings, acknowledged himself unfit for conversation; and, on being taxed by a lady with silence in company, replied, "Madam, I have but ninepence in ready money, but I can draw for a thousand pounds." To this Boswell rejoined, that Goldsmith had a great deal of gold in his cabinet, but was always taking out his purse. "Yes, sir," chuckled Johnson, "and that so often an empty purse."

By the time Johnson arrived at the club, however, his angry feelings had subsided, and his native generosity and sense of justice had got the uppermost. He found Goldsmith in company with Burke, Garrick, and other members, but sitting silent and apart, "brooding," as Boswell says, "over the reprimand he had received." Johnson's good heart yearned towards him; and knowing his placable nature, "I'll make Goldsmith forgive me," whispered he; then, with a loud voice, "Dr. Goldsmith," said he "something passed to-day where you and I dined—I ask your pardon." The ire of the poet was extinguished in an instant, and his grateful affection for the magnanimous though sometimes overbearing moralist rushed to his heart. "It must be much from you, sir," said he, "that I take ill!" "And so," adds Boswell, "the difference was over, and they were on as easy terms as ever, and Goldsmith rattled away as usual." We do not think these stories tell to the poet's disadvantage, even though related by Boswell.

Goldsmith, with all his modesty, could not be ignorant of his proper merit; and must have felt annoyed at times at being undervalued and elbowed aside by light-minded or dull men, in their blind and exclusive homage to the literary autocrat. It was a fine reproof he gave to Boswell on one occasion, for talking of Johnson as entitled to the honour of exclusive superiority: "Sir, you are for making a monarchy what should be a republic." On another occasion, when he was conversing in company with great vivacity, and apparently to the satisfaction of those around him, an honest Swiss who sat near, one George Michael Moser, keeper of the Royal Academy, perceiving Dr. Johnson rolling himself as if about to speak, exclaimed, "Stay, stay! Doctor Shonson is going to say something." "And are you sure, sir," replied Goldsmith, sharply, "that *you* can comprehend what he says?"

This clever rebuke, which gave the main zest to the anecdote, is omitted by Boswell, who probably did not perceive the point of it.

He relates another anecdote of this kind, on the authority of Johnson himself. The latter and Goldsmith were one evening in company with the Rev. George Graham, a master of Eton, who, notwithstanding the

sobriety of his cloth, had got intoxicated "to a pitch of looking at one man and talking to another." "Doctor," cried he, in an ecstasy of devotion and good will, but goggling by mistake upon Goldsmith, "I should be glad to see you at Eton." "I shall be glad to wait upon you," replied Goldsmith. "No, no!" cried the other eagerly; "'tis not you I mean, Doctor *Minor*, 'tis Doctor *Major* there!" "You may easily conceive," said Johnson, in relating the anecdote, "what effect this had upon Goldsmith, who was irascible as a hornet." The only comment, however, which he is said to have made, partakes more of quaint and dry humour than bitterness; "that Graham," said he, "is enough to make one commit suicide." What more could be said to tolerate the nuisance of a consummate bore?

We have now given the last scenes between Goldsmith and Johnson which stand recorded by Boswell. The latter called on the poet a few days after the dinner at Dilly's to take leave of him prior to departing for Scotland; yet, even in this last interview, he contrives to get up a charge of "jealousy and envy." Goldsmith, he would fain persuade us, is very angry that Johnson is going to travel with him in Scotland; and endeavours to persuade him that he will be a dead weight "to lug along through the Highlands and Hebrides." Any one else, knowing the character and habits of Johnson, would have thought the same; and no one but Boswell would have supposed his office of bear-leader to the *ursa-major* a thing to be envied.*

CHAP. XLII.

Project of a "Dictionary of Arts and Sciences"—Disappointment—Negligent authorship—Application for a pension—Beattie's "Essay on Truth"—Public adulation—A high-minded rebuke.

The works which Goldsmith had still in hand being already paid for, and the money gone, some new scheme must be devised to provide for the past and the future—for impending debts, which threatened to crush him, and expenses which were continually increasing. He now projected a work of greater compass than any he had yet undertaken—a "Dictionary of Arts and Sciences" on a comprehensive scale, which was to occupy a number of volumes. For this he received promises of assistance from several powerful hands. Johnson was to contribute an article on ethics; Burke, an abstract of his *Essay on the Sublime and the Beautiful*, an essay on the Berkeleyan system of philosophy, and others on political science; Sir Joshua Reynolds, an essay on painting; and Garrick, while he undertook on his own part to furnish an essay on acting, engaged Dr. Burney to contribute an article on music. Here was a great array of talent positively engaged, while other writers of eminence were to be sought for the various departments of science, Goldsmith was to edit the whole.

* One of Peter Pindar's (Dr. Wolcot) most amusing "*jeux d'esprit*" is his congratulatory epistle to Boswell on this tour, of which we subjoin a few lines:—

"O Boswell, Bozzy, Bruce, whate'er thy name,
Thou mighty shark for anecdote and fame;
Thou jackal, leading lion Johnson forth,
To eat M^r Pherson 'midst his native north;
To frighten grave professors with his roar,
And shake the Hebrides from shore to shore.

Bless'd be thy labours, most adventurous Bozzy,
Bold rival of Sir John and Dame Piozzi;
Heavens! with what laurels shall thy head be crown'd!
A grove, a forest, shall thy ears surround!
Yes! whilst the Rambler shall a comet blaze,
And gild a world of darkness with his rays,
Thee, too, that world with wonderment shall hail,
A lively bouncing cracker at his tail!"

An undertaking of this kind, while it did not incessantly task and exhaust his inventive powers by original composition, would give agreeable and profitable exercise to his taste and judgment in selecting, compiling, and arranging, and be calculated to diffuse over the whole the acknowledged grace of his style.

He drew up a prospectus of the plan, which is said by Bishop Percy, who saw it, to have been written with uncommon ability, and to have had that perspicuity and elegance for which his writings are remarkable. This paper, unfortunately, is no longer in existence.

Goldsmith's expectations, always sanguine respecting any new plan, were raised to an extraordinary height by the present project; and well they might be, when we consider the powerful coadjutors already pledged. They were doomed, however, to complete disappointment. Davies, the bibliophile of Russell-street, lets us into the secret of this failure. "The booksellers," said he, "notwithstanding they had a very good opinion of his abilities, yet were startled at the bulk, importance, and expense of so great an undertaking, the fate of which was to depend on the industry of a man, with whose indulgence of temper and method of procrastination they had long been acquainted."

Goldsmith certainly gave reason for some such distrust by the heedlessness with which he conducted his literary undertakings. Those unfinished, but paid for, would be suspended, to make way for some job that was to provide for present necessities. Those thus hastily taken up would be as hastily executed, and the whole, however pressing, would be shoved aside and left "at loose ends," on some sudden call to social enjoyment or recreation.

Cradock tells us that on one occasion, when Goldsmith was hard at work on his Natural History, he sent to Dr. Percy and himself, entreating them to finish some pages of his work which lay upon his table, and for which the press was urgent, he being detained by other engagements at Windsor. They met by appointment at his chambers in the Temple, where they found everything in disorder, and costly books lying scattered about on the table and on the floor; many of the books on natural history, which he had recently consulted, lay open among uncorrected proof-sheets. The subject in hand, and from which he had suddenly broken off, related to birds. "Do you know anything about birds?" asked Dr. Percy, smiling. "Not an atom," replied Cradock; "do you?" "Not I! I scarcely know a goose from a swan: however, let us try what we can do." They set to work and completed their friendly task. Goldsmith, however, when he came to revise it, made such alterations that they could neither of them recognise their own share. The engagement at Windsor, which had thus caused Goldsmith to break off suddenly from his multifarious engagements, was a party of pleasure with some literary ladies. Another anecdote was current, illustrative of the carelessness with which he executed works requiring accuracy and research. On the 22nd of June he had received payment in advance for a Grecian History in two volumes, though only one was finished. As he was pushing on doggedly at the second, Gibbon the historian called in. "You are the man of all others I wish to see," cried the poet, glad to be saved the trouble of reference to his books. "What was the name of that Indian king who gave Alexander the Great so much trouble?" "Montezuma," replied Gibbon, sportively. The heedless author was about committing the name to paper without reference, when Gibbon pretended to recollect himself, and gave the true name, Porus.

This story, very probably, was a sportive exaggeration; but it was a multiplicity of anecdotes like this and the preceding one, some true and some false, which had impaired the confidence of booksellers in Goldsmith as a man to be relied on for a task requiring wide and

accurate research, and close and long-continued application. The project of the Universal Dictionary, therefore, met with no encouragement, and fell through.

The failure of this scheme, on which he had built such spacious hopes, sank deep into Goldsmith's heart. He was still further grieved and mortified by the failure of an effort made by some of his friends to obtain for him a pension from government. There had been a talk of the disposition of the ministry to extend the bounty of the crown to distinguished literary men in pecuniary difficulty, without regard to their political creed: when the merits and claims of Goldsmith, however, were laid before them, they met no favour. The sin of sturdy independence lay at his door. He had refused to become a ministerial hack when offered a *carte blanche* by Parson Scott, the cabinet emissary. The wandering parson had left him in poverty and "his garret," and there the ministry were disposed to suffer him to remain.

In the meantime Dr. Beattie came out with his Essay on Truth, and all the orthodox world are thrown into a paroxysm of contagious ecstacy. He is cried up as the great champion of Christianity against the attacks of modern philosophers and infidels; he is fêted and flattered in every way. He receives at Oxford the honorary degree of doctor of civil law at the same time with Sir Joshua Reynolds. The king sends for him, praises his Essay, and gives him a pension of two hundred pounds.

Goldsmith feels more acutely the denial of a pension to himself, when one has thus been given unsolicited to a man he might without vanity consider so much his inferior. He was not one to conceal his feelings. "Here's such a stir," said he one day at Thrale's table, "about a fellow that has written one book, and I have written so many."

"Ah, Doctor!" exclaimed Johnson, in one of his caustic moods, "there go two and forty sixpences, you know, to one guinea." This is one of the cuts at poor Goldsmith in which Johnson went contrary to head and heart in his love for saying what is called a "good thing." No one knew better than himself the comparative superiority of the writings of Goldsmith; but the jingle of the sixpences and the guinea was not to be resisted.

"Everybody," exclaimed Mrs. Thrale, "loves Dr. Beattie but Goldsmith, who says he cannot bear the sight of so much applause as they all bestow upon him. Did he not tell us so himself, no one would believe he was so exceedingly ill-natured."

He told them so himself because he was too open and unreserved to disguise his feelings, and because he really considered the praise lavished on Beattie extravagant, as in fact it was. It was all, of course, set down to sheer envy and uncharitableness. To add to his annoyance, he found his friend Sir Joshua Reynolds joining in the universal adulation. He had painted a full length portrait of Beattie, decked in the doctor's robes in which he had figured at Oxford, with the "Essay on Truth" under his arm, and the angel of truth at his side, while Voltaire figured as one of the demons of infidelity, sophistry, and falsehood, driven into utter darkness.

Goldsmith had known Voltaire in early life; he had been his admirer and his biographer; he grieved to find him receiving such an insult from the classic pencil of his friend. "It is unworthy of you," said he to Sir Joshua, "to debase so high a genius as Voltaire before so mean a writer as Beattie. Beattie and his book will be forgotten in ten years, while Voltaire's fame will last for ever. Take care it does not perpetuate this picture to the shame of such a man as you." This noble and high-minded rebuke is the only instance on record of any reproachful words between the poet and the painter: and we are happy to find that it did not destroy the harmony of their intercourse.

CHAP. XLIII

Toil without hope—The poet in the green-room—In the flower-garden—At Vauxhall—Dissipation without gaiety—Cradock in town—Friendly sympathy—A parting scene—An invitation to pleasure.

Thwarted in the plans and disappointed in the hopes which had recently cheered and animated him, Goldsmith found the labour at his half-finished tasks doubly irksome, from the consciousness that the completion of them could not relieve him from his pecuniary embarrassments. His impaired health, also, rendered him less capable than formerly of sedentary application, and continual perplexities disturbed the flow of thought necessary for original composition. He lost his usual gaiety and good humour, and became at times peevish and irritable. Too proud of spirit to seek sympathy or relief from his friends for the pecuniary difficulties he had brought upon himself by his errors and extravagance, and unwilling, perhaps, to make known their amount, he buried his cares and anxieties in his own bosom, and endeavoured in company to keep up his usual air of gaiety and unconcern. This gave his conduct an appearance of fitfulness and caprice, varying suddenly from moodiness to mirth, and from silent gravity to shallow laughter; causing surprise and ridicule in those who were not aware of the sickness of heart which lay beneath.

His poetical reputation, too, was sometimes a disadvantage to him; it drew upon him a notoriety which he was not always in the mood or the vein to act up to. "Good heavens! Mr. Foote" exclaimed an actress at the Haymarket Theatre, "what a humdrum kind of a man Dr. Goldsmith appears in our green-room, compared with the figure he makes in his poetry!" "The reason of that, madam," replied Foote, "is because the muses are better company than the players." Beauclerc's letters to his friend, Lord Charlemont, who was absent in Ireland, give us now and then an indication of the whereabouts of the poet during the present year. "I have been but once to the club since you left England," writes he; "we were entertained, as usual, with Goldsmith's absurdity." With Beauclerc everything was absurd that was not polished and pointed. In another letter he threatens, unless Lord Charlemont returns to England, to bring over the whole club, and let them loose upon him to drive him home by their peculiar habits of annoyance—Johnson shall spoil his books; Goldsmith shall *pull his flowers*; and last, and most intolerable of all, Boswell shall—talk to him. It would appear that the poet, who had a passion for flowers, was apt to pass much of his time in the garden when on a visit to a country seat, much to the detriment of the flower-beds and the despair of the gardener.

The summer wore heavily away with Goldsmith. He had not his usual solace of a country retreat; his health was impaired and his spirits depressed. Sir Joshua Reynolds, who perceived the state of his mind, kindly gave him much of his company. In the course of their interchange of thought, Goldsmith suggested to him the story of Ugolino as a subject for his pencil. The painting founded on it remains a memento of their friendship.

On the 4th of August we find them together at Vauxhall! at that time a place in high vogue, and which had once been to Goldsmith a scene of oriental splendour and delight. We have, in fact, in the "Citizen of the World," a picture of it as it had struck him in former years and in his happier moods. "Upon entering the gardens," says the Chinese philosopher, "I found every one sense occupied with more than expected pleasure—the lights everywhere glimmering through the scarcely-moving trees—the full-bodied concert bursting on the stillness of the night—the natural concert of the birds in the more retired part of the grove vying with

that which was formed by art—the company, gaily dressed, looking satisfaction, and the tables spread with various delicacies, all conspired to fill my imagination with the visionary happiness of the Arabian lawgiver, and lifted me into an ecstasy of admiration."

Everything now, however, is seen with different eyes; with him it is dissipation without pleasure; and he finds it impossible any longer, by mingling in the gay and giddy throng of apparently prosperous and happy beings, to escape from the carking care which is clinging to his heart.

His kind friend Cradock came up to town towards autumn, when all the fashionable world was in the country, to give his wife the benefit of a skilful dentist. He took lodgings in Norfolk-street, to be in Goldsmith's neighbourhood, and passed most of his mornings with him. "I found him," he says, "much altered, and at times very low. He wished me to look over and revise some of his works; but with a select friend or two, I was more pressing that he should publish by subscription his two celebrated poems of the 'Traveller' and the 'Deserted Village,' with notes." The idea of Cradock was, that the subscription would enable wealthy persons favourable to Goldsmith to contribute to his pecuniary relief without wounding his pride. "Goldsmith," said, he, "readily gave up to me his private copies, and said 'Pray do what you please with them.' But whilst he sat near me, he rather submitted to than encouraged my zealous proceedings.

"I one morning called upon him, however, and found him infinitely better than I had expected; and, in a kind of exulting style, he exclaimed, 'Here are some of the best of my prose writings; I have been hard at work since midnight, and desire you to examine them.' 'These,' said I, 'are excellent indeed.' 'They are,' replied he, 'intended as an introduction to a body of arts and sciences.'

Poor Goldsmith was, in fact, gathering together the fragments of his shipwreck—the notes and essays, and memoranda collected for his Dictionary—and proposed to found on them a work in two volumes, to be entitled "A Survey of Experimental Philosophy."

The plan of the subscription came to nothing, and the projected "Survey" never was executed. The head might yet devise, but the heart was failing him; his talent at hoping, which gave him buoyancy to carry out his enterprises, was almost at an end.

Cradock's farewell scene with him is told in a simple but touching manner.

"The day before I was to set out for Leicestershire I insisted upon his dining with us. He replied, I will, but on one condition, that you will not ask me to eat anything.' 'Nay,' said I, 'this answer is absolutely unkind, for I had hoped, as we are supplied from the Crown and Anchor, that you would have named something you might have relished.' 'Well,' was the reply, 'if you will but explain it to Mrs. Cradock, I will certainly wait upon you.'

"The doctor found, as usual at my apartments, newspapers and pamphlets, and with a pen and ink he amused himself as well as he could. I had ordered from the tavern some fish, a roasted joint of lamb, and a tart; and the doctor either sat down or walked about, just as he pleased. After dinner he took some wine with biscuits; but I was obliged soon to leave him for awhile, as I had matters to settle prior to my next day's journey. On my return coffee was ready, and the doctor appeared more cheerful (for Mrs. Cradock was always rather a favourite with him), and in the evening he endeavoured to talk and remark as usual, but all was force. He stayed till midnight, and I insisted on seeing him safe home, and we most cordially shook hands at the Temple gate." Cradock little thought this was to be their final parting. He looked back to it with mournful recollections in after years, and lamented that

he had not remained longer in town, at every inconvenience, to solace the poor broken-spirited poet.

The latter continued in town all the autumn. At the opening of the Opera House, on the 20th of November, Mrs. Yates, an actress whom he held in great esteem, delivered a poetical exordium of his composition. Beauclerc, in a letter to Lord Charlemont, pronounced it very good, and predicted that it would soon be in all the papers. It does not appear, however, to have been ever published. In his fitful state of mind Goldsmith may have taken no care about it, and thus it has been lost to the world, although it was received with great applause by a crowded and brilliant audience.

A gleam of sunshine breaks through the gloom that was gathering over the poet. Towards the end of the year he receives another Christmas invitation to Barton. A country Christmas! with all the cordiality of the fireside circle, and the joyous revelry of the oaken hall—what a contrast to the loneliness of a bachelor's chambers in the Temple! It is not to be resisted. But how is poor Goldsmith to raise the ways and means? His purse is empty; his booksellers are already in advance to him. As a last resource, he applies to Garrick. Their mutual intimacy at Barton may have suggested him as an alternative. The old loan of forty pounds has never been paid; and Newbery's note, pledged as a security, has never been taken up. An additional loan of sixty pounds is now asked for, thus increasing the loan to one hundred; to insure the payment, he now offers, besides Newbery's note, the transfer of the comedy of the "Good-natured Man" to Drury Lane, with such alterations as Garrick may suggest. Garrick, in reply, evades the offer of the altered comedy, alludes significantly to a new one which Goldsmith had talked of writing for him, and offers to furnish the money required on his own acceptance.

The reply of Goldsmith bespeaks a heart brimful of gratitude, and overflowing with fond anticipations of Barton and the smiles of its fair residents. "My dear friend," writes he, "I thank you. I wish I could do something to serve you. I shall have a comedy for you in a season or two at the farthest, that I believe will be worth your acceptance, for I fancy I will make it a fine thing. You shall have the refusal. * * * I will draw upon you one month after date for sixty pounds, and your acceptance will be ready money, *part of which I want to go down to Barton with*. May God preserve my honest little man, for he has my heart.—Ever,

"OLIVER GOLDSMITH."

And having thus scrambled together a little pocket money by hard contrivance, poor Goldsmith turns his back upon care and trouble, and Temple quarters, to forget for a time his desolate bachelorhood in the family circle and a Christmas fireside at Barton.

CHAP. XLIV.

A return to drudgery—Forced gaiety—Retreat to the country—The poem of "Retaliation"—Portrait of Garrick—of Goldsmith—of Reynolds—Illness of the Poet—His death—Grief of his friends—A last word respecting the Jessamy Bride.

The Barton festivities are over; Christmas, with all its home-felt revelry of the heart, has passed like a dream; the Jessamy Bride has beamed her last smile upon the poor poet, and the early part of 1774 finds him in his now dreary bachelor abode in the Temple, toiling fitfully and hopelessly at a multiplicity of tasks. His "Animated Nature," so long delayed, so often interrupted, is at length announced for publication, though it has yet to receive a few finishing touches. He is preparing a third "History of England," to be compressed and condensed in one volume for the use of schools. He is revising his "Inquiry into Polite Learning," for

which he receives the pittance of five guineas, much needed in his present scantiness of purse; he is arranging his "Survey of Experimental Philosophy," and he is translating the "Comic Romance of Scarron." Such is a part of the various labours of a drudging, depressing kind, by which his head is made wrong and his heart faint. "If there is a mental drudgery," says Sir Walter Scott, "which lowers the spirits and lacerates the nerves, like the toil of a slave, it is that which is exacted by literary composition when the head is employed. Add to the unhappy author's task sickness, sorrow, or the pressure of unfavourable circumstances, and the labour of the bondsman becomes light in comparison." Goldsmith again makes an effort to rally his spirits by going into gay society. "Our Club," writes Beauclerc to Charlemont, on the 12th of February, "has dwindled away to nothing. Sir Joshua and Goldsmith have got into such a round of pleasure that they have no time." This shows how little Beauclerc was the companion of the poet's mind, or could judge of him below the surface. Reynolds, the kind participator in joyless dissipation, could have told a different story of his companion's heart-sick gaiety.

In this forced mood Goldsmith gave entertainments in his chambers in the Temple, the last of which was a dinner to Johnson, Reynolds, and others of his intimates, who partook with sorrow and reluctance of his imprudent hospitality. The first course vexed them by its needless profusion. When a second, equally extravagant, was served up, Johnson and Reynolds declined to partake of it; and the rest of the company, understanding their motives, followed their example, and the dishes went from the table untasted. Goldsmith felt sensibly this silent and well-intended rebuke.

The quietude of society, however, cannot medicine for any length of time a mind diseased. Wearied by the distractions and harassed by the expenses of a town life, which he had not the discretion to regulate, Goldsmith took the resolution, too tardily adopted, of retiring to the serene, quiet, and cheap and healthful pleasures of the country, and of passing only two months of the year in London. He accordingly made arrangements to sell his right in the Temple chambers, and in the month of March retired to his country quarters at Hyde, there to devote himself to toil. At this dispiriting juncture, when inspiration seemed to be at an end, and the poetic fire extinguished, a spark fell on his combustible imagination and set it in a blaze.

He belonged to a temporary association of men of talent, some of them members of the Literary Club, who dined together occasionally at the St. James's Coffee-house. At these dinners, as usual, he was one of the last to arrive. On one occasion, when he was more dilatory than usual, a whim seized the company to write epitaphs on him, as "The late Dr. Goldsmith," and several were thrown off in a playful vein, hitting off his peculiarities. The only one extant was written by Garrick, and has been preserved, very probably, from its pungency:—

Here lies poor Goldsmith, for shortness call'd Noll,
Who wrote like an angel, but talk'd like poor poll.

Goldsmith did not relish the sarcasm, especially as coming from such a quarter. He was not very ready at repartee; but he took his time, and in the interval of his various tasks, concocted a series of epigrammatic sketches, under the title of "Retaliation," in which the characters of his distinguished intimates were admirably hit off, with a mixture of generous praise and good-humoured raillery. In fact, the poem—for its graphic truth, its nice discrimination, its terse good sense, and its shrewd knowledge of the world—must have electrified the club almost as much as the first appearance of "The Traveller," and let them still deeper into the character and talents of the man they had been accustomed to consider as their butt. Retaliation, in a

word, closed his accounts with the club, and balanced all his previous deficiencies.

The portrait of David Garrick is one of the most elaborate in the poem. When the poet came to touch it off he had some lurking piques to gratify, which the recent attack had revived. He may have forgotten David's cavalier treatment of him in the early days of his comparative obscurity; he may have forgiven his refusal of his plays; but Garrick had been capricious in his conduct in the times of their recent intercourse, sometimes treating him with gross familiarity, at other times affecting dignity and reserve, and assuming airs of superiority; frequently he had been facetious and witty in company at his expense, and lastly, he had been guilty of the couplet just quoted. Goldsmith, therefore, touched off the lights and shadows of his character with a free hand and at the same time gave a side-hit at his old rival Kelly, and his critical persecutor Kenrick, in making them sycophantic satellites of the actor. Goldsmith, however, was void of gall even in his revenge, and his very satire was more humorous than caustic:—

Here lies David Garrick, describe him who can,
An abridgment of all that was pleasant in man;
As an actor confess'd without rival to shine;
As a wit, if not first, in the very first line;
Yet, with talents like these, and an excellent heart,
The man had his failings, a dupe to his art.
Like an ill-judging beauty, his colours he spread,
And bespatter'd with rouge his own natural red.
On the stage he was natural, simple, affecting;
'Twas only that when he was off he was acting.
With no reason on earth to go out of his way,
He turn'd and he varied full ten times a day;
Though secure of our hearts, yet confoundedly sick
If they were not his own by finessing and trick:
He cast off his friends as a huntsman his pack,
For he knew, when he pleased, he could whistle them back.
Of praise a mere glutton, he swallow'd what came,
And the puff of a dunce he mistook it for fame;
Till his relish, grown callous almost to disease,
Who pepper'd the highest was surest to please.
But let us be candid, and speak out our mind—
If dunces applauded, he paid them in kind.
Ye Kenricks, ye Kellys, and Woodfalls so grave,
What a commerce was yours, while you got and you gave!
How did Grub-street re-echo the shouts that you raised,
While he was be-Roscious'd and you were be-praised!
But peace to his spirit, wherever it flies,
To act as an angel and mix with the skies:
Those poets who owe their best fame to his skill,
Shall still be his flatterers, go where he will;
Old Shakespeare receive him with praise and with love,
And Beaumonts and Bens be his Kellys above.

This portion of "Retaliation" soon brought a retort from Garrick, which we insert as giving something of a likeness of Goldsmith, though in broad caricature:—

Here, Hermes, says Jove, who with nectar was mellow,
Go fetch me some clay—I will make an odd fellow:
Right and wrong shall be jumbled, much gold and some dross,
Without cause be he pleased, without cause be he cross;
Be sure, as I work, to throw in contradictions,
A great love of truth, yet a mind turn'd to fictions;
Now mix these ingredients, which, warn'd in the baking,
Turn'd to learning and gaming, religion and raking,
With the love of a wench, let his writings be chaste;
Tip his tongue with strange matter, his lips with fine taste;
That the rake and the poet o'er all may prevail,
Set fire to the head and set fire to the tail;
For the joy of each sex on the world I'll bestow it,
This scholar, rake, Christian, dupe, gamester, and poet.
Though a mixture so odd, he shall merit great fame,
And among brother mortals be Goldsmith his name:
When on earth this strange meteor no more shall appear,
You, Hermes, shall fetch him to make us sport here.

The charge of raking so repeatedly advanced in the foregoing lines must be considered a sportive one, founded, perhaps, on an incident or two within Garrick's knowledge, but not borne out by the course of Goldsmith's life. He seems to have had a tender sentiment for the sex, but perfectly free from libertinism. Neither

was he an habitual gamester. The strictest scrutiny has detected no settled vice of the kind. He was fond of a game of cards, but an unskilful and careless player. Cards in those days were universally introduced into society. High play was, in fact, a fashionable amusement, as at one time was deep drinking; and a man might occasionally lose large sums, and be beguiled into deep potations, without incurring the character of a gamester or a drunkard. Poor Goldsmith, on his advent into high society, assumed fine notions with fine clothes; he was thrown occasionally among high players, men of fortune, who could sport their cool hundreds as carelessly as his early comrades at Ballymahon could their half-crowns. Being at all times magnificent in money matters, he may have played with them in their own way, without considering that what was sport to them, to him was ruin. Indeed, part of his financial embarrassments may have arisen from losses of this kind, incurred inadvertently, not in the indulgence of a habit. "I do not believe Goldsmith to have deserved the name of gamester," said one of his contemporaries; "he liked cards very well, as other people do, and lost and won occasionally: but as far as I saw or heard, and I had many opportunities of hearing, never any considerable sum. If he gam'd with any one, it was probably with Beauclerc, but I do not know that such was the case."

"Retaliation," as we have already observed, was never completed. Some characters, originally intended to be introduced, remained unattempted; others were but partially sketched—such was the one of Reynolds, the friend of his heart, and which he commenced with a felicity which makes us regret that it should remain unfinished:—

Here Reynolds is laid, and to tell you my mind,
He has not left a wiser or better behind,
His pencil was striking, resistless, and grand;
His manners were gentle, complying, and bland;
Still born to improve us in every part,
His pencil our faces, his manners our heart.
To coxcombs averse, yet most civilly steering,
When they judg'd without skill he was still hard of hearing;
When they talk'd of their Raphaels, Corregios, and stuff,
He shifted his trumpet and only took snuff.
By flattery unspoil'd—

The friendly portrait stood unfinished on the easel; the hand of the artist had failed! An access of a local complaint, under which he had suffered for some time past, added to a general prostration of health, brought Goldsmith back to town before he had well settled himself in the country. The local complaint subsided, but was followed by a low nervous fever. He was not aware of his critical situation, and intended to be at the club on the 25th of March, on which occasion Charles Fox, Sir Charles Bunbury (one of the Horneck connexion), and two other new members were to be present. In the afternoon, however, he felt so unwell as to take to his bed, and his symptoms soon acquired sufficient force to keep him there. His malady fluctuated for several days, and hopes were entertained of his recovery, but they proved fallacious. He had skilful medical aid and faithful nursing; but he would not follow the advice of his physicians, and persisted in the use of James's powders, which he had once found beneficial, but which were now injurious to him. His appetite was gone, his strength failed him, but his mind remained clear, and was perhaps too active for his frame. Anxieties and disappointments, which had previously sapped his constitution, doubtless aggravated his present complaint and rendered him sleepless. In reply to an inquiry of his physician, he acknowledged that his mind was ill at ease. This was his last reply; he was too weak to talk, and in general took no notice of what was said to him. He sank at last into a deep sleep, and it was hoped a favourable crisis had arrived. He awoke, however, in strong convulsions, which continued without intermission until he expired, on the 4th

of April, 1774, at five o'clock in the morning, being in the forty-sixth year of his age.

His death was a shock to the literary world, and a deep affliction to a wide circle of intimates and friends; for, with all his foibles and peculiarities, he was fully as much beloved as he was admired. Burke, on hearing the news, burst into tears. Sir Joshua Reynolds threw by his pencil for the day, and grieved more than he had done in times of great family distress. "I was abroad at the time of his death," writes Dr. M'Donnell, the youth whom, when in distress, he had employed as an amanuensis, "and I wept bitterly when the intelligence first reached me. A blank came over my heart as if I had lost one of my nearest relatives, and was followed for some days by a feeling of despondency." Johnson felt the blow deeply and gloomily. In writing some time afterwards to Boswell, he observed, "Of poor Dr. Goldsmith there is little to be told more than the papers have made public. He died of a fever, made, I am afraid, more violent by uneasiness of mind. His debts began to be heavy, and all his resources were exhausted. Sir Joshua is of opinion that he owed no less than two thousand pounds. Was ever poet so trusted before?"

Among his debts were seventy-nine pounds due to his tailor, Mr. William Filby, from whom he had received a new suit but a few days before his death. "My father," said the younger Filby, "though a loser to that amount, attributed no blame to Goldsmith; he had been a good customer, and, had he lived, would have paid every farthing." Others of his tradespeople evinced the same confidence in his integrity, notwithstanding his heedlessness. Two sister milliners in Temple-lane, who had been accustomed to deal with him, were concerned when told, some time before his death, of his pecuniary embarrassments. "Oh, sir," said they to Mr. Cradock, "sooner persuade him to let us work for him gratis than apply to any other; we are sure he will pay us when he can."

On the stairs of his apartment there was the lamentation of the old and infirm and the sobbing of women, poor objects of his charity, to whom he had never turned a deaf ear, even when struggling himself with poverty.

But there was one mourner, whose enthusiasm for his memory, could it have been foreseen, might have soothed the bitterness of death. After the coffin had been screwed down, a lock of his hair was requested for a lady, a particular friend, who wished to preserve it as a remembrance. It was the beautiful Mary Horneck—the Jessamy Bride. The coffin was opened again, and a lock of hair cut off; which she treasured to her dying day. Poor Goldsmith! could he have foreseen that such a memorial of him was to be thus cherished!

One word more concerning this lady, to whom we have so often ventured to advert. She survived almost to the present day. Hazlitt met her at Northcote's painting-room, about twenty years since, as Mrs. Gwyn, the widow of a General Gwyn of the army. She was at that time upwards of seventy years of age. Still, he said, she was beautiful, beautiful even in years. After she was gone, Hazlitt remarked how handsome she still was. "I do not know," said Northcote, "why she is so kind as to come and see me, except that I am the last link in the chain that connects her with all those she most esteemed when young—Johnson, Reynolds, Goldsmith—and remind her of the most delightful period of her life." "Not only so," observed Hazlitt, "but you remember what she was at twenty; and you thus bring back to her the triumphs of her youth—that pride of beauty, which must be the more fondly cherished as it has no external vouchers, and lives chiefly in the bosom of its once lovely possessor. In her, however, the Graces had triumphed over time; she was one of Ninon de l'Enclos's people, of the last of the immortals. I

could almost fancy the shade of Goldsmith in the room, looking round with complacency."

The Jessamy Bride survived her sister upwards of forty years, and died in 1840, within a few days of completing her eighty-eighth year. "She had gone through all the stages of life," says Northcote, "and had lent a grace to each." However gaily she may have sported with the half-concealed admiration of the poor awkward poet in the heyday of her youth and beauty, and however much it may have been made a subject of teasing by her youthful companions, she evidently prided herself in after years upon having been an object of his affectionate regard; it certainly rendered her interesting throughout life in the eyes of his admirers, and has hung a poetical wreath above her grave.

CHAP. XLV.

The funeral—The monument—The epitaph—Concluding remarks.

In the warm feeling of the moment, while the remains of the poet were scarce cold, it was determined by his friends to honour them by a public funeral and a tomb in Westminster Abbey. His very pall-bearers were designated:—Lord Shelburne, Lord Lowth, Sir Joshua Reynolds, the Hon. Mr. Beauchamp, Mr. Burke, and David Garrick. This feeling cooled down, however, when it was discovered that he died in debt, and had not left wherewithal to pay for such expensive obsequies. Five days after his death, therefore, at five o'clock on Saturday evening, the 9th of April, he was privately interred in the burying-ground of the Temple Church; a few persons attending as mourners, among whom we do not find specified any of his peculiar and distinguished friends. The chief mourner was Sir Joshua Reynolds's nephew, Palmer, afterwards Dean of Cashel. One person, however, from whom it was but little to be expected, attended the funeral and evinced real sorrow on the occasion. This was Hugh Kelly, once the dramatic rival of the deceased, and often, it is said, his anonymous assailant in the newspapers. If he had really been guilty of this basest of literary offences, he was punished by the stings of remorse, for we are told that he shed bitter tears over the grave of the man he had injured. His tardy atonement only provoked the lash of some unknown satirist, as the following lines show:—

Hence Kelly, who years, without honour or shame,
Had been sticking his bodkin in Oliver's fame,
Who thought, like the Tartar, by this to inherit
His genius, his learning, simplicity, spirit;
Now sets every feature to weep o'er his fate,
And acts as a mourner to blubber in state.

One base wretch deserves to be mentioned, the reptile Kenrick, who, after having repeatedly slandered Goldsmith while living, had the audacity to insult his memory when dead. The following distich is sufficient to show his malignancy, and to hold him up to execration:—

By his own art, who justly died,
A blund'ring, artless, suicide;
Share, earthworms, share, since now he's dead,
His megrim, maggot-bitten head.

This scurrilous epitaph produced a burst of public indignation, that awed for a time even the infamous Kenrick into silence. On the other hand, the press teemed with tributes in verse and prose to the memory of the deceased; all evincing the mingled feeling of admiration for the author and affection for the man.

Not long after his death the Literary Club set on foot a subscription, and raised a fund to erect a monument to his memory in Westminster Abbey. It was executed by Nollekens, and consisted simply of a bust of the poet in profile, in high relief, in a medallion, and was placed in the area of a pointed arch, over the south door in

Poet's Corner, between the monuments of Gay and the Duke of Argyll. Johnson furnished a Latin epitaph, which was read at the table of Sir Joshua Reynolds, where several members of the club and other friends of the deceased were present. Though considered by them a masterly composition, they thought the literary character of the poet not defined with sufficient exactness, and they preferred that the epitaph should be in English rather than Latin, as "the memory of so eminent an English writer ought to be perpetuated in the language to which his works were likely to be so lasting an ornament."

These objections were reduced to writing, to be respectfully submitted to Johnson; but such was the awe entertained of his frown, that every one shrank from putting his name first to the instrument; whereupon their names were written about it in a circle, making what mutinous sailors call a "Round Robin." Johnson received it half graciously, half grimly. "He was willing," he said, "to modify the sense of the epitaph in any manner the gentlemen pleased; but he never would consent to disgrace the walls of Westminster Abbey with an English inscription." Seeing the names of Dr. Warton and Edmund Burke among the signers, "he wondered," he said, "that Joe Warton, a scholar by profession, should be such a fool; and should have thought that Mund Burke would have had more sense." The following is the epitaph, as it stands inscribed on a white marble tablet beneath the bust:—

OLIVARIUS GOLDSMITH,
Poetæ, Physici, Historici,
Qui nullum fere scribendi genus
Non tetigit,
Nullum quod tetigit non ornavit;
Sive risus essent movendi,
Sive lacrymæ,
Affectuum potens at lenis dominator:
Ingenio sublimis, vividus, versatilis,
Oratione grandis, nitidus, venustus:
Hoc monumento memoriam coluit
Sodalium amor,
Amicorum fides,
Lectorum veneratio
Natus in Hibernia Fornis Longfordiensis,
In loco cui nomen Pallas,
Nov. XXIX. MDCCXXXI.
Eblanæ literis institutus;
Obiit Londini,
April IV. MDCCCLXXIV.*

We shall not pretend to follow these anecdotes of the life of Goldsmith with any critical dissertation on his writings; their merits have long since been fully discussed, and their station in the scale of literary merit permanently established. They have outlasted generations of works of higher power and wider scope, and will continue to outlast succeeding generations, for they have

* The following translation is from Croker's edition of Boswell's Johnson:—

OF OLIVER GOLDSMITH—
A Poet, Naturalist, and Historian,
Who left scarcely any style of writing
untouched,
And touched nothing that he did not adorn;
Of all the passions,
Whether smiles were to be moved
or tears,
A powerful yet gentle master;
In genius, sublime, vivid, versatile—
In style, elevated, clear, elegant;
The love of companions,
The fidelity of friends,
And the veneration of readers,
Have by this monument honoured the memory.
He was born in Ireland,
At a place called Pallas,
[In the parish] of Forney, [and county] of Longford,
On the 29th Nov., 1731;
Educated at [the University of] Dublin;
And died in London,
4th April, 1774.

that magic charm of style by which works are embalmed to perpetuity. Neither shall we attempt a regular analysis of the character of the poet, but will indulge in a few desultory remarks in addition to those scattered throughout the preceding chapters.

Never was the trite, because sage apophthegm, that "the child is father to the man," more fully verified than in the case of Goldsmith. He is shy, awkward, and blundering in childhood, yet full of sensibility; he is a butt for the jeers and jokes of his companions, but apt to surprise and confound them by sudden and witty repartees; he is dull and stupid at his tasks, yet an eager and intelligent devourer of the travelling tales and campaigning stories of his half-military pedagogue; he may be a dunce, but he is already a rhymist; and his early scintillations of poetry awaken the expectations of his friends. He seems from infancy to have been compounded of two natures—one bright, the other blundering; or to have had fairy gifts laid in his cradle by the "good people" who haunted his birth-place, the old goblin mansions on the banks of the Inny.

He carries with him the wayward elfin spirit, if we may so term it, throughout his career. His fairy gifts are of no avail at school, academy, or college: they unfit him for close study and practical science, and render him heedless of everything that does not address itself to his poetical imagination and genial and festive feelings; they dispose him to break away from restraint, to stroll about hedges, lanes, and haunted streams, to revel with jovial companions, or to rove the country like a gipsy in quest of odd adventures.

As if confiding in these delusive gifts, he takes no heed of the present nor care for the future, lays no regular and solid foundation of knowledge, follows out no plan, adopts and disregards those recommended by his friends, at one time prepares for the ministry, next turns to the law, and then fixes upon medicine. He repairs to Edinburgh, the great emporium of medical science, but the fairy gifts accompany him; he idles and frolics away his time there, imbibing only such knowledge as is agreeable to him; makes an excursion to the poetical regions of the Highlands; and having walked the hospitals for the customary time, sets off to ramble over the continent, in quest of novelty rather than knowledge. His whole tour is a poetical one. He fancies he is playing the philosopher while he is really playing the poet; and though professedly he attends lectures and visits foreign universities, so deficient is he on his return in the studies for which he set out, that he fails in an examination as a surgeon's mate; and while figuring as a doctor of medicine, is outwitted on a point of practice by his apothecary. Baffled in every regular pursuit, after trying in vain some of the humbler callings of common-place life, he is driven almost by chance to the exercise of his pen, and here the fairy gifts come to his assistance. For a long time, however, he seems unaware of the magic properties of that pen: he uses it only as a makeshift until he can find a legitimate means of support. He is not a learned man, and can write but meagrely and at second-hand on learned subjects; but he has a quick convertible talent, that seizes lightly on the points of knowledge necessary to the illustration of a theme: his writings for a time are desultory, the fruits of what he has seen and felt, or what he has recently and hastily read; but his gifted pen transmutes everything into gold, and his own genial nature reflects its sunshine through his pages.

Still unaware of his powers, he throws off his writings anonymously, to go with the writings of less favoured men: and it is a long time, and after a bitter struggle with poverty and humiliation, before he acquires confidence in his literary talent as a means of support, and begins to dream of reputation.

From this time his pen is a wand of power in his hand, and he has only to use it discreetly, to make it

competent to all his wants. But discretion is not a part of Goldsmith's nature; and it seems the property of these fairy gifts to be accompanied by moods and temperaments to render their effect precarious. The heedlessness of his early days, his disposition for social enjoyment, his habits of throwing the present on the neck of the future, still continue. His expenses forerun his means; he incurs debts on the faith of what his magic pen is to produce, and then, under the pressure of his debts, sacrifices its productions for prices far below their value. It is a redeeming circumstance in his prodigality, that it is lavished oftener upon others than upon himself: he gives without thought or stint, and is the continual dupe of his benevolence and his trustfulness in human nature. We may say of him as he says of one of his heroes—"He could not stifle the natural impulse which he had to do good, but frequently borrowed money to relieve the distressed; and when he knew not conveniently where to borrow, he has been observed to shed tears as he passed through the wretched suppliants who attended his gate." * *

"His simplicity in trusting persons whom he had no previous reasons to place confidence in, seems to be one of those lights of his character which, while they impeach his understanding, do honour to his benevolence. The low and the timid are ever suspicious; but a heart impressed with honourable sentiments expects from others sympathetic sincerity."

His heedlessness in pecuniary matters, which had rendered his life a struggle with poverty, even in the days of his obscurity, rendered the struggle still more intense when his fairy gifts had elevated him into the society of the wealthy and luxurious, and imposed on his simple and generous spirit fancied obligations to a more ample and bounteous display.

"How comes it," says a recent and ingenious critic, "that in all the miry paths of life which he had trod, no speck ever sullied the robe of his modest and graceful muse? How, amidst all that love of inferior company, which never to the last forsook him, did he keep his genius so free from every touch of vulgarity?"

We answer that it was owing to the innate purity and goodness of his nature: there was nothing in it that assimilated to vice and vulgarity. Though his circumstances often compelled him to associate with the poor, they never could betray him into companionship with the depraved. His relish for humour and for the study of character, as we have before observed, brought him often into convivial company of a vulgar kind; but he discriminated between their vulgarity and their amusing qualities, or rather wrought from the whole those familiar features of life which form the staple of his most popular writings.

Much, too, of this intact purity of heart may be ascribed to the lessons of his infancy under the paternal roof; to the gentle, benevolent, elevated, unworldly maxims of his father, who, "passing rich with forty pounds a year," infused a spirit into his child which riches could not deprave nor poverty degrade. Much of his boyhood, too, had been passed in the household of his uncle, the amiable and generous Contarine; where he talked of literature with the good pastor, and practised music with his daughter, and delighted them both by his juvenile attempts at poetry. These early associations breathed a grace and refinement into his mind, and tuned it up after the rough sports on the green, or the frolics at the tavern. These led him to turn from the roaring glees of the club to listen to the harp of his cousin Jane; and from the rustic triumph of "throwing sledge" to a stroll with his flute along the pastoral banks of the Inny.

The gentle spirit of his father walked with him through life, a pure and virtuous monitor; and in all the vicissitudes of his career, we find him ever more chastened in mind by the sweet and holy recollections of the home of his infancy.

It has been questioned whether he really had any religious feeling. Those who raise the question have never considered well his writings; his "Vicar of Wakefield," and his pictures of "the Village Pastor," present religion under its most endearing forms, and with a feeling that could only flow from the deep convictions of the heart. When his fair travelling companions at Paris urged him to read the Church Service on a Sunday, he replied that "he was not worthy to do it." He had seen in early life the sacred offices performed by his father and his brother, with a solemnity which had sanctified them in his memory; how could he presume to undertake such functions? His religion has been called into question by Johnson and by Boswell: he certainly had not the gloomy hypochondriacal piety of the one, nor the babbling mouth piety of the other, but the spirit of Christian charity breathed forth in his writings and illustrated in his conduct give us reason to believe he had the indwelling religion of the soul.

We have made sufficient comments in the preceding chapters on his conduct in elevated circles of literature and fashion. The fairy gifts which took him there were not accompanied by the gifts and graces necessary to sustain him in that artificial sphere. He can neither play the learned sage with Johnson, nor the fine gentleman with Beauclerc, though he has a mind replete with wisdom and shrewdness, and a spirit free from vulgarity. The blunders of a fertile but hurried intellect, and the awkward display of the student assuming the man of fashion, fix on him a character for absurdity and vanity which, like the charge of lunacy, it is hard to disprove, however weak the grounds of the charge and strong the facts in opposition to it.

In truth, he is never truly in his place in these learned and fashionable circles, which talk and live for display. It is not the kind of society he craves. His heart yearns for domestic life; it craves familiar, confiding intercourse, family fireside, the guileless and happy company of children; these bring out the heartiest and sweetest sympathies of his nature.

"Had it been his fate," says the critic we have already quoted, "to meet a woman who could have loved him, despite his faults, and respected him despite his foibles, we cannot but think that his life and his genius would have been much more harmonious; his desultory affections would have been centred, his craving self-love appeased, his pursuits more settled, his character more solid. A nature like Goldsmith's, so affectionate, so confiding—so susceptible to simple, innocent enjoyments—so dependent on others for the sunshine of existence, does not flower if deprived of the atmosphere of home."

The cravings of his heart in this respect are evident, we think, throughout his career; and if we have dwelt with more significance than others upon his intercourse with the beautiful Horneck family, it is because we fancied we could detect, amid his playful attentions to one of its members, a lurking sentiment of tenderness, kept down by conscious poverty and a humiliating idea of personal defects. A hopeless feeling of this kind—the last a man would communicate to his friends—might account for much of that fitfulness of conduct and that gathering melancholy remarked, but not comprehended, by his associates during the last year or two of his life; and may have been one of the last troubles of the mind which aggravated his last illness, and only terminated with his death.

We shall conclude these desultory remarks with a few which have been used by us on a former occasion. From the general tone of Goldsmith's biography, it is evident that his faults at the worst were but negative, while his merits were great and decided. He was no one's enemy but his own; his errors, in the main, inflicted evil on none but himself, and were so blended with humorous and even affecting circumstances, as to disarm anger and conciliate kindness. Where eminent talent is united to

spotless virtue, we are awed and dazzled into admiration, but our admiration is apt to be cold and reverential; while there is something in the harmless infirmities of a good and great, but erring individual, that pleads touchingly to our nature; and we turn more kindly towards the object of our idolatry, when we find that, like ourselves, he is mortal and is frail. The epithet so often heard, and in such kindly tones, of "poor Goldsmith," speaks volumes. Few, who consider the real compound of admirable and whimsical qualities which form his character would wish to prune away its eccentricities,

trim its grotesque luxuriance, and clip it down to the decent formalities of rigid virtue. "Let not his frailties be remembered," said Johnson; "he was a very great man." But, for our part, we rather say "Let them be remembered," since their tendency is to endear: and we question whether he himself would not feel gratified in hearing his reader, after dwelling with admiration on the proofs of his greatness, close the volume with the kind-hearted phrase, so fondly and familiarly ejaculated, of—"Poor Goldsmith."



HISTORY OF THE EARTH,

AND

ANIMATED NATURE.



A

HISTORY OF THE EARTH, AND ANIMATED NATURE.

CHAP. I.

A SKETCH OF THE UNIVERSE.

THE world may be considered as one vast mansion, where man has been admitted to enjoy, to admire, and to be grateful. The first desires of savage nature are merely to gratify the importunities of sensual appetite, and to neglect the contemplation of things, barely satisfied with their enjoyment; the beauties of Nature, and all the wonders of Creation, have but little charms for a being taking up in obviating the wants of the day, and anxious for precarious subsistence.

Our philosophers, therefore, who have testified such surprise at the want of curiosity in the ignorant, seem not to consider that they are usually employed in making provisions of a more important nature; in providing rather for the necessities than the amusements of life. It is not till our more pressing wants are sufficiently supplied, that we can attend to the calls of curiosity; so that in every age scientific refinement has been the latest effort of human industry.

But human curiosity, though at first slowly excited, being at last possessed of leisure for indulging its propensity, becomes one of the greatest amusements of life, and gives higher satisfactions than what even the senses can afford. A man of this disposition turns all nature into a magnificent theatre, replete with objects of wonder and surprise, and fitted up chiefly for his happiness and entertainment: he industriously examines all things, from the minutest insect to the most finished animal; and, when his limited organs can no longer make the disquisition, he sends out his imagination upon new inquiries.

Nothing, therefore, can be more august and striking than the idea which his reason, aided by his imagination, furnishes of the universe around him. Astronomers tell us, that this earth which we inhabit forms but a very minute part in that great assemblage of bodies of which the world is composed. It is a million of times less than the sun, by which it is enlightened. The planets also, which, like it, are subordinate to the sun's influence, exceed the earth one thousand times in magnitude. These, which were at first supposed to wander in the heavens without any fixed path, and that took their name from their apparent deviations, have long been found to perform their circuits with great exactness and strict regularity. They have been discovered as forming with our earth a system of bodies circulating round the sun, all obedient to one law, and impelled by one common influence.

Modern philosophy has taught us to believe, that, when the great Author of Nature began the work of creation, he chose to operate by second causes; and that, suspending the constant exertion of his power, he endued matter with a quality by which the universal economy of nature might be continued without his immediate assistance. This quality is called attraction; a sort of approximating influence, which all bodies, whether terrestrial or celestial, are found to possess; and which in all increases as the quantity of matter in each increases. The sun, by far the greatest body in our system, is, of consequence, possessed of much the greatest share of this attracting power; and all the planets, of which our earth is one, are, of course, entirely subject to its superior influence. Were this power, therefore, left uncontrolled by any other, the sun must quickly have attracted all the bodies of our celestial system to itself; but it is equally counteracted by another power of equal efficacy; namely, a progressive force which each planet received when it was impelled forward, by the divine Architect, upon its first formation. The heavenly bodies of our system being thus acted upon by two opposing powers; namely, by that of attraction, which draws them towards the sun; and that of impulsion, which drives them straight forward into the great void of space; they pursue a track between these contrary directions; and each, like a stone whirled about in a sling, obeying two opposite forces, circulates round its great centre of heat and motion.

In this manner, therefore, is the harmony of our planetary system preserved. The sun, in the midst, gives heat, and light, and circular motion to the planets which surround it; Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, perform their constant circuits at different distances, each taking up a time to complete its revolutions proportioned to the greatness of the circle which it is to describe. The lesser planets also, which are attendants upon some of the greater, are subject to the same laws; they circulate with the same exactness; and are, in the same manner, influenced by their respective centres of motion.

Besides those bodies which make a part of our peculiar system, and which may be said to reside within its great circumference, there are others, that frequently come among us from the most distant tracts of space, and that seem like dangerous intruders upon the beautiful simplicity of nature. These are comets, whose appearance was once so terrible to mankind, and the theory of which is so little understood at present: all we know is, that their number is greater than that of the planets; and that, like these, they roll in orbits, in some measure

obedient to solar influence. Astronomers have endeavoured to calculate the returning periods of many of them; but experience has not, as yet, confirmed the veracity of their investigations. Indeed, who can tell when those wanderers have made their excursions into other worlds and distant systems, what obstacles may be found to oppose their progress, to accelerate their motions, or retard their return?

But what we have hitherto attempted to sketch, is but a small part of the great fabric in which the Deity has thought proper to manifest his wisdom and omnipotence. There are multitudes of other bodies dispersed over the face of the heavens that lie too remote for examination: these have no motion, such as the planets are found to possess, and are therefore called fixed stars; and from their extreme brilliancy, and their immense distance, philosophers have been induced to suppose them to be suns resembling that which enlivens our system. As the imagination also, once excited, is seldom content to stop, it has furnished each with an attendant system of planets belonging to itself, and has even induced some to deplore the fate of those systems, whose imagined suns, which sometimes happens, have become no longer visible.

But conjectures of this kind, which no reasoning can ascertain, nor experiment reach, are rather amusing than useful. Though we see the greatness and wisdom of the Deity in all the seeming worlds that surround us, it is our chief concern to trace him in that which we inhabit. The examination of the earth, the wonders of its contrivance, the history of its advantages, or of the seeming defects in its formation, are the proper business of the natural historian. A description of this earth, its animals, vegetables, and minerals, is the most delightful entertainment the mind can be furnished with, as it is most interesting and useful. I would beg leave, therefore, to conclude these common-place speculations, with an observation which, I hope, is not entirely so. An use, hitherto not much insisted upon, that may result from the contemplation of celestial magnificence, is that it will teach us to make an allowance for the apparent irregularities we find below. Whenever we can examine the works of the Deity at a proper point of distance, so as to take in the whole of His design, we see nothing but uniformity, beauty, and precision. The heavens present us with a plan, which, though inexpressibly magnificent, is yet regular beyond the power of invention. Whenever, therefore, we find any apparent defects in the earth, which we are about to consider, instead of attempting to reason ourselves into an opinion that they are beautiful, it will be wiser to say, that we do not behold them at the proper point of distance, and that our eye is laid too close to the objects to take in the regularity of their connexion. In short, we may conclude that God, who is regular in his great productions, acts with equal uniformity in the little.

CHAP. II.

A SHORT SURVEY OF THE GLOBE, FROM THE LIGHT OF ASTRONOMY AND GEOGRAPHY.

All the sciences are in some measure linked with each other, and before the one is ended the other begins. In a natural history, therefore, of the earth, we must begin with a short account of its situation and form, as given us by astronomers and geographers; it will be sufficient, however, upon this occasion, just to hint to the imagination what they, by the most abstract reasonings, have forced upon the understanding. The earth which we inhabit is, as has been said before, one of those bodies which circulate in our solar system; it is placed at a happy middle distance from the centre, and even seems in this respect privileged beyond all other planets that

depend upon our great luminary for their support. Less distant from the sun than Saturn, Jupiter, and Mars, and yet less parched up than Venus and Mercury, which are situated too near the violence of its power, the earth seems in a peculiar manner to share the bounty of the Creator: it is not, therefore, without reason that mankind consider themselves as the peculiar objects of His providence and regard.

Besides that motion which the earth has round the sun, the circuit of which is performed in a year, it has another upon its own axle, which it performs in twenty-four hours. Thus, like a chariot wheel, it has a compound motion; for while it goes forward on its journey, it is all the while turning upon itself. From the first of these two arises the grateful vicissitude of the seasons; from the second, that of day and night.

It may be also readily conceived, that a body thus wheeling in circles will most probably be itself a sphere. The earth, beyond all possibility of doubt, is found to be so. Whenever its shadow happens to fall upon the moon, in an eclipse, it appears to be always circular, in whatever position it is projected; and it is easy to prove that a body which in every position makes a circular shadow must itself be round. The rotundity of the earth may be also proved from the meeting of two ships at sea; the topmasts of each are the first parts that are discovered by both, the under parts being hidden by the convexity of the globe which rises between them. The ships in this instance may be likened to two men who approach each other on the opposite sides of a hill; their heads will first be seen, and gradually as they come nearer they will come entirely into view.

However, though the earth's figure is said to be spherical, we ought only to conceive it as being nearly so. It has been found in the last age to be flatted at both poles, so that its form is commonly resembled to that of a turnip. The cause of this swelling of the equator is ascribed to the greater rapidity of the motion with which the parts of the earth are there carried round; and which, consequently, endeavouring to fly off, act in opposition to central attraction. The twirling of a mop may serve as a homely illustration—which, as every one has seen, spreads and grows broader in the middle as it continues to be turned round.

As the earth receives light and motion from the sun, so it derives much of its warmth and power of vegetation from the same beneficent source. However, the different parts of the globe participate of these advantages in very different proportions, and accordingly put on very different appearances; a polar prospect, and a landscape at the equator, are as opposite in their appearances as in their situation.

The polar regions, that receive the solar beams in a very oblique direction, and that continue for one-half of the year in night, receive but few of the genial comforts that other parts of the world enjoy. Nothing can be more mournful or hideous than the picture which travellers present of those wretched regions. The ground, which is rocky and barren, rears itself in every place in lofty mountains and inaccessible cliffs, and meets the mariner's eye at even forty leagues from shore. These precipices, frightful in themselves, receive an additional horror from being constantly covered with ice and snow, which daily seems to accumulate, and to fill the valleys with increasing desolation. The few rocks and cliffs that are bare of snow look at a distance of a dark-brown colour, and quite naked. Upon a nearer approach, however, they are found replete with many different veins of coloured stone, here and there spread over with a little earth, and a scanty portion of grass and heath. The internal parts of the country are still more desolate and deterring. In wandering these solitudes, some plains appear covered with ice, that, at first glance, seems to promise the traveller an easy journey. But those are even more formidable and more unpassable than the

mountains themselves, being cleft with dreadful chasms, and every where abounding with pits that threaten certain destruction. The seas that surround these inhospitable coasts are still more astonishing, being covered with flakes of floating ice, that spread like extensive fields, or that rise out of the water like enormous mountains. These, which are composed of materials as clear and transparent as glass, assume many strange and phantastic appearances. Some of them look like churches or castles, with pointed turrets; some like ships in full sail; and people have often given themselves the fruitless toil to attempt piloting the imaginary vessels into harbour. There are still others that appear like large islands, with plains, valleys, and hills, which often rear their heads two hundred yards above the level of the sea; and although the height of these be amazing, yet their depth beneath is still more so; some of them being found to sink three hundred fathom under water.

The earth presents a very different appearance at the equator, where the sun-beams, darting directly downwards, burn up lighter soils into extensive sandy deserts, or quicken all the moister tracts with incredible vegetation. In these regions, almost all the same inconveniences are felt from the proximity of the sun, that in the former were endured from its absence. The deserts are entirely barren, except where they are found to produce serpents, and that in such quantities, that some extensive plains seem almost entirely covered with them.

It not unfrequently happens also that this dry soil, which is so parched and comminuted by the force of the sun, rises with the smallest breeze of wind; and the sands being composed of parts almost as small as those of water, they assume a similar appearance, rolling onward in waves like those of a troubled sea, and overwhelming all they meet with inevitable destruction. On the other hand, those tracts which are fertile teem with vegetation even to a noxious degree. The grass rises to such a height as often to require burning; the forests are impassable from underwoods, and so matted above, that even the sun, fierce as it is, can seldom penetrate. These are so thick as scarce to be extirpated; for the tops being so bound together by the climbing plants that grow round them, though a hundred should be cut at the bottom, yet not one would fall, as they mutually support each other. In these dark tangled forests, beasts of various kinds, insects in astonishing abundance, and serpents of surprising magnitude, find a quiet retreat from man, and are seldom disturbed except by each other.

In this manner the extremes of our globe seem equally unfitted for the comforts and conveniences of life; and although the imagination may find an awful pleasure in contemplating the frightful precipices of Greenland, or the luxurious verdure of Africa, yet true happiness can only be found in the more moderate climates, where the gifts of Nature may be enjoyed without incurring danger in obtaining them.

It is in the temperate zone, therefore, that all the arts of improving Nature, and refining upon happiness, have been invented: and this part of the earth is, more properly speaking, the theatre of natural history. Although there be millions of animals and vegetables in the unexplored forests under the line, yet most of these may for ever continue unknown, as curiosity is there repressed by surrounding danger. But it is otherwise in these delightful regions which we inhabit, and where this art has had its beginning. Among us there is scarce a shrub, a flower, or an insect, without its particular history; scarce a plant that could be useful which has not been propagated; nor a weed that could be noxious which has not been pointed out.

CHAP. III.

A VIEW OF THE SURFACE OF THE EARTH.

When we take a slight survey of the surface of our globe, a thousand objects offer themselves, which, though long known, yet still demand our curiosity. The most obvious beauty that every where strikes the eye is the verdant covering of the earth, which is formed by a happy mixture of herbs and trees of various magnitudes and uses. It has been often remarked that no colour refreshes the sight so well as green; and it may be added, as a further proof of the assertion, that the inhabitants of those places where the fields are continually white with snow generally become blind long before the usual course of nature.

This advantage, which arises from the verdure of the fields, is not a little improved by their inequalities. There is scarce two natural landscapes that offer prospects entirely resembling each other; their risings and depressions, their hills and valleys, are never entirely the same, but always offer something new to entertain and refresh the imagination.

But to increase the beauties of the face of Nature, the landscape is enlivened by springs and lakes, and intersected by rivulets. These lend a brightness to the prospect, give motion and coolness to the air, and, what is much more important, furnish health and subsistence to animated Nature.

Such are the most obvious and tranquil objects that everywhere offer; but there are others of a more awful and magnificent kind—the mountain rising above the clouds, and topped with snow; the river pouring down its sides, increasing as it runs, and losing itself at last in the ocean; the ocean spreading its immense sheet of waters over one-half of the globe, swelling and subsiding at well-known intervals, and forming a communication between the most distant parts of the earth.

If we leave those objects that seem to be natural to our earth, and keep the same constant tenour, we are presented with the great irregularities of Nature. The burning mountain, the abrupt precipice, the unfathomable cavern, the headlong cataract, and the rapid whirlpool.

If we carry our curiosity a little further, and descend to the objects immediately below the surface of the globe, we shall there find wonders still as amazing. We first perceive the earth for the most part lying in regular beds or layers, every bed growing thicker in proportion as it lies deeper, and its contents more compact and heavy. We shall find, almost wherever we make our subterranean inquiry, an amazing number of shells that once belonged to aquatic animals. Here and there, at a distance from the sea, beds of oyster-shells, several yards thick, and many miles over; sometimes testaceous substances of various kinds on the tops of mountains, and often in the heart of the hardest marble. These, which are dug up by the peasants in every country, are regarded with little curiosity; for, being so very common, they are considered as substances entirely terrene. But it is otherwise with the inquirer after Nature, who finds them, not only in shape but in substance, every way resembling those that are bred in the sea; and he therefore is at a loss how to account for their removal.

Yet not one part of Nature alone, but all her productions and varieties, become the object of the speculative man's inquiry; he takes different views of Nature from the inattentive spectator, and scarce an appearance, how common soever, but affords matter for his contemplation: he inquires how and why the surface of the earth has come to have those risings and depressions which most men call natural; he demands in what manner the mountains were formed, and in what consists their uses; he asks from whence springs arise, and how rivers flow round the convexity of the globe; he enters into an

examination of the ebbings and flowings and the other wonders of the deep; he acquaints himself with the irregularities of Nature, and will endeavour to investigate their causes; by which, at least, he will become better versed in their history. The internal structure of the globe becomes an object of his curiosity; and although his inquiries can fathom but a very little way, yet, if possessed with a spirit of theory, his imagination will supply the rest. He will endeavour to account for the situation of the marine fossils that are found in the earth, and for the appearance of the different beds of which it is composed. These have been the inquiries that have splendidly employed many of the philosophers of the last and present age; and, to a certain degree, they must be serviceable. But the worst of it is, that, as speculations amuse the writer more than facts, they may be often carried to an extravagant length, and that time may be spent in reasoning upon Nature which might be more usefully employed in writing her history.

Too much speculation in natural history is certainly wrong; but there is a defect of an opposite nature that does much more prejudice, namely, that of silencing all inquiry, by alleging the benefits we receive from a thing, instead of investigating the cause of its production. If I enquire how a mountain came to be formed; such a reasoner, enumerating its benefits, answers, because God knew it would be useful. If I demand the cause of an earthquake, he finds some good produced by it, and alleges that as the cause. Thus such an inquirer has some ready reason for every appearance in Nature, which serves to swell his periods, and give splendour to his declamation: every thing about him is, on some account or other, declared to be good; and he thinks it presumptuous to scrutinize into its defects, or to endeavour to imagine how it might be better. Such writers, and there are many such, add very little to the advancement of knowledge; and it is finely remarked by Bacon, that the investigation of final causes in a barren study; and, like a virgin dedicated to the Deity, brings forth nothing. In fact, those men who want to compel every appearance and every irregularity in Nature into our service, and expatiate on their benefits, combat that very morality which they would seem to promote. God has permitted thousands of natural evils to exist in the world because it is by their intervention that man is capable of moral evil; and He has permitted that we should be subject to moral evil that we might do something to deserve eternal happiness, by showing that we had rectitude to avoid it.

CHAP. IV.

A REVIEW OF THE DIFFERENT THEORIES OF THE EARTH.

Human invention has been exercised for several ages to account for the various irregularities of the earth. While those philosophers mentioned in the last chapter see nothing but beauty, symmetry, and order, there are others who look upon the gloomy side of Nature, enlarge on its defects, and seem to consider the earth on which they tread as one scene of extensive desolation. Beneath its surface they observe minerals and waters confusedly jumbled together; its different beds of earth irregularly lying upon each other; mountains rising from places that once were level; hills sinking into valleys; whole regions swallowed by the sea, and others again rising out of its bosom;—all these they suppose to be but a few of the changes that have been wrought in our globe; and they send out Imagination to describe it in its primeval state of beauty.

Of those who have written theories describing the

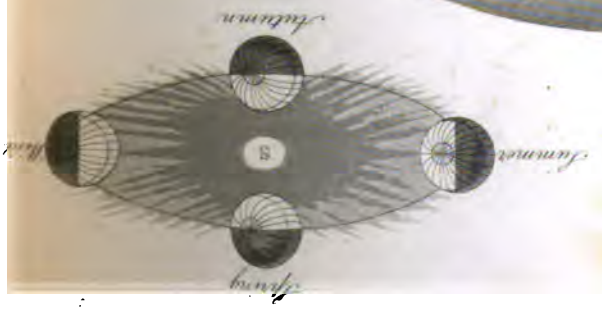
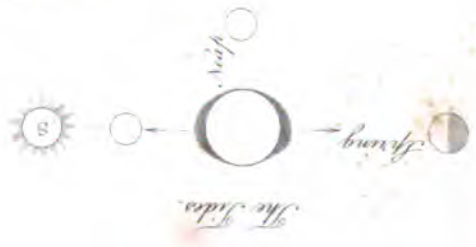
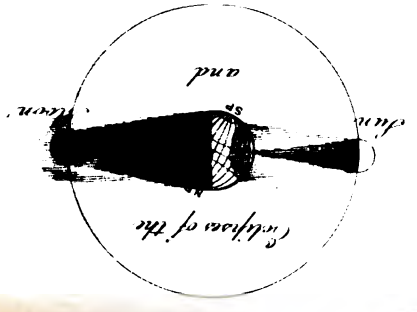
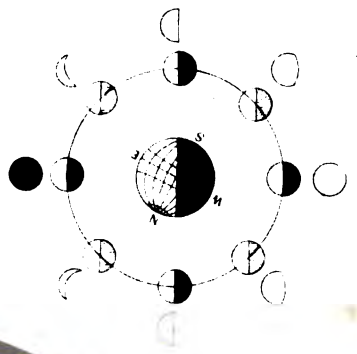
manner of the original formation of the earth, or accounting for its present appearances, the most celebrated are Burnet, Whiston, Woodward, and Buffon. As speculation is endless, so it is not to be wondered that all these differ from each other, and give opposite accounts of the several changes which they suppose our earth to have undergone. As the systems of each have had their admirers, it is in some measure incumbent upon the natural historian to be acquainted at least with their outlines; and, indeed, to know what others have even dreamed in matters of science is very useful, as it may often prevent us from indulging similar delusions ourselves, which we should never have adopted, but because we take them to be wholly our own. However, as entering into a detail of these theories is rather furnishing a history of opinions than things, I will endeavour to be as concise as I can.

The first who formed this amusement of earth-making into system was the celebrated Thomas Burnet, a man of polite learning and rapid imagination. His Sacred Theory, as he calls it, describing the changes which the earth has undergone, or shall hereafter undergo, is well known for the warmth with which it is imagined, and the weakness with which it is reasoned; for elegance of its style, and the meanness of its philosophy. "The earth," says he, "before the deluge, was very differently formed from what it is at present: it was at first a fluid mass; a chaos composed of various substances, differing both in density and figure: those which were most heavy sunk to the centre, and formed in the middle of our globe a hard solid body; those of a lighter nature remained next; and the waters, which were lighter still, swam upon its surface, and covered the earth on every side. The air, and all those fluids which were lighter than water, floated upon this also; and in the same manner encompassed the globe; so that between the surrounding body of waters and the circumambient air, there was formed a coat of oil, and other unctuous substances lighter than water. However, as the air was still extremely impure, and must have carried up with it many of those earthy particles with which it was once intimately blended, it soon began to defecate, and to depose these particles upon the oily surface already mentioned, which, soon uniting together, the earth and oil formed that crust which soon became an habitable surface, giving life to vegetation and dwelling to animals."

This imaginary antediluvian abode was very different from what we see at present. "The earth was light and rich; and formed of a substance entirely adapted to the feeble state of incipient vegetation: it was an uniform plain, every where covered with verdure; without mountains, without seas, or the smallest inequalities. It had no difference of seasons, for its equator was in the plain of the ecliptic, or in other words, it turned directly opposite to the sun, so that it enjoyed one perpetual and luxuriant spring. However, this delightful face of Nature did not long continue the same, for, after a time, it began to crack and open in fissures; a circumstance which always succeeds when the sun dries away the moisture from rich or marshy situations. The crimes of mankind had been for some time preparing to draw down the wrath of Heaven; and they, at length, induced the Deity to defer repairing these breaches in Nature. Thus the chasms of the earth every day became wider, and, at length, they penetrated to the great abyss of waters; and the whole earth, in a manner, fell in. Then ensued a total disorder in the uniform beauty of the first creation, the terrene surface of the globe being broken down; as it sunk the waters gushed out into its place; the deluge became universal; all mankind, except eight persons, were punished with destruction, and their posterity condemned to toil upon the ruins of desolated Nature.

It only remains to mention the manner in which He relieves the earth from this universal wreck, which would

THE SOLAR SYSTEM.



THE REVOLUTIONS, DISTANCES, &c. OF THE PLANETS.

SIGNS	NAMES	PERIODICAL REVOLUTION	DISTANCE FROM THE SUN	COMPARATIVE SIZES OF THE PLANETS	DIAMETER IN MILES	TIME OF ROTATION UPON THE AXIS	HOURLY MOTION IN THEIR ORBITS	N° OF MOONS
☉	☉ Sun	Yrs. 1. 6. m. 4	Millions.		Miles.	1. 6. m. 4	Miles	
☿	☿ Mercury	87. 23. 14. 33	37	☿	886.473	25 14 8	111.256	
♀	♀ Venus	225. 16. 24. 27	69	♀	3.494	0. 23. 21. 0	84.398	
♂	♂ Earth	1. 10. 5. 28. 54	95.4	♂	7.630	23. 56. 3	75.222	1
♂	♂ Moon	27. 7. 43. 5	95.4	♂	2.172	27. 7. 43. 5	2.335	
♂	♂ Mars	1. 321. 22. 18. 27	145.4	♂	4.435	1. 0. 39. 22	56.212	
♂	♂ Flora							
♂	♂ Victoria							
♂	♂ Yesta							
♂	♂ Iris							
♂	♂ Helios							
♂	♂ Hekate							
♂	♂ Parthenope							
♂	♂ Cygnia							
♂	♂ Astrea							
♂	♂ Juno							
♂	♂ Pallas							
♂	♂ Ceres							
♂	♂ Hygea							
♂	♂ Irene							
♂	♂ Jupiter	11. 315. 14. 39. 2	596.4	♂	86.396	0. 9. 55. 33	30.358	1
♂	♂ Saturn	29. 164. 7. 21. 50	941	♂	79.405	0. 10. 16. 1	22.351	7
♂	♂ Uranus	84. 204. 8. 39. 4	1.822.2	♂	34.157		15.846	6
♂	♂ Neptune		3.000					

It has been supposed that these are only the fragments of a larger planet, which has been burst asunder by some immense force, proceeding from its interior





seem to be as difficult as even its first formation. "These great masses of earth falling into the abyss, drew down with them vast quantities also of air; and by dashing against each other, and breaking into small parts by the repeated violence of the shock, they, at length, left between them large cavities, filled with nothing but air. These cavities naturally offered a bed to receive the influent waters; and in proportion as they filled, the face of the earth became once more visible. The higher parts of its broken surface, now become the tops of the mountains, were the first that appeared; the plains soon after came forward, and at length the whole globe was delivered from the waters, except the places in the lowest situations; so that the ocean and the seas are still a part of the ancient abyss that have not had a place to return. Islands and rocks are fragments of the earth's former crust; kingdoms and continents are larger masses of its broken substance; and all inequalities that are to be found on the surface of the present earth, are owing to the accidental confusion into which both earth and waters were then thrown."

The next theorist was Woodward, who, in his *Essay towards a Natural History of the Earth*, which was only designed to precede a greater work, has endeavoured to give a more rational account of its appearances; and was, in fact, much better furnished for such an undertaking than any of his predecessors, being one of the most assiduous naturalists of his time. His little book, therefore, contains many important facts relative to natural history, although his system may be weak and groundless.

He begins by asserting that all terrene substances are disposed in beds of various natures, lying horizontally one over the other, somewhat like the coats of an onion; that they are replete with shells, and other productions of the sea; the shells being found in the deepest cavities, and on the tops of the highest mountains. From these observations, which are warranted by experience, he proceeds to observe, that these shells and extraneous fossils are not productions of the earth, but are all actual remains of those animals which they are known to resemble; that all the beds of the earth lie under each other, in the order, of their specific gravity; and that they are disposed as if they had been left there by subsiding waters. All these assertions he affirms with much earnestness, although daily experience contradicts him in some of them; particularly we find layers of stone often over the lightest soils, and the softest earth under the hardest bodies. However, having taken it for granted that all the layers of the earth are found in the order of their specific gravity, the lightest at the top, and the heaviest next the centre, he consequently asserts, and it will not improbably follow, that all the substances of which the earth is composed were once in an actual state of dissolution. This universal dissolution he takes to have happened at the time of the flood. He supposes that at that time a body of water, which was then in the centre of the earth, uniting with that which was found on the surface, so far separated the terrene parts as to mix together in one fluid mass; the contents of which afterwards sinking according to their respective gravities, produced the present appearances of the earth. Being aware, however, of an objection that fossil substances are not found dissolved, he exempts them from this universal dissolution, and, for that purpose, endeavours to show that the parts of animals have a stronger cohesion than those of minerals; and that, while even the hardest rocks may be dissolved, bones and shells may still continue entire.

So much for Woodward; but of all the systems which were published respecting the earth's formation, that of Whiston was most applauded and most opposed. Nor need we wonder; for being supported with all the parade of deep calculation, it awed the ignorant, and produced the approbation of such as would be thought

otherwise, as it implied a knowledge of abstruse learning, to be even thought capable of comprehending what the writer aimed at. In fact, it is not easy to divest it of its mathematical garb; but those who have had leisure, have found the result of our philosopher's reasoning to be thus. He supposes the earth to have been originally a comet; and he considers the history of the creation, as given us in scripture, to have its commencement just when it was taken by the hand of the Creator, to be more regularly placed as a planet in our solar system. Before that time, he supposes it to have been a globe without beauty or proportion; a world in disorders, subject to all the vicissitudes which comets endure; some of which have been found, at different times, a thousand times hotter than melted iron; at others, a thousand times colder than ice. These alternations of heat and cold, continually melting and freezing the surface of the earth, he supposes to have produced, to a certain depth, a chaos entirely resembling that described by the poets, surrounding the solid contents of the earth, which still continued unchanged in the midst, making a great burning globe of more than two thousand leagues in diameter. This surrounding chaos, however, was far from being solid; he resembles it to a dense though fluid atmosphere, composed of substances mingled, agitated, and shocked against each other; and in this disorder he describes the earth to have been just at the eve of creation.

But upon its orbit being then changed, when it was more regularly wheeled round the sun, every thing took its proper place; every part of the surrounding fluid then fell into a situation, in proportion as it was light or heavy. The middle, or central part, which always remained unchanged, still continued so, retaining a part of that heat which it received in its primeval approaches towards the sun; which heat, he calculates, may continue for about six thousand years. Next to this fell the heavier parts of the chaotic atmosphere which serve to sustain the lighter; but as in descending they could not entirely be separated from many watery parts with which they were intimately mixed, they drew down a part of these also with them; and these could not mount again after the surface of the earth was consolidated; they therefore surrounded the heavy first descending parts, in the same manner as these surround the central globe. Thus the entire body of the earth is composed most internally of a great burning globe; next which is placed a heavy terrene substance, that encompasses it; round which also is circumfused a body of water. Upon this body of waters the crust of earth on which we inhabit is placed; so that, according to him, the globe is composed of a number of coats, or shells, one within the other, all of different densities. The body of the earth being thus formed, the air, which is the lightest substance of all, surrounded its surface; and the beams of the sun darting through produced that light which, we are told, first obeyed the Creator's command.

The whole economy of the creation being thus adjusted, it only remained to account for the risings and depressions on the surface of the earth, with the other seeming irregularities of its present appearance. The hills and valleys are considered by him as formed by their pressing upon the internal fluid, which sustains the outward shell of earth, with greater or less weight; those parts of the earth which are heaviest sink into the subjacent fluid more deeply, and become valleys; those that are lightest rise higher upon the earth's surface, and are called mountains.

Such was the face of Nature before the deluge; the earth was then more fertile and populous than it is at present; the life of man and animals was extended to ten times its present duration; and all these advantages arose from the superior heat of the central globe, which ever since has been cooling. As its heat was then in its

full power, the genial principle was also much greater than at present; vegetation and animal increase were carried on with more vigour, and all Nature seemed teeming with the seeds of life. But these physical advantages were only productive of moral evil; the warmth which invigorated the body increased the passions and appetites of the mind; and as man became more powerful he grew less innocent. It was found necessary to punish his depravity; and all living creatures, except the fishes (who, living in a cold element, were not subject to a similitude of guilt), were overwhelmed by the deluge in universal destruction.

This deluge, which simple believers are willing to ascribe to a miracle, philosophers have long been desirous to account for by natural causes; they have proved that the earth could never supply from any reservoir towards its centre, nor the atmosphere by any discharge from above, such a quantity of water as would cover the surface of the globe to a certain depth over the tops of our highest mountains. Where, therefore, was all this water to be found? Whiston has found enough, and more than a sufficiency, in the tail of a comet; for he seems to allot comets a very active part in the great operations of Nature.

He calculates, with great seeming precision, the year, the month, and the day of the week on which this comet (which has paid the earth some visits since, though at a kinder distance) involved our globe in its tail. The tail he supposed to be a vaporous fluid substance, exhaled from the body of the comet by the extreme heat of the sun, and increasing in proportion as it approached that great luminary. It was in this that our globe was involved at the time of the deluge; and, as the earth still acted by its natural attraction, it drew to itself all the watery vapours which were in the comet's tail; and the internal waters being also at the same time let loose, in a very short space the tops of the highest mountains were laid under the deep.

The punishment of the deluge being thus completed, and all the guilty destroyed, the earth, which had been broken by the eruption of the internal waters, was also enlarged by the same; so that upon the comet's recess there was found room sufficient in the internal abyss for the recess of the superfluous waters; whither they all retired, and left the earth uncovered, but in some respects changed, particularly in its figure, which, from being round, was now become oblate. In this universal wreck of Nature Noah survived, by a variety of happy causes, to re-people the earth, and to give birth to a race of men slow in believing ill-imagined theories of the earth.

After so many theories of the earth, which had been published, applauded, answered, and forgotten, Mr. Buffon ventured to add one more to the number. This philosopher was, in every respect, better qualified than any of his predecessors for such an attempt, being furnished with more materials, having a brighter imagination to find new proofs, and a better style to clothe them in. However, if one so ill qualified as I am may judge, this seems the weakest part of his admirable work; and I could wish that he had been content with giving us facts instead of systems; that, instead of being a reasoner, he had contented himself with being merely a historian.

He begins his system by making a distinction between the first part of it and the last; the one being founded only on conjecture; the other depending entirely upon actual observation. The latter part of his theory may, therefore, be true, though the former should be found erroneous.

"The planets," says he, "and the earth among the number, might have been formerly (he only offers this as conjecture) a part of the body of the sun, and adherent to its substance. In this situation, a comet falling in upon that great body might have given it such a shock, and so shaken its whole frame, that some of its particles might have been driven off like streaming

sparkles from red hot iron; and each of these streams of fire, small as they were in comparison of the sun, might have been large enough to have made an earth as great, nay, many times greater than ours. So that in this manner the planets, together with the globe which we inhabit, might have been driven off from the body of the sun by an impulsive force: in this manner also they would continue to recede from it for ever, were they not drawn back by its superior power of attraction; and thus, by the combination of the two motions, they are wheeled round in circles.

"Being in this manner detached at a distance from the body of the sun, the planets, from having been at first globes of liquid fire, gradually became cool. The earth also having been impelled obliquely forward, received a rotatory motion upon its axis at the very instant of its formation, and this motion being greatest at the equator, the parts there acting against the force of gravity, they must have swollen out, and given the earth an oblate or flatted figure.

"As to its internal substance, our globe having once belonged to the sun, it continues to be an uniform mass of melted matter, very probably vitrified in its primeval fusion. But its surface is very differently composed. Having been in the beginning heated to a degree equal to, if not greater than what comets are found to sustain; like them it had an atmosphere of vapours floating round it, and which cooling by degrees, condensed and subsided upon its surface. These vapours formed, according to their different densities, the earth, the water, and the air; the heavier parts falling first, and the lighter remaining still suspended."

Thus far our philosopher is, at least, as much a system maker as Whiston or Burnet; and, indeed, he fights his way with great perseverance and ingenuity through a thousand objections that naturally arise. Having, at last, got upon the earth, he supposes himself on firmer ground, and goes forward with greater security. Turning his attention to the present appearance of things upon this globe, he pronounces from the view that the whole earth was at first under water. This water he supposes to have been the lighter parts of its former evaporations, which, while the earthy particles sunk downwards by their natural gravity, floated on the surface, and covered it for a considerable space of time.

"The surface of the earth," says he, "must have been in the beginning much less solid than it is at present; and, consequently, the same causes which at this day produce but very slight changes, must then, upon so complying a substance, have had very considerable effects. We have no reason to doubt but that it was then covered with the waters of the sea; and that those waters were above the tops of our highest mountains, since, even in such elevated situations, we find shells and other marine productions in very great abundance. It appears also that the sea continued for a considerable time upon the face of the earth: for as these layers of shells are found so very frequent at such great depths, and in such prodigious quantities, it seems impossible for these to have supported their numbers all alive at one time; so that they must have been brought there by successive depositions. These shells are also found in the bodies of the hardest rocks, where they could not have been deposited, all at once, at the time of the deluge, or at any such instant revolution; since that would be to suppose, that all the rocks in which they are found were at that instant in a state of dissolution, which would be absurd to assert. The sea, therefore, deposited them wheresoever they are now to be found, and that by slow and successive degrees.

"It will appear, also, that the sea covered the whole earth, from the appearance of its layers, which, lying regularly one above the other, seem all to resemble the sediment formed at different times by the ocean. Hence, by the irregular force of its waves, and its currents driv-

ing the bottom into sand-banks, mountains must have been gradually formed within this universal covering of waters; and these successively raising their heads above its surface must, in time, have formed the highest ridges of mountains upon land, together with continents, islands, and low grounds, all in their turns. This opinion will receive additional weight, by considering that in those parts of the earth where the power of the ocean is greatest, the inequalities on the surface of the earth are highest; the ocean's power is greatest at the equator, where its winds and tides are most constant; and, in fact, the mountains at the equator are found to be higher than in any other part of the world. The sea, therefore, has produced the principal changes in our earth; rivers, volcanoes, earthquakes, storms, and rain having made but slight alterations, and only such as have affected the globe to very inconsiderable depths."

This is but a very slight sketch of Mr. Buffon's Theory of the Earth—a theory which he has much more powerfully supported than happily invented; and it would be needless to take up the reader's time from the pursuit of truth in the discussion of plausibilities. In fact, a thousand questions might be asked this most ingenious philosopher which he would not find it easy to answer; but such is the lot of humanity, that a single Goth can in one day destroy the fabric which the Cæsars were employed an age in erecting. We might ask how mountains, which are composed of the most compact and ponderous substances, should be the first whose parts the sea began to remove? We might ask how fossil-wood is found deeper even than shells? which argues, that trees grew upon the places he supposes once to have been covered with the ocean. But we hope this excellent man is better employed than to think of gratifying the petulance of Incredulity, by answering endless objections.

CHAP. V.

OF FOSSIL-SHELLS AND OTHER EXTRANEIOUS FOSSILS.

We may affirm of Mr. Buffon that which has been said of the chymists of old; though he may have failed in attaining his principal aim—that of establishing a theory—yet he has brought together such a multitude of facts relative to the history of the earth and the nature of its fossil productions, that Curiosity finds ample compensation, even while it feels the want of conviction.

Before, therefore, I enter upon the description of those parts of the earth which seem more naturally to fall within the subject, it will not be improper to give a short history of those animal productions that are found in such quantities, either upon its surface or at different depths below it. They demand our curiosity; and indeed there is nothing in natural history that has afforded more scope for doubt, conjecture, and speculation. Whatever depths of the earth we examine, or at whatever distance within land we seek, we most commonly find a number of fossil-shells, which, being compared with others from the sea of known kinds, are found to be exactly of a similar shape and nature. They are found at the very bottom of quarries and mines, in the retired and inmost parts of the most firm and solid rocks, upon the tops of even the highest hills and mountains, as well as in the valleys and plains; and this not in one country alone, but in all places where there is any digging for marble, chalk, or any other terrestrial matters that are so compact as to fence off the external injuries of the air, and thus preserve these shells from decay.

These marine substances, so commonly diffused and so generally to be met with, were for a long time considered by philosophers as productions, not of the sea, but of the earth. "As we find that spars," said they, "always shoot into peculiar shapes, so these seeming

snail, cockle, and muscle shells are only sportive forms that Nature assumes amongst others of its mineral varieties; they have the shape of fish, indeed, but they have always been terrestrial substances."

With this plausible solution mankind were for a long time content; but upon closer inquiry they were obliged to alter their opinion. It was found that these shells had in every respect the property of animal, and not of mineral nature. They were found exactly of the same weight with their fellow shells upon shore. They answered all the chymical trials in the same manner as sea-shells do. Their parts, when dissolved, had the same appearance to view, the same smell and taste. They had the same effects in medicine when inwardly administered; and, in a word, were so exactly conformable to marine bodies, that they had all the accidental concretions growing to them (such as pearls, corals, and smaller shells) which are found in shells just gathered on the shore. They were therefore, from these considerations, again given back to the sea; but the wonder was, how to account for their coming so far from their own natural element upon land.

As this naturally gave rise to many conjectures, it is not to be wondered that some among them have been very extraordinary. An Italian, quoted by Mr. Buffon, supposes them to have been deposited in the earth at the time of the Crusades, by the pilgrims who returned from Jerusalem; who, gathering them upon the sea-shore, in return carried them to their different places of habitation. But this conjecturer seems to have but a very inadequate idea of their numbers. At Touraine, in France, more than a hundred miles from the sea, there is a plain of about nine leagues long, and as many broad, from whence the peasants of the country supply themselves with marl for manuring their lands. They seldom dig deeper than twenty feet, and the whole plain is composed of the same materials, which are shells of various kinds, without the smallest portion of earth between them. Here, then, is a large space, in which are deposited millions of tons of shells, which pilgrims could not have collected, though their whole employment had been nothing else. England is furnished with its beds, which, though not quite so extensive, yet are equally wonderful. Near Reading, in Berkshire, for many succeeding generations, a continued body of oyster-shells has been found through the whole circumference of five or six acres of ground. The foundation of these shells is a hard rocky chalk; and above this chalk the oyster-shells lie in a bed of green sand, upon a level, as high as can possibly be judged, and about two feet thick. These shells are in their natural state; but they are found also petrified, and almost in equal abundance, in all the Alpine rocks, in the Pyrenees, on the hills of France, England, and Flanders. Even in all quarries from whence marble is dug, if the rocks be split perpendicularly downwards, petrified shells and other marine substances will be plainly discerned.

About a quarter of a mile from the river Medway, in the county of Kent, after the taking off the coping of a piece of ground there, the workmen came to a blue marble, which continued for three feet and a half or more deep, and then beneath appeared a hard floor or pavement, composed of petrified shells crowded closely together. This layer was about an inch deep, and several yards over; and it could be walked upon as upon a beach. These stones of which it was composed (the describer supposes them to have always been stones) were either wreathed as snails, or bivalvular like cockles. The wreathed kinds were about the size of a hazel-nut, and were filled with a stony substance of the colour of marl; and they themselves, also, till they were washed, were of the same colour; but when cleaned, they appeared of the colour of bezoar, and of the same polish. After boiling in water they became whitish, and left a chalkiness upon the fingers.

In several parts of Asia and Africa travellers have observed these shells in great abundance. In the mountains of Castravan, which lie above the city Barut, they quarry out a white stone, every part of which contains petrified fishes in great numbers, and of surprising diversity. They also seem to continue in such preservation, that their fins, scales, and all the minutest distinctions of their make, can be perfectly discerned.

From all these instances, we may conclude that fossils are very numerous; and, indeed, independent of their situations, they afford no small entertainment to observe them as preserved in the cabinets of the curious. The variety of their kinds is astonishing. Most of the sea-shells which are known, and many others to which we are entirely strangers, are to be seen either in their natural state, or in various degrees of petrification. In the place of some we have mere spar, or stone, exactly expressing all the lineaments of animals, as having been wholly formed from them. For it has happened, that the shells dissolving by very slow degrees, and the matter having nicely and exactly filled all the cavities within, this matter, after the shells have perished, has preserved exactly and regularly the whole print of their internal surface. Of these there are various kinds found in our pits: many of them resembling those of our own shores: and many others that are only to be found on the coasts of other countries. There are some shells resembling those that are never stranded upon our coasts, but that always remain in the deep: and many more there are which we can assimilate with no shells in our pits, but also fishes and corals in great abundance; together with almost every sort of marine production.

It is extraordinary enough, however, that the common red coral, though so very frequent at sea, is scarce seen in the fossil world, nor is there any account of its having ever been met with. But to compensate for this, there are all the kinds of the white coral now known; and many other kinds of that substance with which we are acquainted. Of animals there are various parts; the vertebrae of whales, and the mouths of lesser fishes; these, with teeth also of various kinds, are found in the cabinets of the curious: where they receive long Greek names, which it is neither the intention nor the province of this work to enumerate. Indeed, few readers would think themselves much improved, should I proceed with enumerating the various classes of the Conicthyodontes, Polypleptoginglimi, or the Orthoceratites. These names, which mean no great matter when they are explained, may serve to guide in the furnishing the page of instructive history.

From all these instances we see in what abundance these petrefactions are to be found; and, indeed, Mr. Buffon (to whose accounts we added some) has not been sparing in the variety of his quotations concerning the places where they are mostly to be found. However, I am surprised that he should have omitted the mention of one which, in some measure more than any of the rest, would have much strengthened his theory. We are informed, by almost every traveller that has described the pyramids of Egypt, that one of them is entirely built of a kind of freestone, in which these petrified shells are found in great abundance. This being the case, it may be conjectured—as we have accounts of these pyramids among the earliest records of mankind, and of their being built so long before the age of Herodotus (who lived but fifteen hundred years after the flood) that even the Egyptian priests could tell neither the time nor the cause of their erection—I say it may be conjectured that they were erected but a short time after the flood. It is not very likely, therefore, that the marine substances found in one of them had time to be formed into a part of the solid stone, either during the deluge or immediately after it; and consequently their petrification must have been before that period. And this is the opinion Mr. Buffon has all along so strenu-

ously endeavoured to maintain—having given specious reasons to prove that such shells were laid in the beds where they are now found, not only before the deluge, but even antecedent to the formation of man, at the time when the whole earth, as he supposes, was buried beneath a covering of waters.

But while there are many reasons to persuade us that these extraneous fossils have been deposited by the sea, there is one fact that will abundantly serve to convince us that the earth was habitable, if not inhabited, before these marine substances came to be thus deposited; for we find fossil-trees, which no doubt once grew upon the earth, as deep, and as much in the body of solid rocks, as these shells are found to be. Some of these fallen trees, also, have lain at least as long, if not longer, in the earth than the shells, as they have been found sunk deep in a marly substance composed of decayed shells and other marine productions. Mr. Buffon has proved that fossil-shells could not have been deposited in such quantities all at once by the flood; and I think, from the above instance, it is pretty plain that, however they were deposited, the earth was covered with trees before their deposition; and, consequently, that the sea could not have made a very permanent stay. How, then, shall we account for these extraordinary appearances in Nature? A suspension of all assent is certainly the first, although the most mortifying conduct. For my own part, were I to offer a conjecture—and all that has been said upon this subject is only conjecture—instead of supposing them to be the remains of animals belonging to the sea, I would consider them rather as bred in the numerous fresh-water lakes that, in primeval times, covered the face of uncultivated Nature. Some of these shells we know to belong to fresh waters; some can be assimilated to none of the marine shells now known: why, therefore, may we not as well ascribe the production of all to fresh waters where we do not find them, as we do that of the latter to the sea only where we never find them? We know that lakes, and lands also, have produced animals that are now no longer existing; why, therefore, might not these fossil productions be among the number? I grant that this is making a very harsh supposition; but I cannot avoid thinking that it is not attended with so many embarrassments as some of the former, and that it is much easier to believe that these shells were bred in fresh water, than that the sea had for a long time covered the tops of the highest mountains.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF THE EARTH.

Having, in some measure, got free from the regions of conjecture, let us now proceed to a description of the earth as we find it by examination, and observe its internal composition, as far as it has been the subject of experience, or exposed to human inquiry. These inquiries, indeed, have been carried but to a very little depth below its surface; and even in that disquisition men have been conducted more by motives of avarice than of curiosity. The deepest mine (which is that at Cotteburg, in Hungary) reaches not more than three thousand feet deep; but what proportion does that bear to the depth of the terrestrial globe, down to the centre, which is above four thousand miles? All, therefore, that has been said of the earth, to a deeper degree, is merely fabulous or conjectural. We may suppose with one, that it as a globe of glass (Buffon); with another, a sphere of heated iron (Whiston); with a third, a great mass of waters (Burnet); and with a fourth, one dreadful volcano (Kircher). But let us, at the same time, show our consciousness that all these are but suppositions.

Upon examining the earth where it has been opened to any depth, the first thing that occurs is the different layers or beds of which it is composed—these all lying horizontally one over the other like the leaves of a book, and each of them composed of materials that increase in weight as they lie deeper. This is, in general, the disposition of the different materials where the earth seems to have remained unmolested; but this order is frequently inverted—and we cannot tell whether from its original formation or from accidental causes. Of different substances, thus disposed, the far greatest part of our globe consists, from its surface downwards to the greatest depths we ever dig or mine.

The first coat that is most commonly found at the surface is that light coat of blackish mold, which is by some called "garden-earth." With this the earth is everywhere invested, unless it be washed off by rains, or removed by some other external violence. This seems to have been formed from animal and vegetable bodies decaying, and thus turning into its substance. It also serves again as a store-house, from whence animal and vegetable nature are renewed; and thus are all vital blessings continued with unceasing circulation. This earth, however, is not to be supposed entirely pure, but is mixed up with much stony and gravelly matter from the layers lying immediately beneath it. It generally happens that the soil is fertile in proportion to the quantity that this purified mold bears to the gravelly mixture; and as the former predominates, so far is the vegetation upon it more luxuriant. It is this external covering that supplies man with all the true riches he enjoys. He may bring up gold and jewels from greater depths; but they are merely the toys of a capricious being—things upon which he has placed an imaginary value, and for which fools alone part with the more substantial blessings of life. "It is this earth," says Pliny, "that, like a kind mother, receives us at our birth, and sustains us when born. It is this alone, of all the elements around us, that is never found an enemy to man. The body of waters deluge him with rains, oppress him with hail, and drown him with inundations. The air rushes in storms, prepares the tempest, or lights up the volcano. But the earth, gentle and indulgent, ever subservient to the wants of man, spreads his walks with flowers and his table with plenty; returns with interest every good committed to her care; and, though she produces the poison, she still supplies the antidote; though constantly teased to furnish the luxuries of man than his necessities, yet even to the last she continues her kind indulgence, and, when life is over, she piously covers his remains in her bosom."

This external and fruitful layer which covers the earth is, as was said, in a state of continual change. Vegetables, which are naturally fixed and rooted to the same place, receive their adventitious nourishment from the surrounding earth and water; animals, which change from place to place, are supported by these, or by each other. Both, however, having for a time enjoyed a life adapted to their nature, give back to the earth those spoils which they had borrowed for a short space, yet still to be quickened again into fresh existence. But the deposits they make are of very dissimilar kinds, and the earth is very differently enriched by their continuance. These countries that have for a long time supported man and animals have been observed to become every day more barren; while, on the contrary, those desolate places in which vegetables only are abundantly produced are known to be possessed of amazing fertility. "In regions which are uninhabited," says Mr. Buffon, "where the forests are not cut down, and where animals do not feed upon the plants, the bed of vegetable earth is constantly increasing. In all woods, and even in those which are often cut, there is a layer of earth, five or six inches thick, which has been formed by the leaves, branches, and bark which fall and rot upon the ground.

I have frequently observed, on a Roman way that crosses Burgundy for a long extent, that there is a bed of black earth, of more than a foot thick, gathered over the stony pavement, on which several trees of a considerable size are supported. This I have found to be nothing else than an earth formed by decayed leaves and branches, which have been converted by time into a black soil. Now, as vegetables draw much more of their nourishment from the air and water than they do from the earth, it must follow that, in rotting upon the ground, they must give more to the soil than they have taken from it. Hence, therefore, in woods kept a long time without cutting, the soil below increases to a considerable depth; and such we actually find the soil in those American wilds where the forests have been undisturbed for ages. But it is otherwise where men and animals have long subsisted; for as they make a considerable consumption of wood and plants, both for firing and other uses, they take more from the earth than they return to it. It follows, therefore, that the bed of vegetable earth in an inhabited country must be always diminishing, and must at length resemble the soil of Arabia Petrea, and other provinces in the East, which, having been long inhabited, are now become plains of salt and sand, the fixed salt always remaining while the other volatile parts have flown away."

If from this external surface we descend deeper, and view the earth cut perpendicularly downwards, either in the banks of great rivers or steepy sea-shores; or, going still deeper, if we observe it in quarries or mines, we shall find its layers regularly disposed in their proper order. We must not expect, however, to find them of the same kind and thickness in every place, as they differ in different soils and situations. Sometimes marl is seen to be over sand, and sometimes under it. The most common disposition is, that under the first earth is found gravel or sand; then clay or marl, then chalk or coal, marbles, ores, sands, gravels—and thus an alternation of these substances, each growing more dense as it sinks deeper. The clay, for instance, found at the depth of a hundred feet, is usually more heavy than that found not far from the surface. In a well which was dug at Amsterdam, to the depth of two hundred and thirty feet, the following substances were found, in succession:—Seven feet of vegetable earth, nine of turf, nine of soft clay, eight of sand, four of earth, ten of clay, four of earth, ten of sand, two of clay, four of white sand, one of soft earth, fourteen of sand, eight of clay mixed with sand, four of sea-sand mixed with shells, then a hundred and two feet of soft clay, and then thirty-one feet of sand.

In a well dug at Marly, to the depth of a hundred feet, Mr. Buffon gives us a still more exact enumeration of its layers of earth. "Thirteen of a reddish gravel, two of gravel mingled with a vitrifiable sand, three of slime, two of marl, four of marly stone, five of marl in dust mixed with vitrifiable sand, six of very fine vitrifiable sand, three of earthy marl, three of hard marl, one of gravel, one of eglantine, a stone of the hardness and grain of marble, one of gravelly marl, one of stony marl, two of a coarser kind still, one of vitrifiable sand mixed with fossil-shells, two of fine gravel, three of stony marl, one of coarse powdered marl, one of stone, calcinable like marble, three of grey sand, two of white sand, one of red sand streaked with white, eight of grey sand with shells, three of very fine sand, three of grit, four of red sand streaked with white, three of white sand, and fifteen of reddish vitrifiable sand."

In this manner the earth is everywhere found in beds over beds, and, what is still remarkable, each of them, as far as it extends, always maintains exactly the same thickness. It is found, also, that, as we proceed to considerable depths, every layer grows thicker. Thus, in the adduced instances we might have observed that the last layer was fifteen feet thick; while most of the others were not above eight; and this might have gone much

deeper for aught we can tell, as before they got through it the workmen ceased digging.

These layers are sometimes very extensive, and often are found to spread over a space of some leagues in circumference. But it must not be supposed that they are uniformly continued over the whole globe without any interruption; on the contrary, they are ever, at small intervals, cracked through as it were by perpendicular fissures—the earth resembling, in this respect, the muddy bottom of a pond, from whence the water has been dried up by the sun, and thus gaping in several chinks, which descend in a direction perpendicular to its surface. These fissures are many times found empty, but oftener closed up with adventitious substances which the rain, or some other accidental causes, have conveyed to fill their cavities. Their openings are not less different than their contents—some being not above half an inch wide, some a foot, and some several hundred yards asunder. These last form those dreadful chasms that are to be found in the Alps, at the edge of which the traveller stands dreading to look down at the immeasurable gulf below. These amazing clefts are well known to such as have passed these mountains, where a chasm frequently presents itself several hundred feet deep, and as many over, at the edge of which the way lies. It often happens, also, that the road leads along the bottom, and then the spectator observes on each side frightful precipices several hundred yards above him, the sides of which correspond so exactly with each other, that they evidently seem torn asunder.

But these chasms to be found in the Alps are nothing to what Ovalle tells us are to be seen in the Andes. These amazing mountains, in comparison of which the former are but little hills, have their fissures in proportion to their greatness. In some places they are a mile wide, and deep in proportion; and there are some others that, running under-ground, in extent resemble a forest.

Of this kind also is that cavern called "Eldenhole," in Derbyshire; which, Dr. Plot tells us, was founded by a line of eight and twenty hundred feet, without finding the bottom, or meeting with water: and yet the mouth at the top is not above forty yards over. This immeasurable cavern runs perpendicularly downward; and the sides of it seem to tally so plainly as to show that they once were united. Those who come to visit the place generally procure stones to be thrown into its mouth; and these are heard, for several minutes, falling and striking against the sides of the cavern, producing a sound that resembles distant thunder, dying away as the stone goes deeper.

Of this kind also is that dreadful cavern described by Ælian, his account of which the reader may not have met with. "In the country of the Arrian Indians is to be seen an amazing chasm, which is called The Gulph of Pluto. The depth and the recesses of this horrid place are as extensive as they are unknown. Neither the natives, nor the curious who visit it, are able to tell how it first was made, or to what depths it descends. The Indians continually drive thither great multitudes of animals, more than three thousand at a time, of different kinds, sheep, horses, and goats; and, with an absurd superstition, force them into the cavity, from whence they never return. Their several sounds, however, are heard as they descend; the bleating of sheep, the lowing of oxen, and the neighing of horses, issuing up to the mouth of the cavern. Nor do these sounds cease, as the place is continually furnished with a fresh supply."

There are many more of these dreadful perpendicular fissures in different parts of the earth; with accounts of which Kircher, Gaffarellus, and others who have given histories of the wonders of the subterranean world, abundantly supplied us. The generality of readers, however, will consider them with less astonishment, when they are informed of their being common all over the earth; that in every field, in every quarry, these per-

pendicular fissures are to be found, either still gaping, or filled with matter that has accidentally closed their interstices. The inattentive spectator neglects the inquiry, but their being common is partly the cause that excites the philosophers attention to them; the irregularities of Nature he is often content to let pass unexamined; but when a constant and a common appearance presents itself, every return of the object is a fresh call to his curiosity; and the chink in the next quarry becomes as great a matter of wonder as the chasm in Eldenhole. Philosophers have long, therefore, endeavoured to find out the cause of these perpendicular fissures, which our own countrymen, Woodward and Ray, were the first that found to be so common and universal. Mr. Buffon supposes them to be cracks made by the sun, in drying up the earth immediately after its emission from the deep. The heat of the sun is very probably a principal cause; but it is not right to ascribe to one only, what we find may be the result of many. Earthquakes, severe frosts, bursting waters, and storms tearing up the roots of trees, have in our own times produced them: and to this variety of causes we must, at present, be content to assign those that have happened before we had opportunities for observation

CHAP. VII.

OF CAVES AND SUBTERRANEAN PASSAGES THAT SINK, BUT NOT PERPENDICULARLY, INTO THE EARTH.

In surveying the subterranean wonders of the globe, besides those fissures that descend perpendicularly, we frequently find others that descend but a little way, and then spread themselves often to a great extent below the surface. Many of these caverns, it must be confessed, may be the production of art and human industry—retreats made to protect the oppressed or to shelter the spoiler. The famous labyrinth of Candia, for instance, is supposed to be entirely the work of art. Mr. Tournefort assures us that it bears the impression of human industry, and that great pains have been bestowed upon its formation. The stone-quarry of Maestricht is evidently made by labour: carts enter at its mouth and load within, then return and discharge their freight into boats that lie on the brink of the river Maese. This quarry is so large, that forty thousand people may take shelter in it; and in general serves for this purpose when armies march that way—becoming then an impregnable retreat to the people that live thereabout. Nothing can be more beautiful than this cavern when lighted up with torches; for there are thousands of square pillars, in large level walks, about twenty feet high, and all wrought with much neatness and regularity. In this vast grotto there is very little rubbish—which shows both the goodness of the stone and the carefulness of the workmen. To add to its beauty, there are also, in various parts of it, little pools of water for the convenience of the men and cattle. It is also remarkable that no droppings are seen to fall from the roof, nor are the walks any way wet under foot, except in cases of great rains, where the water gets in by the airshafts. The salt mines in Poland are still more spacious than these. Some of the catacombs, both in Egypt and Italy, are said to be very extensive. But no part of the world has a greater number of artificial caverns than Spain, which were made to serve as retreats to the Christians against the fury of the Moors, when the latter conquered that country. However, an account of the works of Art does not properly belong to a Natural History. It will be enough to observe, that though caverns be found in every country, far the greatest part of them have been fashioned only by the hand of Nature. Their size is found to be beyond the power of man to have effected,

and their forms but ill-appointed to the conveniences of a human habitation. In some places, indeed, we find mankind still make use of them as houses, particularly in those countries where the climate is very severe; but in general they are deserted by every race of meaner animals except the bat: these nocturnal, solitary creatures are the only inhabitants—and these only in such whose descent is sloping, or, at least, not directly perpendicular.

There is scarce a country in the world without its natural caverns; and many new ones are discovered every day. Of those in England, Oakley-hole, the Devil's-hole, and Penpark-hole, have been often described. The former, which lies on the south-side of Mendip-hills, within a mile of the town of Wells, is much resorted to by travellers. To conceive a just idea of this, we must imagine a precipice of more than a hundred yards high, on the side of a mountain which shelves away a mile above it. In this is an opening not very large, into which you enter, going along upon a rocky, uneven pavement, sometimes ascending, and sometimes descending. The roof as you advance grows higher, and in some places is fifty feet from the floor; in other places, however, it is so low, that a man must stoop to pass. It extends itself in length about two hundred yards; and from every part of the roof, and the floor, there are formed sparry concretions of various figures, which, by strong imaginations, have been likened to men, lions, and organs. At the farthest part of this cavern rises a stream of water, well stored with fish, large enough to turn a mill, and which discharges itself near the entrance.

Penpark-hole, in Gloucestershire, is almost as remarkable as the former. Captain Sturmer descended into this by a rope twenty-five fathoms perpendicular, and at the bottom found a very large vault in the shape of a horse-shoe. The floors consisted of a kind of white stone enamelled with lead ore, and the pendant rocks were glazed with spar. Walking forward on this stony pavement for some time, he came to a great river twenty fathoms broad and eight fathoms deep; and, having been informed that it ebbed and flowed with the sea, he remained in this gloomy abode for five hours, to make an exact observation. He did not find, however, any alteration whatsoever in its appearance. But his curiosity was ill requited, for it cost this unfortunate gentleman his life: immediately after his return he was seized with an unusual and violent head-ache, which threw him into a fever, of which he died soon after.

But of all the subterranean caverns now known, the grotto of Antiparos is the most remarkable, as well for its extent, as for the beauty of its sparry incrustations. This celebrated cavern was first discovered by one Magni, an Italian traveller, about a hundred years ago, at Antiparos, an inconsiderable island of the Archipelago. The account he gives of it is long and inflated, but upon the whole amusing. "Having been informed," says he, "by the natives of Paros, that in the little island of Antiparos, which lies about two miles from the former, of a gigantic statue that was to be seen at the mouth of a cavern in that place, it was resolved that we (the French consul and himself) should pay it a visit. In pursuance of this resolution, after we had landed on the island, and walked about four miles through the midst of beautiful plains and sloping woodlands, we at length came to a little hill, on the side of which yawned a most horrid cavern, that with its gloom at first struck us with terror, and almost repressed curiosity. Recovering the first surprise, however, we entered boldly; and had not proceeded above twenty paces when the supposed statue of the gaint presented itself to our view. We quickly perceived that what the ignorant natives had been terrified at as a giant, was nothing more than a sparry concretion, formed by the water dropping from the roof of the cave, and by degrees hardening into a

figure that their fears had formed into a monster. Incited by this extraordinary appearance, we were induced to proceed still farther, in quest of new adventures in this subterranean abode. As we proceeded, new wonders offered themselves; the spars, formed into trees and shrubs, presented a kind of petrified grove; some white, some green; and all receding in due perspective. They struck us with the more amazement, as we knew them to be mere productions of Nature, who, hitherto in solitude, had, in her playful moments, dressed the scene as if for her own amusement.

"But we had as yet seen but a few of the wonders of the place; and were introduced only into the portico of this amazing temple. In one corner of this half-illuminated recess, there appeared an opening of about three feet wide, which seemed to lead to a place totally dark, and that, one of the natives assured us, contained nothing more than a reservoir of water. Upon this we tried by throwing down some stones, which, rumbling along the sides of the descent for some time, the sound seemed at last quashed in a bed of water. In order, however, to be more certain, we sent in a Levantine mariner, who, by the promise of a good reward, with a flambeau in his hand, ventured into this narrow aperture. After continuing within it for about a quarter of an hour, he returned, carrying some beautiful pieces of white spar in his hand, which Art could neither imitate nor equal. Upon being informed by him that the place was full of these beautiful incrustations, I ventured in once more with him, for about fifty paces, anxiously and cautiously descending by a steep and dangerous way. Finding, however, that we came to a precipice which led into a spacious amphitheatre, if I may so call it, still deeper than any other part, we returned, and being provided with a ladder, flambeaux, and other things to expedite our descent, our whole company, man by man, ventured into the same opening, and, descending one after another, we at last saw ourselves all together in the most magnificent part of the cavern.

"Our candles being now all lighted up, and the whole place completely illuminated, never could the eye be presented with a more glittering or a more magnificent scene. The roof all hung with solid icicles, transparent as glass, yet solid as marble. The eye could scarce reach the lofty and noble ceiling; the sides were regularly formed with spars; and the whole presented the idea of a magnificent theatre, illuminated with an immense profusion of lights. The floor consisted of solid marble; and, in several places, magnificent columns, thorns, altars, and other objects appeared, as if Nature had designed to mock the curiosities of Art. Our voices, upon speaking or singing, were redoubled to an astonishing loudness; and upon the firing of a gun, the noise and reverberations were almost deafening. In the midst of this grand amphitheatre rose a concretion of about fifteen feet high, that in some measure resembled an altar.

"Below even this spacious grotto there seemed another cavern, down which I ventured with my former mariner, and descended about fifty paces by means of a rope. I at last arrived at a small spot of level ground, where the bottom appeared different from that of the amphitheatre, being composed of soft clay, yielding to the pressure, and in which I thrust a stick to about six feet deep. In this, however, as above, numbers of the most beautiful crystals were formed, one of which particularly resembled a table. Upon our egress from this amazing cavern we perceived a Greek inscription upon a rock at the mouth, but so obliterated by time that we could not read it. It seemed to import that one Antipater, in the time of Alexander, had come thither; but whether he had penetrated into the depths of the cavern he does not think fit to inform us."

Such is the account of this beautiful scene as commu-

nicated in a letter to Kircher. We have another, and a more copious, description by Tournefort; but I have given the above, both because it was communicated by the first discoverer, and because it is a simple narrative of facts without any reasoning upon them. According to Tournefort's account, indeed, we might conclude, from the rapid growth of the spars in this grotto, that it must every year be growing narrower, and that it must in time be entirely choked up with them; but no such thing has happened hitherto, and the grotto at this day continues as spacious as we ever knew it.

This is not the place for an inquiry into the seeming vegetation of those stony substances with which this and almost every cavern are incrustated; it is enough to observe, in general, that they are formed by an accumulation of that little gritty matter which is carried thither by the waters, and which in time acquires the hardness of marble. What in this place more imports us to know is, how these amazing hollows in the earth came to be formed; and I think, in the three instances above mentioned, it is pretty evident that their excavation has been owing to water. These finding subterranean passages under the earth, and by long degrees hollowing the beds in which they flowed, the ground above them has slipped down closer to their surface, leaving the upper layers of the earth or stone still suspended—the ground which sinks upon the face of the waters forming the floor of the cavern; the ground, or rock that keeps suspended, forming the roof. And, indeed, there are but few of these caverns found without water, either within them, or near enough to point out their formation.

CHAP. VIII.

OF MINES, DAMPS, AND MINERAL VAPOURS.

The caverns which we have been describing generally carry us but a very little way below the surface of the earth: two hundred feet, at the utmost, is as much as the lowest of them is found to sink. The perpendicular fissures run much deeper, but few persons have been bold enough to venture down to their deepest recesses; and some few who have tried have been able to bring back no tidings of the place—for unfortunately they left their lives below. The excavations of art have conducted us much further into the bowels of the globe. Some mines in Hungary are known to be a thousand yards perpendicular downwards; and I have been informed, by good authority, of a coal-mine in the north of England a hundred yards deeper still.

It is beside our present purpose to inquire into the peculiar construction and contrivance of these, which more properly belong to the history of fossils. It will be sufficient to observe in this place, that as we descend into the mines the various layers of earth are seen as we have described them, and in some of these are always found the metals or minerals for which the mine has been dug. Thus frequently gold is found dispersed and mixed with clay and gravel; sometimes it is mixed with other metallic bodies, stones, or bitumens: and sometimes united with that most obstinate of all substances, platina, from which scarce any art can separate it. Silver is sometimes found quite pure, sometimes mixed with other substances and minerals. Copper is found in beds mixed with various substances—marbles, sulphurs, and pyrites. Tin (the ore of which is heavier than that of any other metal) is generally found mixed with every kind of matter. Lead is also equally common; and iron we well know can be extracted from all the substances upon earth.

The variety of substances which are thus found in the bowels of the earth in their native state have a very different appearance from what they are afterwards

taught to assume by human industry. The richest metals are very often less glittering and splendid than the most useless marcasites, and the basest ores are in general the most beautiful to the eye.

This variety of substances which composes the internal parts of our globe is productive of equal varieties, both above and below its surface. The combination of the different minerals with each other—the heats which arise from their mixture—the vapours they diffuse—the fires which they generate, or the colds which they sometimes produce, are all either noxious or salutary to man; so that in this great elaboratory of Nature a thousand benefits and calamities are forging of which we are wholly unconscious; and it is happy for us that we are so.

Upon our descent into mines of considerable depth, the cold seems to increase from the mouth as we descend; but after passing very low down, we begin by degrees to come into a warmer air, which sensibly grows hotter as we go deeper, till at last the labourers can scarce bear any covering as they continue working.

This difference in the air was supposed by Boyle to proceed from magazines of fire that lay nearer the centre, and that diffused their heat to the adjacent regions. But we now know that it may be ascribed to more obvious causes. In some mines, the composition of the earth all around is of such a nature, that upon the admission of water or air it frequently becomes hot, and often bursts out into eruptions. Besides this, as the external air cannot readily reach the bottom, or be renewed there, an observable heat is perceived below, without the necessity of recurring to the central heat for an explanation.

Hence, therefore, there are two principal causes of the warmth at the bottom of mines—the heat of the substances of which the sides are composed, and the want of renovation in the air below. Any sulphureous substance mixed with iron produces a very great heat by the admission of water. If, for instance, a quantity of sulphur be mixed with a proportionable share of iron filings, and both kneaded together into a soft paste with water, they will soon grow hot, and at last produce a flame. This experiment, produced by art, is very commonly effected within the bowels of the earth by Nature. Sulphurs and irons are intimately blended together, and want only the mixture of water or air to excite their heat; and this, when once raised, is communicated to all bodies that lie within the sphere of their operation. Those beautiful minerals called “marcasites” and “pyrites,” are often of this composition; and wherever they are found, either by imbibing the moisture of the air or having been by any means combined with water, they render the mine considerably hot.

The want of fresh air, also, at these depths is, as we have said, another reason for their being found much hotter. Indeed, without the assistance of art, the bottom of most mines would from this cause be insupportable. To remedy this inconvenience, the miners are often obliged to sink, at some convenient distance from the mouth of the pit where they are at work, another pit, which joins the former below, and which in Derbyshire is called an air-shaft. Through this the air circulates; and thus the workmen are enabled to breathe freely at the bottom of the place, which becomes, as Mr. Boyle affirms, very commodious for respiration, and also very temperate as to heat and cold. Mr. Locke, however, who has left us an account of the Mendip-mines, seems to present a different picture. “The descent into these is exceeding difficult and dangerous; for they are not sunk, like wells, perpendicularly, but as the crannies of the rocks happen to run. The constant method is to swing down by a rope placed under the arms, and clamber along by applying both feet and hands to the sides of the narrow passage. The air is conveyed into them through a little passage that runs along the sides from the top, where

they set up some turfs on the lee-side of the hole, to catch and force it down. These turfs being removed to the windy side, or laid over the mouth of the hole, the miners below presently want breath, and faint; and if sweet smelling flowers chance to be placed there, they immediately lose their fragrantcy, and stink like carrion." An air so very putrifying can never be very commodious for respiration.

Indeed, if we examine the complexion of most miners, we shall be very well able to form a judgment of the unwholesomeness of the place where they are confined. Their pale and sallow looks show how much the air is damaged by passing through those deep and winding ways, that are rendered humid by damps, or warmed with noxious exhalations. But although every mine is unwholesome, all are not equally so. Coal-mines are generally less noxious than those of tin; tin than those of copper; but of all, none are so dreadfully destructive as those of quicksilver. At the mines near the village of Idra, nothing can adequately describe the deplorable infirmities of such as fill the hospital there; emaciated and crippled, every limb contracted or convulsed, and some in a manner transpiring quicksilver at every pore. There was one man, says Dr. Pope, who was not in the mines above half a year, and yet whose body was so impregnated with this mineral, that, putting a piece of brass money in his mouth, or rubbing it between his fingers, it immediately became as white as if it had been washed over with quicksilver. In this manner all the workmen are killed sooner or later; first becoming paralytic, and then dying consumptive: and all this they sustain for the trifling reward of sevenpence a-day.

But these metallic mines are not so noxious from their own vapours as from those of the substances with which the ores are usually united, such as arsenic, cinnabar, bitumen, or vitriol. From the fumes of these, variously combined, and kept inclosed, are produced those various damps that put on so many dreadful forms, and are usually so fatal. Sometimes these noxious vapours are perceived by the delightful fragrance of their smell, somewhat resembling the pea-blossom in bloom, from whence one kind of damp has its name. The miners are not deceived, however, by its flattering appearances; but as they thus have timely notice of its coming, they avoid it while it continues, which is generally during the whole summer season. Another shows its approach by the burning of the candles, which seem to collect their flame into a globe of light, and thus gradually lessen, till they are quite extinguished. From this, also, the miners frequently escape; however, such as have the misfortune to be caught in it either swoon away and are suffocated, or slowly recover in excessive agonies. Here, also, is a third, called the fulminating damp, much more dangerous than either of the former, as it strikes down all before it like a flash of gunpowder, without giving any warning of its approach. But there is still another, more deadly than all the rest, which is found in those places where the vapour has been long confined, and has been by some accident set free. The air rushing out from thence always goes upon deadly errands; and scarce any escape to describe the symptoms of its operations.

Some colliers in Scotland, working near an old mine that had been long closed up, happened inadvertently to open a hole into it from the pit where they were then employed. By great good fortune they at that time perceived their error, and instantly fled for their lives. The next day, however, they were resolved to renew their work in the same pit, and eight of them ventured down, without any great apprehensions; but they had scarce got to the bottom of the stairs that led to the pit, but, coming within the vapour, they all instantly dropped down dead, as if they had been shot. Amongst these unfortunate poor men, there was one whose wife was informed he was stifled in the mine; and, as he hap-

pened to be next the entrance, she so far ventured down as to see where he lay. As she approached the place, the sight of her husband inspired her with a desire to rescue him, if possible, from that dreadful situation; though a little reflection might have shown her it was then too late. But nothing could deter her; she ventured forward, and had scarce touched him with her hand, when the damp prevailed, and the misguided but faithful creature fell dead by his side.

Thus, the vapours found beneath the surface of the earth are very various in their effects upon the constitution; and they are not less in their appearances. There are many kinds that seemingly are no way prejudicial to health, but in which the workmen breathe freely; and yet in these, if a lighted candle be introduced, they immediately take fire, and the whole cavern at once becomes one furnace of flame. In mines, therefore, subject to damps of this kind, they are obliged to have recourse to a very peculiar contrivance to supply sufficient light for their operations. This is by a great wheel, the circumference of which is beset with flints, which, striking against steels placed for that purpose at the extremity, a stream of fire is produced which affords light enough, and yet does not set fire to the mineral vapour.

Of this kind are the vapours of the mines about Bristol; on the contrary, in other mines, a single spark struck out from flint and steel would set the whole shaft in a flame. In such, therefore, every precaution is used to avoid a collision—the workmen making use only of wooden instruments in digging, and being cautious before they enter the mine to take out even the nails from their shoes. Whence this strange difference should arise—that the vapours of some mines catch fire with a spark, and others only with a flame—is a question that we must be content to leave in obscurity, till we know more of the nature both of mineral vapour and of fire. This only we may observe, that gunpowder will readily fire with a spark, but not with the flame of a candle; on the other hand, spirits of wine will ignite with the flame of a candle, but not with a spark. But even here the cause of this difference as yet remains a secret.

As, from this account of mines, it appears that the internal parts of the globe are filled with vapours of various kinds, it is not surprising that they should at different times reach the surface, and there put on various appearances. In fact, much of the salubrity and much of the unwholesomeness of climates and soils is to be ascribed to these vapours, which make their way from the bowels of the earth upwards, and refresh or taint the air with their exhalations. Salt mines, being naturally cold, send forth a degree of coldness to the external air to comfort and refresh it; on the contrary, metallic mines are known not only to warm it with their exhalations, but often to destroy all kinds of vegetation by their volatile corrosive fumes. In some mines dense vapours are plainly perceived issuing from their mouths, and sensibly warm to the touch. In some places, neither snow nor ice will continue on the ground that covers a mine; and over others the fields are found destitute of verdure. The inhabitants, also, are rendered dreadfully sensible of these subterraneous exhalations—being affected with such a variety of evils, proceeding entirely from this cause, that books have been professedly written upon this class of disorders.

Nor are these vapours which thus escape to the surface of the earth entirely unconfined, for they are frequently, in a manner, circumscribed to a spot; the grotto Del Cane, near Naples, is an instance of this; the noxious effects of which have made that cavern so very famous. This grotto, which has so much engaged the attention of travellers, lies within four miles of Naples, and is situated near a large lake of clear and wholesome water. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the landscape which this lake affords, being surrounded with hills covered with forests of the most beautiful verdure, and

the whole bearing a kind of amphitheatrical appearance. However, this region, beautiful as it appears, is almost entirely uninhabited—the few peasants that necessity compels to reside there looking quite consumptive and ghastly, from the poisonous exhalations that rise from the earth. The famous grotto lies on the side of a hill, near which place a peasant resides, who keeps a number of dogs for the purpose of showing the experiment to the curious. These poor animals always seem perfectly sensible of the approach of a stranger, and endeavour to get out of the way; however, their attempts being perceived, they are taken and brought to the grotto—the noxious effects of which they have so frequently experienced. Upon entering this place, which is a little cave, or hole rather, dug into the hill, about eight feet high, and twelve feet long, the observer can see no visible marks of its pestilential vapour; only to about a foot from the bottom, the wall seems to be tinged with a colour resembling that which is given by stagnant waters. When the dog, this poor philosophical martyr, as some have called him, is held above this mark, he does not seem to feel the smallest inconvenience; but when his head is thrust down lower, he struggles to get free for a little; but in the space of four or five minutes he seems to lose all sensation, and is taken out seemingly without life. Being plunged into the neighbouring lake he quickly recovers, and is permitted to run home, seemingly without the smallest injury.

This vapour, which thus for a time suffocates, is of the humid kind, as it extinguishes a torch and sullies a looking-glass; but there are other vapours perfectly inflammable, and that only require the approach of a candle to set them blazing. Of this kind was the burning well at Brosely, which is now stopped up; the vapour of which, when a candle was brought within about a foot of the surface of the water, caught flame like spirits of wine, and continued blazing for several hours after. Of this kind, also, are the perpetual fires in the kingdom of Persia. In that province where the worshippers of fire hold their chief mysteries, the whole surface of the earth, for some extent, seems impregnated with inflammable vapours. A reed stuck into the ground continues to burn like a flambeau; a hole made beneath the surface of the earth instantly becomes a furnace, answering all the purposes of a culinary fire. There they make lime by merely burying the stones in the earth, and watch with veneration the appearances of a flame that has not been extinguished for time immemorial. How different are men in various climates! This deluded people worship the vapours as a deity, which, in other parts of the world, are considered as one of the greatest evils.

CHAP. IX.

OF VOLCANOES AND EARTHQUAKES.

Mines and caverns, as we have said, reach but a very little way under the surface of the earth, and we have hitherto had no opportunities of exploring farther. Without all doubt, the wonders that are still unknown surpass those that have been represented, as there are depths of thousands of miles which are hidden from our inquiry. The only tidings we have from those unfathomable regions are by means of volcanoes—those burning mountains that seem to discharge their materials from the lowest abysses of the earth. A volcano may be considered as a cannon of immense size, the mouth of which is often near two miles in circumference. From this dreadful aperture are discharged torrents of flame and sulphur, and rivers of melted metal. Whole clouds of smoke and ashes, with rocks of enormous size, are discharged to many miles distance; so that the force

of the most powerful artillery is out as a breeze agitating a feather in comparison. In the deluge of fire and melted matter which runs down the sides of the mountain, whole cities are sometimes swallowed up and consumed. Those rivers of liquid fire are sometimes two hundred feet deep, and, when they harden, frequently form considerable hills. Nor is the danger of these confined to the eruption only; the force of the internal fire, struggling for vent, frequently produces earthquakes through the whole region where the volcano is situated. So dreadful have been these appearances, that men's terrors have added new horrors to the scene, and they have regarded as prodigies what we know to be the result of natural causes. Some philosophers have considered them as vents communicating with the fires of the centre, and the ignorant as the mouths of hell itself. Astonishment produces fear, and fear superstition; the inhabitants of Iceland believe the bellowings of Hecla are nothing else but the cries of the damned, and that its eruptions are contrived to increase their tortures.

But if we regard this astonishing scene of terror with a more tranquil and inquisitive eye, we shall find that these conflagrations are produced by very obvious and natural causes. We have already been apprised of the various mineral substances in the bottom of the earth, and their aptness to burst out into flames. Marcasites and pyrites in particular, by being humified with water or air, contract this heat, and often endeavour to expand with irresistible explosion. These, therefore, being lodged in the depths of the earth or the bosom of mountains, and being either washed by the accidental influx of waters below or fanned by air, insinuating itself through perpendicular fissures from above, take fire a first by only heaving in earthquakes, but at length by bursting through every obstacle, and making their dreadful discharge in a volcano.

These volcanoes are found in all parts of the earth. In Europe there are three that are very remarkable—Ætna in Sicily, Vesuvius in Italy, and Hecla in Iceland. Ætna has been a volcano for ages immemorial. Its eruptions are very violent, and its discharge has been known to cover the earth sixty-eight feet deep. In the year 1637, an eruption of this mountain produced an earthquake through the whole island for twelve days, overturned many houses, and at last formed a new aperture, which overwhelmed all within five leagues round. The cinders thrown up were driven even into Italy, and its burnings were seen at Malta at the distance of sixty leagues. "There is nothing more awful," says Kircher, "than the eruptions of this mountain, nor nothing more dangerous than attempting to examine its appearances, even long after the eruption has ceased. As we attempt to clamber up its steep sides, every step we take upward the feet sink back half way. Upon arriving near the summit, ashes and snow, with an ill-assorted conjunction, present nothing but objects of desolation. Nor is this the worst, for, as all places are covered over, many caverns are entirely hidden from the sight, into which if the inquirer happens to fall, he sinks to the bottom, and meets inevitable destruction. Upon coming to the edge of the great crater, nothing can sufficiently represent the tremendous magnificence of the scene. A gulf two miles over, and so deep that no bottom can be seen; on the sides pyramidal rocks starting out between apertures that emit smoke and flame; all this accompanied with a sound that never ceases, louder than thunder, strikes the bold with horror, and the religious with veneration for Him that has power to control its burnings."

In the descriptions of Vesuvius or Hecla, we shall find scarce anything but a repetition of the same terrible objects, but rather lessened, as these mountains are not so large as the former. The crater of Vesuvius is but a mile across, according to the same author; whereas that of Ætna is two miles. On this particular, however, we

must place no dependence, as these caverns every day alter—being lessened by the mountains sinking in at one eruption, and enlarged by the fury of another. It is not one of the least remarkable particulars respecting Vesuvius, that Pliny, the naturalist, was suffocated in one of its eruptions; for, his curiosity impelling him too near, he found himself involved in smoke and cinders when it was too late to retire—and his companions hardly escaped to give an account of the misfortune. It was in that dreadful eruption that the city of Herculaneum was overwhelmed, the ruins of which have been lately discovered at sixty feet distance below the surface, and (what is still more remarkable) forty feet below the bed of the sea. One of the most remarkable eruptions of this mountain was in the year 1707, which is finely described by Valetta—a part of whose description I shall beg leave to translate.

“Toward the latter end of summer, in the year 1707, the mount Vesuvius, that had for a long time been silent, now began to give some signs of commotion. Little more than internal murmurs at first were heard, which seemed to contend within the lowest depths of the mountain; no flame, nor even any smoke, was as yet seen. Soon after, some smoke appeared by day and a flame by night, which seemed to brighten all the country. At intervals, also, it shot off substances with a sound much like that of artillery, but which, even at so great a distance as we were at, infinitely exceeded it in greatness. Soon after it began to throw up ashes, which, becoming the sport of the winds, fell at great distances, and some many miles. To this succeeded showers of stones, which killed many inhabitants of the valley, and made dreadful ravage among the cattle. Soon after a torrent of burning matter began to roll down the sides of the mountain, at first with a slow and gentle motion, but soon with increased celerity. The matter thus poured out, when cold, seemed upon inspection to be of vitrified earth, the whole united into a mass of more than stony hardness. But what was particularly observable was, that upon the whole surface of these melted materials a light, spongy stone seemed to float, while the lower body was of the hardest substance, of which our roads are usually made. Hitherto there were no appearances but what had been often remarked before; but on the third or fourth day seeming flashes of lightning were shot forth from the mouth of the mountain, with a noise far exceeding the loudest thunder. These flashes, in colour and brightness, resembled what we usually see in tempests, but they assumed a more twisted and serpentine form. After this followed such clouds of smoke and ashes, that the whole city of Naples, in the midst of the day, was involved in nocturnal darkness, and the nearest friends were unable to distinguish each other in this frightful gloom. If any person attempted to stir without torch-light he was obliged to return, and every part of the city was filled with supplications and terror. At length, after a continuance of some hours, about one o'clock at midnight, the wind blowing from the north, the stars began to be seen; the heavens, although it was night, began to grow brighter; and the eruptions, after a continuance of fifteen days, began to lessen. The torrent of melted matter was seen to extend from the mountain down to the shore; the people began to return to their former dwellings, and the whole face of Nature to resemble its former appearance.”

The famous Bishop Berkley gives an account of one of these eruptions in a manner something different from the above. “In the year 1717, in the middle of April, with much difficulty I reached the top of Mount Vesuvius, in which I saw a vast aperture full of smoke, which hindered me from seeing its depth and figure. I heard within that horrid gulf certain extraordinary sounds, which seemed to proceed from the bowels of the mountain—a sort of murmuring, sighing, dashing sound; and, between whiles, a noise like that of thunder or

cannon, with a clattering like that of tiles falling from the tops of houses into the streets. Sometimes, as the wind changed, the smoke grew thinner, discovering a very ruddy flame, and the circumference of the crater streaked with red and several shades of yellow. After an hour's stay, the smoke, being moved by the wind, gave us short and partial prospects of the great hollow, in the flat bottom of which I could discern two furnaces almost contiguous—that on the left seeming about three yards over, glowing with ruddy flame, and throwing up red hot stones with a hideous noise, which, as they fell back, caused the clattering already noticed. May 8, in the morning, I ascended the top of Vesuvius a second time, and found a different face of things. The smoke, ascending upright, gave a full prospect of the crater, which, as I could judge, was about a mile in circumference, and a hundred yards deep. A conical mount had been formed since my last visit in the middle of the bottom, which I could see was made by the stones, thrown up and fallen back again into the crater. In this new hill remained the two furnaces already mentioned: the one was seen to throw up every three or four minutes, with a dreadful sound, a vast number of red hot stones, at least three hundred feet higher than my head, as I stood upon the brink; but as there was no wind, they fell perpendicularly back from whence they had been discharged. The other was filled with red hot liquid matter, like that in the furnace of a glass-house, raging and working like the waves of the sea, with a short, abrupt noise. This matter would sometimes boil over, and run down the side of the conical hill, appearing at first red hot, but changing colour as it hardened and cooled. Had the wind blown in our faces, we had been in no small danger of stifling by the sulphureous smoke, or being killed by the masses of melted materials that was shot from the bottom; but as the wind was favourable I had an opportunity of surveying this amazing scene for above an hour and a half together. On the 5th of June, after a horrid noise, the mountain was seen at Naples to work over; and about three days after its thunders were renewed so, that not only the windows in the city, but all the houses shook. From that time it continued to overflow, and sometimes at night were seen columns of fire shooting upwards from its summit. On the 20th, when all was thought to be over, the mountain again renewed its terrors, roaring and raging most violently. One cannot form a juster idea of the noise, in the most violent fits of it, than by imagining a mixed sound made up of the raging of a tempest, the murmur of a troubled sea, and the roaring of thunder and artillery, confused together. Though we heard this at the distance of twelve miles, yet it was terrible. I therefore resolved to approach nearer to the mountain; and, accordingly, three or four of us got into a boat, and were set ashore at a little town situated at the foot of the mountain. From thence we rode about four or five miles before we came to the torrent of fire that was descending from the side of the volcano; and here the roaring grew exceeding loud and terrible as we approached. I observed a mixture of colours in the cloud above the crater—green, yellow, red, blue. There was likewise a ruddy dismal light in the air, over the tract where that burning river flowed. These circumstances, set off and augmented by the horrors of the night, made a scene the most uncommon and astonishing I ever saw, which still increased as we approached the burning river. Imagine a vast torrent of liquid fire, rolling from the top down the side of the mountain, and with irresistible fury bearing down and consuming vines, olives, and houses, and divided into different channels, according to the inequalities of the mountain. The largest stream seemed half a mile broad at least, and five miles long. I walked so far before my companions up the mountain, along the side of the river of fire, that I was obliged to retire in great haste, the

sulphureous steam having surprised me, and almost taken away my breath. During our return, which was about three o'clock in the morning, the roaring of the mountain was heard all the way, and we observed it throwing up huge spouts of fire and burning stones, which, falling, resembled the stars in a rocket. Sometimes I observed two or three distinct columns of flame, and sometimes one only, which was large enough to fill the whole crater. These burning columns and fiery stones seemed to be shot a thousand feet perpendicular above the summit of the volcano; and in this manner the mountain was raging for six or eight days after. On the 18th of the same month the whole appearance ended, and the mountain remained perfectly quiet, without any visible smoke or flame."—[The annexed engraving represents an eruption which took place Aug. 2 and 3, 1847.]

The matter which is found to roll down from the mouth of all volcanoes in general resembles the dross that is thrown from a smith's forge. But it is different, perhaps, in various parts of the globe; for, as we have already said, there is not a quarter of the world that has not its volcanoes. In Asia, particularly in the islands of the Indian Ocean, there are many. One of the most famous is that of Albouras, near Mount Taurus; the summit of which is continually on fire, and covers the whole adjacent country with ashes. In the island of Ternate there is a volcano which, some travellers assert, burns most furiously in the times of the equinoxes, because of the winds which then contribute to increase the flames. In the Molucca Islands there are many burning mountains; they are also seen in Japan; and the islands adjacent; and in Java and Sumatra; as well as in other of the Philippine Islands. In Africa there is a cavern, near Fez, which continually sends forth either smoke or flames. In the Cape de Verde Islands, one of them, called the Island del Fuego, continually burns; and the Portuguese, who frequently attempted a settlement there, have as often been obliged to desist. The Peak of Teneriffe is, as everybody knows, a volcano that seldom desists from eruptions. But of all parts of the earth America is the place where those dreadful irregularities of Nature are the most conspicuous. Vesuvius, and Ætna itself, are but mere fireworks in comparison to the burning mountains of the Andes, which, as they are the highest mountains in the world, so also are they the most formidable for their eruptions. The mountain of Arequipa, in Peru, is one of the most celebrated; Tarassa and Malahallo are very considerable; but that of Cotopaxi, in the province of Quito, exceeds anything we have hitherto read or heard of. The mountain of Cotopaxi, as described by Ulloa, is more than three miles perpendicular from the sea; and it became a volcano at the time of the Spaniards' first arrival in that country. A new eruption happened in the year 1743, having been some days preceded by a continual roaring in its bowels. The sound of one of these mountains is not, like that of the volcanoes in Europe, confined to a province, but is heard at 150 miles distance. "An aperture was made," says Ulloa, "in the summit of this immense mountain, and three more, about equal heights, near the middle of its declivity, which was at that time buried under prodigious masses of snow. The ignited substances ejected on that occasion, mixed with an immense quantity of ice and snow melting amidst the flames, were carried down with such astonishing rapidity, that in an instant the valley from Callo to Latacunga was overflowed; and besides its ravages in bearing down the houses of the Indians and other poor inhabitants, great numbers of people lost their lives. The river of Latacunga was the channel of this terrible flood, till, being too small for receiving such a prodigious current, it overflowed the adjacent country, like a vast lake near the town, and carried away all the buildings within its reach. The inhabitants retired into a spot of higher ground behind the town,

of which those parts which stood within the limits of the current were totally destroyed. The dread of still greater devastations did not subside for three days; during which the volcano ejected cinders, while torrents of melted ice and snow poured down its sides. The eruption lasted several days, and was accompanied with terrible roarings of the wind, rushing through the volcano, still louder than the former rumblings in its bowels. At last all was quiet—neither fire nor smoke to be seen nor noise to be heard; till, in the ensuing year, the flames again appeared with recruited violence, forcing their passage through several other parts of the mountain, so that in clear nights the flames, being reflected by the transparent ice, formed an awfully magnificent illumination."

Such is the appearance and the effect of those fires which proceed from the more inward recesses of the earth; for that they generally come from deeper regions than man has hitherto explored I cannot avoid thinking, contrary to the opinion of Mr. Buffon, who supposes them rooted but a very little way below the bed of the mountain. "We can never suppose," says this great naturalist, "that these substances are ejected from any great distance below, if we only consider the great force already required to fling them up to such vast heights above the mouth of the mountain; if we consider the substances thrown up, which we shall find upon inspection to be the same with those of the mountain below; if we take into our consideration that air is always necessary to keep up the flame; but, most of all, if we attend to one particular circumstance—which is, that if these substances were exploded from a vast depth below, the same force required to shoot them up so high would act against the sides of the volcano, and tear the whole mountain in pieces." To all this specious reasoning particular answers might easily be given, as that the length of the funnel increases the force of the explosion; that the sides of the funnel are actually often burst with the great violence of the flame; that air may be supposed at depths at least as far as the perpendicular fires descend. But the best answer is a well-known fact—namely, that the quantity of matter discharged from Ætna alone is supposed, upon a moderate computation, to exceed twenty times the original bulk of the mountain. The greatest part of Sicily seems covered with its eruptions. The inhabitants of Catania have found, at the distance of several miles, streets and houses sixty feet deep, overwhelmed by the lava or matter it has discharged. But what is still more remarkable, the walls of these very houses have been built of materials evidently thrown up by the mountain. The inference from all this is very obvious—that the matter thus exploded cannot belong to the mountain itself, otherwise it would have been quickly consumed; it cannot be derived from moderate depths, since its amazing quantity evinces that all the places near the bottom must have long since been exhausted; nor can it have an extensive and, if I may so call it, a superficial spread, for then the country would be quickly undermined; it must, therefore, be supplied from the deeper regions of the earth—those undiscovered tracts where the Deity performs his wonders in solitude, satisfied with self-approbation!

CHAP. X.

OF EARTHQUAKES.

Having given the theory of volcanoes, we have, in some measure, given also that of earthquakes. They both seem to proceed from the same cause, only with this difference, that the fury of the volcano is spent in the eruption, that of an earthquake spreads wider, and acts more fatally by being confined. The volcano only

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affrights a province, earthquakes have laid whole kingdoms in ruin.

Philosophers have taken some pains to distinguish between the various kinds of earthquakes, such as the tremulous, the pulsative, perpendicular, and the inclined; but these are rather the distinctions of art than of Nature, mere accidental differences arising from the situation of the country or of the cause. If, for instance, the confined fire acts directly under a province or a town, it will heave the earth perpendicularly upward, and produce a perpendicular earthquake. If it acts at a distance, it will raise that tract obliquely, and thus the inhabitants will perceive an inclined one.

Nor does it seem to me that there is much greater reason for Mr. Buffon's distinction of earthquakes. One kind of which he supposes to be produced by fire in the manner of volcanoes, and confined to but a very narrow circumference. The other kind, he ascribes to the struggles of confined air, expanded by heat in the bowels of the earth, and endeavouring to get free. For how do these two causes differ? Fire is an agent of no power whatsoever without air. It is the air, which being at first compressed, and then dilated in a cannon, that drives the ball with such force. It is the air struggling for vent in a volcano that throws up its contents to such vast heights. In short, it is the air confined in the bowels of the earth, acquiring elasticity by heat, that produces all those appearances which are generally ascribed to the operation of fire. When, therefore, we are told that there are two causes of earthquakes, we only learn that a greater or smaller quantity of heat produces those terrible effects; for air is the only active perator in either.

Some philosophers, however, have been willing to give the air as great a share in producing these terrible effects as they could; and, magnifying its powers, have called in but a very moderate degree of heat to put it in action. Although experience tells us that the earth is full of inflammable materials, and that fires are produced wherever we descend; although it tells us that those countries where there are volcanoes are most subject to earthquakes, yet they step out of their way, and so find a new solution. These only allow but just heat enough to produce the most dreadful phenomena, and, backing their assertions with long calculations, give theory an air of demonstration. Mr. Amontons has been particularly sparing of the internal heat in this respect; and has shown, perhaps accurately enough, that a very moderate degree of heat may suffice to give the air amazing powers of expansion.

It is amazing enough, however, to trace the progress of a philosophical fancy let loose in imaginary speculations. They run thus: "A very moderate degree of heat may bring the air into a condition capable of producing earthquakes; for the air, at the depth of forty-three thousand five hundred and twenty-eight fathom below the surface of the earth, becomes almost as heavy as quicksilver. This, however, is but a very slight depth in comparison of the distance to the centre, and is scarce a seventieth part of the way. The air, therefore, at the centre, must be infinitely heavier than mercury, or any body that we know of. This granted, we shall take something more, and say that it is very probable there is nothing but air at the centre. Now let us suppose this air heated, by some means, even to the degree of boiling water, as we have proved that the density of the air is here very great, its elasticity must be in proportion: a heat, therefore, which at the surface of the earth would have produced but a slight expansive force, must at the centre produce one very extraordinary, and, in short, be perfectly irresistible. Hence this force may, with great ease, produce earthquakes; and, if increased, it may convulse the globe; it may (by only adding figures enough to the calculation) destroy the solar system, and even the fixed stars themselves." These reveries gene-

rally produce nothing; for, as I have ever observed, increased calculations, while they seem to tire the memory give the reasoning faculty perfect repose.

However, as earthquakes are the most formidable ministers of Nature, it is not to be wondered that a multitude of writers have been curiously employed in their consideration. Woodward has ascribed the cause to a stoppage of the waters below the earth's surface by some accident. These being thus accumulated, and yet acted upon by fires, which he supposes still deeper, both contribute to heave up the earth upon their bosom. This, he thinks, accounts for the lakes of water produced in an earthquake, as well as for the fires that sometimes burst from the earth's surface upon those dreadful occasions. There are others still who have supposed that the earth may be itself the cause of its own convulsions. "When," say they, "the roots or basis of some large tract is worn away by a fluid underneath, the earth sinking therein, its weight occasions a tremor of the adjacent parts, sometimes producing a noise, and sometimes an inundation of water." Not to tire the reader with a history of opinions instead of facts, some have ascribed them to electricity, and some to the same causes that produce thunder.

It would be tedious, therefore, to give all the various opinions that have employed the speculative upon this subject. The activity of the internal heat seems alone sufficient to account for every appearance that attends these tremendous irregularities of Nature. To conceive this distinctly, let us suppose at some vast distance under the earth large quantities of inflammable matter, pyrites, bitumens, and marcasites disposed, and only waiting for the aspersions of water or the humidity of the air to put their fires in motion: at last this dreadful mixture arrives; waters find their way into those depths through the perpendicular fissures; or air insinuates itself through the same minute apertures: instantly new appearances ensue: those substances, which for ages before lay dormant, now conceive new apparent qualities: they grow hot, produce new air, and only want room for expansion. However, the narrow apertures by which the air or water had at first admission are now closed up; yet as new air is continually generated as the heat every moment gives this air new elasticity, it at length bursts and dilates all round; and, in its struggles to get free, throws all above it into similar convulsions. Thus an earthquake is produced, more or less extensive, according to the depth or the greatness of the cause.

But before we proceed with the causes, let us take a short view of the appearances which have attended the most remarkable earthquakes. By these we shall see how far the theorist corresponds with the historian. The greatest we find in antiquity is that mentioned by Pliny, in which twelve cities in Asia Minor were swallowed up in one night: he tells us also of another, near the lake Thrasymene, which was not perceived by the armies of the Carthaginians and Romans, that were then engaged near the lake, although it shook the greatest part of Italy. In another place he gives the following account of an earthquake of an extraordinary kind. "When Lucius Marcus and Sextus Julius were consuls, there appeared a very strange prodigy of the earth (as I have read in the books of Ætruscan discipline), which happened in the province of Mutina. Two mountains shocked against each other, approaching and retiring with the most dreadful noise. They, at the same time, and in the midst of the day, appeared to cast forth fire and smoke, while a vast number of Roman knights and travellers from the Æmilian Way stood and continued amazed spectators. Several towns were destroyed by this shock; and all the animals that were near them were killed." In the time of Trajan, the city of Antioch and a great part of the adjacent country was buried by an earthquake. About three hundred years

after, in the times of Justinian, it was once more destroyed, together with forty thousand inhabitants: and, after an interval of sixty years, the same ill-fated city was a third time overturned, with the loss of not less than sixty thousand souls. In the year 1182, most of the cities of Syria, and the kingdom of Jerusalem, were destroyed by the same accident. In the year 1594, the Italian historians describe an earthquake at Puteoli, which caused the sea to retire two hundred yards from its former bed.

But one of those more particularly described in history is that of the year 1693, the damages of which were chiefly felt in Sicily, but its motion perceived in France, Germany, and England. It extended to a circumference of 2,600 leagues—chiefly affecting the sea-coasts and great rivers, more perceivable also upon the mountains than in the valleys. Its motions were so rapid, that those who lay at their length were tossed from side to side, as upon a rolling billow. The walls were dashed from their foundations; and no less than fifty-four cities, with an incredible number of villages, were either destroyed or greatly damaged. The city of Catania, in particular, was utterly overthrown. A traveller, who was on his way thither, at the distance of some miles perceived a black cloud, like night, hanging over the place. The sea suddenly began to roar, and *Ætna* to send forth great spires of flame; soon after a shock ensued, with a noise as if all the artillery in the world had been at once discharged. Our traveller, being obliged to alight instantly, felt himself raised a foot from the ground; and, turning his eyes to the city, he with amazement saw nothing but a thick cloud of dust in the air. The birds flew about astonished—the sun was darkened—the beasts ran howling from the hills; and, although the shock did not continue above three minutes, yet nearly 19,000 of the inhabitants of Sicily perished in the ruins. Catania, to which the describer was travelling, seemed the principal scene of ruin; its site only was to be found, and not a footstep of its former magnificence was to be seen remaining.

The earthquake which happened in Jamaica in 1692 was very terrible, and its description sufficiently minute. "In two minutes time it destroyed the town of Port-Royal, and sunk the houses in a gulf forty fathoms deep. It was attended with a hollow rumbling noise like that of thunder, and in less than a minute three-parts of the houses and their inhabitants were all quite sunk under water. While they were thus swallowed up on one side of the street, on the other the houses were thrown into heaps—the sand of the street rising like the waves of the sea, lifting up those that stood upon it, and immediately overwhelming them in pits. All the wells discharged their waters with the most vehement agitation. The sea felt an equal share of turbulence, and, bursting over its mounds, deluged all that came in its way. The fissures of the earth were in some places so great, that one of the streets appeared twice as broad as formerly. In many places, however, it opened and closed again, continuing this agitation for some time. Of these openings, two or three hundred might be seen at a time; in some whereof the people were swallowed up—in others, the earth closing caught them by the middle, and thus instantly crushed them to death. Other openings, still more dreadful than the rest, swallowed up whole streets; and others, more formidable still, spouted up whole cataracts of water, drowning such as the earthquake had spared. The whole was attended with the most noisome stench; while the thundering of the distant falling mountains, the whole sky overcast with a dusky gloom, and the crash of falling habitations, gave unspeakable horror to the scene. After this dreadful calamity was over, the whole island seemed converted into a scene of desolation; scarce a planter's house was left standing—almost all were swallowed up; houses, people, trees, shared one universal ruin, and in their places appeared great pools

of water, which, when dried up by the sun, left only a plain of barren sand, without any vestige of former inhabitants. Most of the rivers during the earthquake were stopped by the falling in of the mountains; and it was not till after some time that they made themselves new channels. The mountains seemed particularly attacked by the force of the shock; and it was supposed that the principal seat of the concussion was among them. Those who were saved got on board ships in the harbour, where many remained above two months—the shocks continuing during that interval with more or less violence every day."

As this description seems to exhibit all the appearances that usually make up the catalogue of terrors belonging to an earthquake, I will suppress the detail of that which happened at Lisbon in our times, and which is too recent to require a description. In fact, there are few particulars in the accounts of those who were present at that scene of desolation that we have not more minutely and accurately transmitted to us by former writers, whose narratives I have for that reason preferred. I will therefore close this description of human calamities with the account of the dreadful earthquake at Calabria, in 1638. It is related by the celebrated Kircher, as it happened while he was on his journey to visit Mount *Ætna*, and the rest of the wonders that lie towards the south of Italy. I need scarce inform the reader that Kircher is considered by scholars as one of the greatest prodigies of learning.

"Having hired a boat, in company with four more, we launched, on the 24th of March, from the harbour of Messina, in Sicily, and arrived the same day at the promontory of Pelorus. Our destination was for the city of Euphemia, in Calabria, where we had some business to transact, and where we designed to tarry some time. However, Providence seemed willing to cross our designs, for we were obliged to continue for three days at Pelorus, on account of the weather; and though we often put out to sea, yet we were as often driven back. At length, however, wearied with the delay, we resolved to prosecute our voyage; and, although the sea seemed more than usually agitated, yet we ventured forward. The gulf of Charybdis, which we approached, seemed whirled round in such a manner as to form a vast hollow, verging to a point in the centre. Proceeding onward, and turning my eyes to *Ætna*, I saw it cast forth large volumes of smoke, of mountainous size, which entirely covered the whole island, and blotted out the very shores from my view. This, together with the dreadful noise and the sulphureous stench, which was strongly perceived, filled me with apprehensions that some more dreadful calamity was impending. The sea itself seemed to wear a very unusual appearance; those who have seen a lake in a violent shower of rain covered all over with bubbles, will conceive some idea of its agitation. My surprise was still increased by the calmness and serenity of the weather; not a breeze, not a cloud which might be supposed to put all Nature thus into motion. I therefore warned my companions that an earthquake was approaching; and after some time, making for the shore with all possible diligence, we landed at Tropea, happy and thankful for having escaped the threatening dangers of the sea.

"But our triumph on land was of short duration; for we had scarce arrived at the Jesuits' College in that city, when our ears were stunned with a horrid sound resembling that of an infinite number of chariots driven fiercely forward, the wheels rattling and the thongs cracking. Soon after this a most dreadful earthquake ensued, so that the whole tract upon which we stood seemed to vibrate, as if we were in the scale of a balance that continued wavering. This motion, however, soon grew more violent; and, being no longer able to keep my legs, I was thrown prostrate upon the ground. In the meantime, the universal ruin round me redoubled; my

amazement. The crash of falling houses, the tottering of towers, and the groans of the dying, all contributed to raise my terror and despair. On every side of me I saw nothing but a scene of ruin, and danger threatening wherever I should fly. I commended myself to God, as my last refuge. At that hour, O how vain was every sublunary happiness!—wealth, honour, empire, wisdom, all mere useless sounds, and as empty as the bubbles in the deep. Just standing on the threshold of eternity, nothing but God was my pleasure; and the nearer I approached I only loved Him the more. After some time, however, finding that I remained unhurt amidst the general concussion, I resolved to venture for safety, and, running as fast as I could, reached the shore, but almost terrified out of my reason. I did not search long here till I found the boat in which I had landed, and my companions also, whose terrors were even greater than mine. Our meeting was not of that kind where every one is desirous of telling his own happy escape: it was all silence, and a gloomy dread of impending terrors.

"Leaving this seat of desolation, we prosecuted our voyage along the coast, and the next day arrived at Rochetta, where we landed, although the earth still continued in violent agitations. But we were scarce arrived at our inn when we were once more obliged to return to the boat, and in about half an hour we saw the greatest part of the town, and the inn at which we had put up, dashed to the ground—burying all its inhabitants beneath its ruins.

"In this manner, proceeding onward in our little vessel, finding no safety on land, and yet, from the smallness of our boat, having but a very dangerous continuance at sea, we at length landed at Lopizium, a castle midway between Tropæa and Euphæmia, the city to which, as I said before, we were bound. Here, wherever I turned my eyes, nothing but scenes of ruin and horror appeared; towns and castles levelled to the ground; Strombalo, though at sixty miles distance, belching forth flames in an unusual manner, and with a noise which I could distinctly hear. But my attention was quickly turned from more remote to contiguous danger. The rumbling found of an approaching earthquake, which we by this time were grown acquainted with, alarmed us for the consequences; it every moment seemed to grow louder, and to approach more near. The place on which we stood now began to shake most dreadfully, so that, being unable to stand, my companions and I caught hold of whatever shrub grew next us, and supported ourselves in that manner.

"After some time, this violent paroxysm ceasing, we again stood up, in order to prosecute our voyage to Euphæmia, which lay within sight. In the meantime, while we were preparing for this purpose, I turned my eyes towards the city, but could see only a frightful dark cloud, that seemed to rest upon the place. This the more surprised us, as the weather was so very serene. We waited, therefore, till the cloud was dispersed; then turning to look for the city, it was totally sunk. Wonderful to tell! nothing but a dismal and putrid lake was seen where it stood. We looked about to find some one that could tell us of its sad catastrophe, but could see none! All was become a melancholy solitude—a scene of hideous desolation. Thus proceeding pensively along, in quest of some human being that could give us some little information, we at length saw a boy sitting by the shore, and seemingly stupefied with terror. Of him, therefore, we inquired concerning the fate of the city, but he could not be induced to give us an answer. We intreated him with every expression of tenderness and pity to tell us; but his senses were quite wrapt up in contemplation of the danger he had escaped. We offered him some victuals, but he seemed to loathe the sight. We still persisted in our offices of kindness; but he only pointed to the place of the city, like one out

of his senses; and then, running up into the woods, was never heard of after. Such was the fate of the city of Euphæmia! and as we continued our melancholy course along the shore, the whole coast, for the space of two hundred miles, presented nothing but the remains of cities, and men scattered without a habitation over the fields. Proceeding thus along, we at length ended our distressful voyage by arriving at Naples, after having escaped a thousand dangers both at sea and land."

The reader, I hope, will excuse me for this long translation from a favourite writer, and that the sooner, as it contains some particulars relative to earthquakes not to be found elsewhere. From the whole of these accounts, we may gather that the most concomitant circumstances are these:

A rumbling sound before the earthquake. This proceeds from the air or fire, or both, forcing their way through the chasms of the earth, and endeavouring to get free, which is also heard in volcanoes.

A violent agitation or heaving of the sea, sometimes before and sometimes after that on land. This agitation is only a similar effect produced on the waters with that on land, and may be called, for the sake of perspicuity, a "seaquake;" and this, also, is produced by volcanoes.

A spouting of waters to great heights. It is not easy to describe the manner in which this is performed; but volcanoes also perform the same—Vesuvius being known frequently to eject a vast body of water.

A rocking of the earth to and fro, and sometimes a perpendicular bouncing, if it may be so called, of the same. This difference chiefly arises from the situation of the place with respect to the subterranean fire. Directly under, it lifts; at a farther distance, it rocks.

Some earthquakes seem to travel onward, and are felt in different countries at different hours of the same day. This arises from the great shock being given to the earth at one place, and which, being communicated onward by an undulatory motion, successively affects different regions in its progress—as the blow given by a stone falling in a lake, is not perceived on the shore till some time after the first concussion.

The shock is sometimes instantaneous, like the explosion of gunpowder; and sometimes tremulous, and continuing for several minutes. The nearer the place where the shock is first given, the more instantaneous and simple it appears. At a greater distance, the earth redoubles the first blow with a sort of vibratory continuation.

As waters have generally so great a share in producing earthquakes, it is not to be wondered that they should generally follow those breaches made by the force of fire, and appear in the great chasms which the earthquake has opened.

These are some of the most remarkable phenomena of earthquakes, presenting a frightful assemblage of the most terrible effects of air, earth, fire, and water.

The valley of Solfatara, near Naples, seems to exhibit, in a minuter degree, whatever is seen of this horrible kind on the great theatre of Nature. This plain, which is about twelve hundred feet long, and a thousand broad, is embosomed in mountains, and has in the middle of it a lake of noisome blackish water, covered with a bitumen that floats upon its surface. In every part of this plain, caverns appear smoking with sulphur, and often emitting flames. The earth, wherever we walk over it, trembles beneath the feet. Noises of flames and the hissing of waters are heard at the bottom. The water sometimes spouts up eight or ten feet high. The most noisome fumes, foetid water, and sulphureous vapours, offend the smell. A stone thrown into any of the caverns is ejected again with considerable violence. These appearances generally prevail when the sea is any way disturbed; and the whole seems to exhibit the appearance of an earthquake in miniature. However, in this smaller scene of wonders, as well as in the greater,

there are many appearances for which, perhaps, we shall never account; and many questions may be asked which no conjectures can thoroughly resolve. It was the fault of the philosophers of the last age to be more inquisitive after the causes of things than after the things themselves. They seemed to think that a confession of ignorance cancelled their claims to wisdom. But the present age has grown, if not more inquisitive, at least more modest; and none are now ashamed of that ignorance which labour can neither remedy nor remove.

CHAP. XI.

OF THE APPEARANCE OF NEW ISLANDS AND TRACTS, AND OF THE DISAPPEARING OF OTHERS.

Hitherto we have taken a survey only of the evils which are produced by subterranean fires, but we have mentioned nothing of the benefits they may possibly produce. They may be of use in warming and cherishing the ground, in promoting vegetation, and giving a more exquisite flavour to the productions of the earth. The imagination of a person who has never been out of our own mild region, can scarcely reach to that luxuriant beauty with which all Nature appears clothed in those very countries that we have just now described as desolated by earthquakes, and undermined by subterranean fires. It must be granted, therefore, that though in those regions they have a greater share in the dangers, they have also a larger proportion in the benefits of Nature.

But there is another advantage arising from subterranean fires which, though hitherto disregarded by man, yet may one day become serviceable to him; I mean, that while they are found to swallow up cities and plains in one place, they are also known to form promontories and islands in another. We have many instances of islands being thus formed in the midst of the sea, which, though for a long time barren, have afterwards become fruitful seats of happiness and industry.

New islands are formed in two ways—either suddenly, by the action of subterraneous fires, or more slowly, by the deposition of mud carried down by rivers, and stopt by some accident. With respect particularly to the first, ancient historians and modern travellers give us such accounts as we can have no room to doubt of. Seneca assures us, that in his time the island of Therasia appeared unexpectedly to some mariners, as they were employed in another pursuit. Pliny states that thirteen islands in the Mediterranean appeared at once emerging from the water—the cause of which he ascribes rather to the retiring of the sea in those parts than to any subterraneous elevation. However, he mentions the island of Hiera, near that of Therasia, as formed by subterraneous explosions; and adds to his list several others, formed in the same manner, in one of which he relates that fish were found in great abundance, and that all those who eat of them died shortly after.

“On the twenty-fourth of May, in the year 1707, a slight earthquake was perceived at Santorin; and the day following, at sun-rising, an object was seen by the inhabitants of that island, at two or three miles distance at sea, which appeared like a floating rock. Some persons, desirous either of gain or incited by curiosity, went there, and found, even while they stood upon this rock, that it seemed to rise beneath their feet. They perceived, also, that its surface was covered with pumice-stones and oysters, which it had raised from the bottom. Every day after, until the fourteenth of June, this rock seemed considerably to increase; and then was found to be half a mile round, and thirty feet above the sea. The earth of which it was composed seemed whitish, with a small proportion of clay. Soon after this the

sea again appeared troubled, and steams arose which were very offensive to the inhabitants of Santorin. But on the sixteenth of the succeeding month, seventeen or eighteen rocks more were seen to rise out of the sea, and at length to join together. All this was accompanied with the most terrible noise, and fires that proceeded from the island that was newly formed. The whole mass, however, of all this new-formed earth, uniting, increased every day, both in height and breadth, and, by the force of its explosions, cast forth rocks to seven miles distance. This continued to bear the same dreadful appearances till the month of November in the same year; and it is at present a volcano which sometimes renews its explosions. It is about three miles in circumference, and more than from thirty-five to forty feet high.”

A new island was found, in the year 1720, near that of Tercera, near the continent of Africa, by the same causes. In the beginning of December, at night, there was a terrible earthquake at that place, and the top of a new island appeared, which cast forth smoke in vast quantities. The pilot of a ship, who approached it, sounded on one side of this island, and could not find ground at sixty fathoms. At the other side the sea was totally tinged of a different colour, exhibiting a mixture of white, blue, and green, and was very shallow. This island, on its first appearance, was larger than it is at present—for it has, since that time, sunk in such a manner as to be scarce above water.

A traveller, whom these appearances could not avoid affecting, speaks of them in this manner:—“What can be more surprising than to see fire not only break out of the bowels of the earth, but also make itself a passage through the waters of the sea! What can be more extraordinary or foreign to our common notion of things, than to see the bottom of the sea rise up into a mountain above the water, and become so firm an island as to be able to resist the violence of the greatest storms! I know that subterraneous fires, when pent in a narrow passage, are able to raise up a mass of earth as large as an island; but that this should be done in so regular and exact a manner, that the water of the sea should not be able to penetrate and extinguish those fires—that after having made so many passages they should retain force enough to raise the earth—and, in fine, after having been extinguished, that the mass of earth should not fall down, or sink again with its own weight, but still remain in a manner suspended over the great arch below!—this is what to me seems more surprising than anything that has been related of Mount *Ætna*, *Vesuvius*, or any other volcano.”

Such are his sentiments; however, there are few of these appearances any way more extraordinary than those attending volcanoes and earthquakes in general. We are not more to be surprised that inflammable substances should be found beneath the bottom of the sea, than at similar depths on land. These have all the force of fire giving expansion to air, and tending to raise the earth at the bottom of the sea, till it at length heaves above water. These marine volcanoes are not so frequent; for, if we may judge of the usual procedure of Nature, it must very often happen, before the bottom of the sea is elevated above the surface, a chasm is opened in it, and then the water pressing in, extinguishes the volcano before it has time to produce its effects. This extinction, however, is not effected without very great resistance from the fire beneath. The water, upon dashing into the cavern, is very probably at first ejected back with great violence; and thus some of those amazing water-spouts are seen, which have so often astonished the mariner and excited curiosity. But of these in their place.

Besides the production of those islands by the action of fire, there are others, as was said, produced by rivers or seas carrying mud, earth, and such like substances,

along with their currents; and at last depositing them in some particular place. At the mouths of most great rivers, there are to be seen banks thus formed by the sand and mud carried down with the stream, which have rested at that place, where the force of the current is diminished by its junction with the sea. These banks by slow degrees increase at the bottom of the deep; the water in those places is at first found by mariners to grow more shallow; the bank soon heaves up above the surface; it is considered, for a while, as a tract of useless and barren sand; but the seeds of some of the more hardy vegetables are driven thither by the wind, take root, and, thus binding the sandy surface, the whole spot is clothed in time with a beautiful verdure. In this manner there are delightful and inhabited islands at the mouths of many rivers, particularly the Nile, the Po, the Mississippi, the Ganges, and the Senegal. There has been, in the memory of man, a beautiful and large island formed in this manner at the mouth of the river Nanquin, in China, made from depositions of mud at its opening: it is not less than sixty miles long, and about twenty broad. La Loubere informs us, in his voyage to Siam, that these sand-banks increase every day at the mouths of all the great rivers in Asia; and hence, he asserts, that the navigation up these rivers becomes every day more difficult, and will, at one time or other, be totally obstructed. The same may be remarked with regard to the Wolga, which has at present 70 openings into the Caspian Sea; and of the Danube, which has seven into the Euxine. We have had an instance of the formation of a new island not very long since at the mouth of the Humber, in England. "It began its appearance at low water, for the space of a few hours; and was buried again till the next tide's retreat. Thus, successively, it lived and died until the year 1666, when it began to maintain its ground against the insult of the waves, and first invited the aid of human industry. A bank was thrown about its rising grounds; and, being thus defended from the incursions of the sea, it became firm and solid, and, in a short time, afforded good pasture for cattle. It is about nine miles in circumference, and is worth to the proprietor about eight hundred pounds a-year." It would be endless to mention all the islands that have been thus formed, and the advantages that have been derived from them. However, it is frequently found, that new islands may be often considered as only turning the rivers from their former beds; so that, in proportion as land is gained at one part, it is lost by the overflowing of some other.

Little, therefore, is gained by such accessions; nor is there much more by the new islands which are sometimes formed from the spoils of the continent. Mariners assure us that there are sometimes whole plains unrooted from the main lands by floods and tempests. These being carried out to sea, with all the trees and animals upon them, are frequently seen floating in the ocean, and exhibiting a surprising appearance of rural tranquillity in the midst of danger. The greatest part, however, having the earth at their roots at length washed away, are dispersed, and their animals drowned; but now and then some are found to brave the fury of the ocean, till being stuck either among rocks or sands, they again take firm footing, and become permanent islands.

As different causes have thus concurred to produce new islands, so we have accounts of others that the same causes have contributed to destroy. We have already seen the power of earthquakes exerted in sinking whole cities, and leaving lakes in their room. There have been islands, and regions also, that have shared the same fate, and have sunk with their inhabitants ever more to be heard of. Thus Pausanias tells us of an island, called Chrysee, that was sunk near Lemnos. Pliny mentions several; among others, the island Cea, for thirty miles, having been washed away, with several

thousands of its inhabitants. But of all the noted devastations of this kind, the total submersion of the island of Atalantis, as mentioned by Plato, has been most the subject of speculation. Mankind in general now consider the whole of his description as an ingenious fable; but when fables are grown famous by time and authority, they become an agreeable, if not a necessary, part of literary information.

"About nine thousand years are passed," says Plato, "since the island of Atalantis was in being. The priests of Egypt were well acquainted with it; and the first heroes of Athens gained much glory in their wars with the inhabitants. This island was as large as Asia Minor and Syria united, and was situated beyond the Pillars of Hercules, in the Atlantic Ocean. The beauty of the buildings and the fertility of the soil were far beyond anything a modern imagination can conceive; gold and ivory were everywhere common; and fruits of the earth offered themselves without cultivation. The arts and courage of the inhabitants were not inferior to the happiness of their situation; and they were frequently known to make conquests, and overrun the continents of Europe and Asia." The imagination of the poetical philosopher riots in the description of the natural and acquired advantages which they long enjoyed in this charming region. "If," says he, "we compare that country to our own, ours will appear a mere wasted skeleton when opposed to it. The mountains to the very tops were clothed with fertility, and poured down rivers to enrich the plains below."

However, all these beauties and benefits were destroyed in one day by an earthquake sinking the earth, and the sea overwhelming it. At present, not the smallest vestige of such an island is to be found: Plato remains as the only authority for its existence; and philosophers dispute about its situation. It is not for me to enter into the controversy, when there appears but little probability to support the fact; and, indeed, it would be useless to run back nine thousand years in search of difficulties, as we are surrounded with objects that more closely affect us, and which demand admiration at our very doors. When I consider, as Lactantius suggests, the various vicissitudes of Nature—lands swallowed by yawning earthquakes, or overwhelmed in the deep; rivers and lakes disappearing, or dried away; mountains levelled into plains, and plains swelling up into mountains—I cannot help regarding this earth as a place of very little stability—as a transient abode of still more transitory beings.

CHAP. XII.

OF MOUNTAINS

Having at last, in some measure, emerged from the depths of the earth, we come to a scene of greater splendour—the contemplation of its external appearance. In this survey, its mountains are the first objects that strike the imagination and excite our curiosity. There is not, perhaps, anything in all Nature that impresses an unaccustomed spectator with such ideas of awful solemnity as these immense piles of Nature's erecting, that seem to mock the minuteness of human magnificence.

In countries where there are nothing but plains, the smallest elevations are apt to excite wonder. In Holland, which is all a flat, they show a little ridge of hills near the sea-side, which Boerhaave generally marked out to his pupils as being mountains of no small consideration. What would be the sensations of such an auditory, could they at once be presented with a view of the heights and precipices of the Alps or the Andes! Even among us in England, we have no adequate idea

of a mountain-prospect; our hills are generally sloping from the plain, and clothed to the very top with verdure; we can scarce, therefore, lift our imaginations to those immense piles, whose tops peep up behind intervening clouds, sharp and precipitate, and reach to heights that human avarice or curiosity have never been able to ascend.

We in this part of the world are not, for that reason, so immediately in the question which has so long been agitated among philosophers, concerning what gave rise to these inequalities on the surface of the globe. In our own happy region we generally see no inequalities but such as contribute to use and beauty; and we therefore are amazed at a question inquiring how such necessary inequalities came to be formed, and seeming to express a wonder how the globe comes to be so beautiful as we find it. But though with us there may be no great cause for such a demand, yet in those places where mountains deform the face of Nature—where they pour down cataracts, or give fury to tempests—there seems to be good reason for inquiry either into their causes or their uses. It has therefore been asked by many in what manner mountains have come to be formed, or for what uses they are designed.

To satisfy curiosity in these respects much reasoning has been employed, and very little knowledge propagated. With regard to the first part of the demand—the manner in which mountains were formed—we have already seen the conjectures of different philosophers on that head—one supposing that they were formed from the earth's broken shell at the time of the deluge; another, that they existed from the creation, and acquired their deformities in process of time; a third, that they owed their origin to earthquakes; and still a fourth, with much more plausibility than the rest, ascribing them entirely to the fluctuations of the deep, which he supposes in the beginning to have covered the whole earth. Such as are pleased with disquisitions of this kind may consult Burnet, Whiston, Woodward, or Buffon. Nor would I be thought to decry any mental amusements, that at worst keep us innocently employed; but, for my own part, I cannot help wondering how the opposite demand has never come to be made, and why philosophers have never asked how we come to have plains. Plains are sometimes more prejudicial to man than mountains. Upon plains an inundation has a greater power; the beams of the sun are often collected there with suffocating fierceness; they are sometimes found desert for several hundred miles together, as in the country east of the Caspian Sea, although otherwise fruitful, merely because there are no risings nor depressions to form reservoirs, or collect the smallest rivulet of water. The most rational answer, therefore, why either mountains or plains were formed, seems to be that they were thus fashioned by the hand of Wisdom, in order that pain and pleasure should be so contiguous as that mortality might be exercised either in bearing the one or communicating the other.

Indeed, the more I consider this dispute respecting the formation of mountains, the more I am struck with the futility of the question. There is neither a straight line nor an exact superficies in all Nature. If we consider a circle, even with mathematical precision, we shall find it formed of a number of small right lines joining at angles together. These angles, therefore, may be considered in a circle as mountains are upon our globe; and to demand the reason for the one being mountainous or the other angular, is only to ask why a circle is a circle, or a globe is a globe. In short, if there be no surface without inequality in Nature, why should we be surprised that the earth has such? It has often been said that the inequalities of its surface are scarcely distinguishable, if compared with its magnitude; and I think we have every reason to be content with the answer.

Some, however, have avoided the difficulty by urging the final cause. They allege that mountains have been formed merely because they are useful to man. This carries the inquirer but a part of the way; for no one can affirm that in all places they are useful. The contrary is known, by horrid experience, in those valleys that are subject to their influence. However, as the utility of any part of our earthly habitation is a very pleasing and flattering speculation to every philosopher, it is not to be wondered that much has been said to prove the usefulness of these. For this purpose, many conjectures have been made that have received a degree of assent even beyond their evidence; for men were unwilling to become more miserably wise.

It has been alleged, as one principal advantage that we derive from them, that they serve, like hoops or ribs, to strengthen our earth, and to bind it together. In consequence of this theory, Kircher has given us a map of the earth, in this manner hooped with its mountains; which might have a more solid foundation, did it entirely correspond with truth.

Others have found a different use for them, especially when they run surrounding our globe; which is, that they stop the vapours which are continually travelling from the equator to the poles; for these being urged by the heat of the sun from the warm regions of the line, must all be accumulated at the poles if they were not stopped in their way by those high ridges of mountains which cross their direction. But an answer to this may be, that all the great mountains in America lie lengthwise, and therefore do not cross their direction.

But to leave these remote advantages, others assert that not only the animal but vegetable part of the creation would perish for want of convenient humidity, were it not for their friendly assistance. Their summits are, by these, supposed to arrest, as it were, the vapours which float in the regions of the air. Their large inflexions and channels are considered as so many basins prepared for the reception of those thick vapours and impetuous rains which descend into them. The huge caverns beneath are so many magazines or conservatories of water for the peculiar service of man; and those orifices by which the water is discharged upon the plain are so situated as to enrich and render them fruitful, instead of returning through subterraneous channels to the sea, after the performance of a tedious and fruitless circulation.

However this be, certain it is that almost all our great rivers find their source among mountains; and, in general, the more extensive the mountain the greater the river: thus the river Amazon, the greatest in the world, has its source among the Andes, which are the highest mountains on the globe; the river Niger travels a long course of several hundred miles from the Mountains of the Moon, the highest in all Africa; and the Danube and the Rhine proceed from the Alps, which are probably the highest mountains of Europe.

It need scarcely be said that, with respect to height, there are many sizes of mountains, from the gently rising upland to the tall, craggy precipice. The appearance is different in different magnitudes. The first are clothed with verdure to the very tops, and only seem to ascend to improve our prospects, or supply us with a purer air; but the lofty mountains of the other class have a very different aspect. At a distance their tops are seen, in wavy ridges, of the very colour of the clouds, and only to be distinguished from them by their figure, which, as I have said, resemble the billows of the sea. As we approach, the mountain assumes a deeper colour; it gathers upon the sky, and seems to hide half the horizon behind it. Its summits also are become more distinct, and appear with a broken and perpendicular line. What at first seemed a single hill is now found to be a chain of continued mountains, whose tops, running along in ridges, are embosomed in each other; so

that the curvatures of one are fitted to the prominences of the opposite side, and form a winding valley between, often of several miles in extent; and all the way continuing nearly of the same breadth.

Nothing can be finer or more exact than Mr. Pope's description of a traveller straining up the Alps. Every mountain he comes to he thinks will be the last; he finds, however, an unexpected hill rise before him; and that being scaled, he finds the highest summit almost at as great a distance as before. Upon quitting the plain, he might have left a green and a fertile soil, and a climate warm and pleasing. As he ascends, the ground assumes a more russet colour; the grass becomes more mossy, and the weather more moderate. Still, as he ascends, the weather becomes more cold and the earth more barren. In this dreary passage he is often entertained with a little valley of surprising verdure, caused by the reflected heat of the sun collected into a narrow spot on the surrounding heights. But it much more frequently happens that he sees only frightful precipices beneath, and lakes of amazing depths from whence rivers are formed, and fountains derive their origin. On those places next the highest summits vegetation is scarcely carried on; here and there a few plants of the most hardy kind appear. The air is tolerably cold—either continually refrigerated with frosts or disturbed with tempests. All the ground here wears an eternal covering of ice, and snows that seem constantly accumulating. Upon emerging from this war of the elements, he ascends into a purer and serener region, where vegetation is entirely ceased; where the precipices, composed entirely of rocks, rise perpendicular above him; while he views beneath him all the combat of the elements—clouds at his feet, and thunders darting upward from their bosoms below. A thousand meteors, which are never seen on the plain, present themselves. Circular rainbows, mock suns, the shadow of the mountain projected upon the body of the air, and the traveller's own image, reflected as in a looking-glass, upon the opposite cloud.

Such are, in general, the wonders that present themselves to a traveller in his journey either over the Alps or the Andes. But we must not suppose that this picture exhibits either a constant or an invariable likeness of those stupendous heights. Indeed, nothing can be more capricious or irregular than the forms of many of them. The tops of some run in ridges for a considerable length without interruption; in others, the line seems indented by great valleys to an amazing depth. Sometimes a solitary and a single mountain rises from the bosom of the plain; and sometimes extensive plains, and even provinces, as those of Savoy and Quito, are found embosomed near the tops of mountains. In general, however, those countries that are most mountainous are the most barren and uninhabitable.

If we compare the heights of mountains with each other, we shall find that the greatest and highest are found under the line. It is thought by some that the rapidity of the earth's motion in these parts, together with the greatness of the tides there, may have thrown up those stupendous masses of earth. But, be the cause as it may, it is a remarkable fact, that the inequalities of the earth's surface are greatest there. Near the poles, the earth, indeed, is craggy and uneven enough; but the height of the mountains there is very inconsiderable. On the contrary, at the equator, where Nature seems to sport in the amazing size of all her productions, the plains are extensive, and the mountains remarkably lofty. Some of them are known to rise three miles perpendicular above the bed of the ocean.

To enumerate the most remarkable of these, according to their size, we shall begin with the Andes, of which we have an excellent description by Ulloa, who went thither by command of the King of Spain, in company with the French Academicians, to measure a degree of

the meridian. His journey up these mountains is too curious not to give an extract from it.

After many incommodious days' sailing up the river Guayquil, he arrived at Caracol, a town situated at the foot of the Andes. Nothing could exceed the inconveniences which he experienced in this voyage, from the flies and mosquitoes (an animal resembling our gnat). "We were the whole day," says he, "in continual motion to keep them off; but at night our torments were excessive. Our gloves, indeed, were some defence to our hands, but our faces were entirely exposed; nor were our clothes a sufficient defence for the rest of our bodies—for their stings, penetrating through the cloth, caused a very painful and fiery itching. One night, in coming to an anchor near a large handsome house that was uninhabited, we had no sooner seated ourselves in it than we were attacked on all sides by swarms of mosquitoes, so that it was impossible to have one moment's quiet. Those who had covered themselves with clothes, made for this purpose, found not the smallest defence; wherefore, hoping to find some relief in the open fields, they ventured out, though in danger of suffering in a more terrible manner from the serpents. But both places were equally obnoxious. On quitting this inhospitable retreat, we the next night took up our quarters in a house that was inhabited; the host of which, being informed of the terrible manner we had past the night before, he gravely told us that the house we so greatly complained of had been forsaken on account of its being the purgatory of a soul. But we had more reason to believe that it was quitted on account of its being the purgatory of the body. After having journeyed for upwards of three days through boggy roads, in which the mules at every step sunk up to their bellies, we began at length to perceive an alteration in the climate; and having been long accustomed to heat, we now began to feel it grow sensibly colder.

"If it is remarkable, that at Tariguagua we often see instances of the effects of two opposite temperatures in two persons happening to meet—one of them leaving the plains below, and the other descending from the mountain. The former thinks the cold so severe, that he wraps himself up in all the garments he can secure; while the latter finds the heat so great, that he is scarce able to bear any clothes whatsoever. The one thinks the water so cold that he avoids being sprinkled by it; the other is so delighted with its warmth that he uses it as a bath. Nor is the case very different in the same person, who experiences the same diversity of sensation upon his journey up and upon his return. This difference only proceeds from the change naturally felt on leaving a climate to which one has been accustomed, and coming into another of an opposite temperature.

"The ruggedness of the road from Tariguagua leading up the mountain is not easily described. In some parts the declivity is so great, that the mules can scarce keep their footing; and in others, the acclivity is equally difficult. The trouble of having people going before to mend the road, the pains arising from the many falls and bruises, and the being constantly wet to the skin, might be supported, were not these inconveniences augmented by the sight of such frightful precipices and deep abysses as must fill the mind with ceaseless terror. There are some places where the road is so steep, and yet so narrow, that the mules are obliged to slide down, without making any use of their feet whatsoever. On one side of the rider, in this situation, rises an eminence of several hundred yards; and on the other, an abyss of equal depth; so that if he in the least checks his mule, so as to destroy the equilibrium, they both must unavoidably perish.

"After having travelled about nine days in this manner, slowly winding along the side of the mountain, we began to find the whole country covered with a hoar frost; and a hut in which we lay had ice on it. Hav-

ing escaped many perils, we at length, after a journey of fifteen days, arrived upon the plain, on the extremity of which stands the city of Quito, the capital of one of the most charming regions upon earth. Here, in the centre of the torrid zone, the heat is not only very tolerable, but in some places the cold also is painful. Here they enjoy all the temperature and advantages of perpetual spring—their fields being always covered with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the most lively colours. However, although this beautiful region be higher than any other country in the world, and although it took up so many days of painful journey in the ascent, it is still overlooked by tremendous mountains—their sides covered with snow, and yet flaming with volcanoes at the top. These seemed piled one upon the other, and rise to a most astonishing height, with great coldness. However, at a determined point above the surface of the sea, the congelation is found at the same height in all the mountains. Those parts which are not subject to a continual frost have here and there growing upon them a rush, resembling the genista, but much more soft and flexible. Towards the extremity of the part where the rush grows, and the cold begins to increase, is found a vegetable, with a round, bulbous head, which, when dried, becomes of amazing elasticity. Higher up, the earth is entirely bare of vegetation, and seems covered with eternal snow. The most remarkable mountains are, that of Cotopaxi (already described as a volcano), Chimborazo, and Pichincha. Cotopaxi is more than three geographical miles above the surface of the sea: the rest are much inferior. On the top of the latter was my station for measuring a degree of the meridian, where I suffered particular hardships from the intensesness of the cold and the violence of the storms. The sky around was, in general, involved in thick fogs, which, when they cleared away, and the clouds, by their gravity, moved nearer to the surface of the earth, they appeared surrounding the foot of the mountain, at a vast distance below, like a sea encompassing an island in the midst of it. When this happened, the horrid noises of tempests were heard from beneath, then discharging themselves on Quito and the neighbouring country. I saw the lightnings issue from the clouds, and heard the thunders roll far beneath me. All this time, while the tempest was raging below, the mountain top where I was placed enjoyed a delightful serenity; the wind was abated, the sky clear, and the enlivening rays of the sun moderated the severity of the cold. However, this was of no very long duration, for the wind returned with all its violence, and with such velocity as to dazzle the sight; whilst my fears were increased by the dreadful concussions of the precipice and the fall of enormous rocks—the only sounds that were heard in this frightful situation."

Such is the animated picture of these mountains, as given us by this ingenious Spaniard; and I believe the reader will wish that I had made the quotation still longer. A passage over the Alps, or a journey across the Pyrenees, appear petty trips or excursions in the comparison; and yet these are the most lofty mountains we know of in Europe.

If we compare the Alps with the mountains already described, we shall find them but little more than one half of the height of the former. The Andes, upon being measured by the barometer, are found above three thousand one hundred and thirty-six fathoms above the surface of the sea; whereas the highest point of the Alps is not above sixteen hundred. The one, in other words, is above three miles high; the other about a mile and a half. The highest mountains in Asia are Mount Taurus, Mount Immaus, Mount Caucasus, and the mountains of Japan. Of these, none equals the Andes in height—although Mount Caucasus, which is the highest of them, makes very near approaches. In Africa, the Mountains of the Moon—famous for giving source

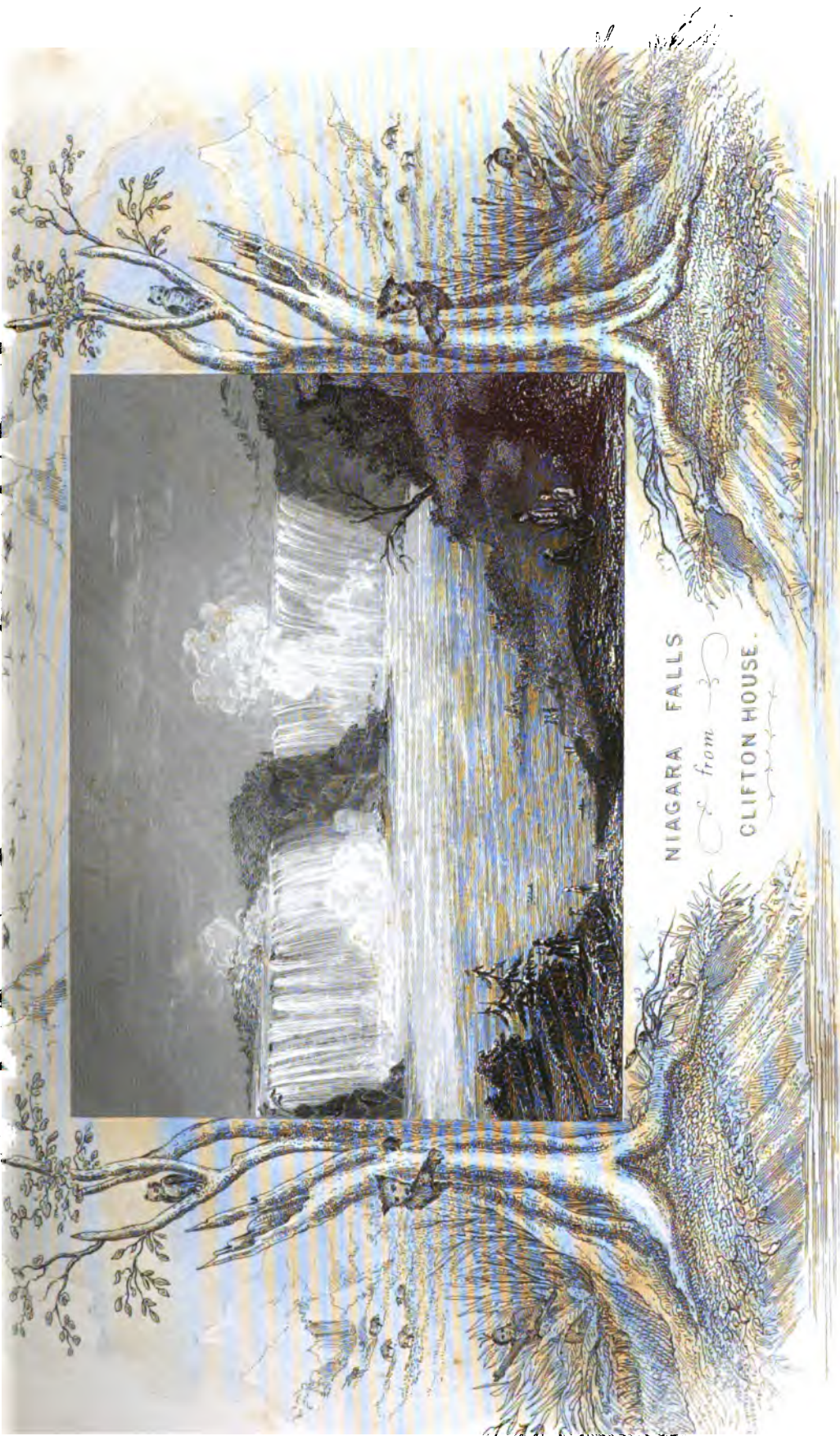
to the Niger and the Nile—are rather more noted than known. Of the Peak of Teneriffe, one of the Canary Islands that lie off this coast, we have more certain information. In the year 1727 it was visited by a company of English merchants, who travelled up to the top, where they observed its height, and the volcano on its very summit. They found it a heap of mountains, the highest of which rises over the rest like a sugar-loaf, and gives a name to the whole mass. It is computed to be a mile and a half perpendicular from the surface of the sea. Kircher gives us an estimate of the heights of most of the other great mountains in the world; but as he has taken his calculations in general from the ancients, or from modern travellers who had not the art of measuring them, they are quite incredible. The art of taking the heights of places by the barometer is an ingenious invention. As the air grows lighter as we ascend, the fluid in the tube rises in due proportion: thus the instrument, being properly marked, gives the height with a tolerable degree of exactness—at least, enough to satisfy curiosity.

Few of our great mountains have been estimated in this manner—travellers having, perhaps, been deterred by a supposed impossibility of breathing at the top. However, it has been invariably found that the air in the highest that our modern travellers have ascended is not at all too fine for respiration. At the top of the Peak of Teneriffe there was found no other inconvenience from the air except its coldness; at the top of the Andes, there was no difficulty of breathing experienced. The accounts, therefore, of those who have asserted that they were unable to breathe, although at much less heights, are greatly to be suspected. In fact, it is very natural for mankind to paint those obstacles as insurmountable which they themselves have not had the fortitude or perseverance to surmount.

The difficulty and danger of ascending to the tops of mountains proceed from other causes, not the thinness of the air. For instance, some of the summits of the Alps have never yet been visited by man. But the reason is, that they rise with such a rugged and precipitate ascent, that they are utterly inaccessible. In some places they appear like a great wall of six or seven hundred feet high; in others, there stick out enormous rocks, that hang upon the brow of the steep, and every moment threaten destruction to the traveller below.

In this manner almost all the tops of the highest mountains are bare and pointed. And this naturally proceeds from their being so continually assaulted by thunders and tempests. All the earthy substances with which they might have been once covered have for ages been washed away from their summits; and nothing is left remaining but immense rocks, which no tempest has hitherto been able to destroy.

Nevertheless, time is every day and every hour making depredations; and huge fragments are seen tumbling down the precipice, either loosened from the summit by frost or rains, or struck down by lightning. Nothing can exhibit a more terrible picture than one of these enormous rocks, commonly larger than a house, falling from its height, with a noise louder than thunder, and rolling down the side of the mountain. Doctor Plot tells of one in particular, which, being loosened from its bed, tumbled down the precipice, and was partly shattered into a thousand pieces. Notwithstanding, one of the largest fragments of the same, still preserving its motion, travelled over the plain below, crossed a rivulet in the midst, and at last stopped on the other side of the bank! These fragments, as was said, are often struck off by lightning, and sometimes undermined by rains; but the most usual manner in which they are disunited from the mountain is by frost: the rains, insinuating between the interstices of the mountain, continue there until there comes a frost, and then, when converted into ice, the water swells with an irresistible force, and pre-



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duces the same effect as gunpowder—splitting the most solid rocks, and thus shattering the summits of the mountain.

But not rocks alone, but whole mountains, are by various causes, disunited from each other. We see in many parts of the Alps amazing clefts, the sides of which so exactly correspond with the opposite, that no doubt can be made of there having been once joined together. At Cajeta, in Italy, a mountain was split in this manner by the earthquake; and there is a passage opened through it that appears as if elaborately done by the industry of man. In the Andes these breaches are frequently seen. That at Thermopylæ, in Greece, has been long famous. The mountain of the Troglodytes, in Arabia, has thus a passage through it; and that in Savoy—which Nature began, and which Victor Amadeus completed—is an instance of the same kind.

We have accounts of some of these disruptions immediately after their happening. In the month of June, in the year 1714, a part of the mountain of Diableret, in the district of Valais, in France, suddenly fell down between two and three o'clock in the afternoon, the weather being very calm and serene. It was of a conical figure, and destroyed fifty-five cottages in the fall. Fifteen persons, together with about a hundred beasts, were also crushed beneath its ruins, which covered an extent of a good league square. The dust it occasioned instantly covered all the neighbourhood in darkness. The heaps of rubbish were more than three hundred feet high. They stopped the current of a river that ran along the plain, which now is formed into several new and deep lakes. There appeared through the whole of this rubbish none of those substances that seemed to indicate that this disruption had been made by means of subterranean fires. Most probably the base of this rocky mountain was rotted and decayed, and fell without any extraneous violence. In the same manner, in the year 1618, the town of Pleurs, in France, was buried beneath a rocky mountain, at the foot of which it was situated.

These accidents—and many more that might be enumerated of the same kind—have been produced by various causes; by earthquakes, as in the mountain at Cajeta; or by being decayed at the bottom, as at Diableret. But the most general way is by the foundation of one part of the mountain being hollowed by waters, and thus, wanting a support, breaking from the other. Thus, it generally has been found in the great chasms of the Alps; and thus it almost always is known in those disruptions of hills which are known by the name of land-slips. These are nothing more than the sliding down of a higher piece of ground, disrooted from its situation by subterranean inundations, and settling itself upon the plain below.

There is not an appearance in all Nature that so much astonished our ancestors as these land-slips. In fact, to behold a large upland, with its houses, its corn, and its cattle, at once loosened from its place, and floating, as it were, upon the subjacent water—to behold it quitting its ancient situation, and travelling forward like a ship in quest of adventures,—this is certainly one of the most extraordinary appearances that can be imagined, and, to a people ignorant of the powers of Nature, might well be considered as a prodigy. Accordingly, we find all our old historians mentioning it as an omen of approaching calamities. In this more enlightened age, however, its cause is very well known; and, instead of exciting ominous apprehensions in the populace, it only gives rise to some very ridiculous law-suits among them about whose the property shall be—whether the land which has thus slipped shall belong to the original possessor, or to him upon whose grounds it has encroached and settled. What has been the determination of the judges is not so well known, but the circumstances of the slips have been minutely and exactly described

In the lands of Slatberg, in the kingdom of Iceland, there stood a declivity gradually ascending for nearly half a mile. In the year 1713, on the 10th of March, the inhabitants perceived a crack on its side, somewhat like a furrow made with a plough, which they imputed to the effects of lightning, as there had been thunder the night before. However, on the evening of the same day, they were surprised to hear a hideous, confused noise, issuing all round from the side of the hill; and their curiosity being raised they searched the place. There, to their amazement, they found the earth for nearly five acres all in gentle motion, and sliding down the hill upon the subjacent plain. This motion continued the remaining part of the day and the whole night; nor did the noise cease during the whole time—proceeding, probably, from the attrition of the ground beneath. The day following, however, this strange journey down the hill ceased entirely, and above an acre of the meadow below was found covered with what before composed a part of the declivity.

However, these slips, when a whole mountain's side seems to descend, happen but very rarely. There are some of another kind, however, much more common, and, as they are always sudden, much more dangerous. These are snow-slips—well known and greatly dreaded by travellers. It often happens, that when snow has long been accumulated on the tops and on the sides of mountains, it is borne down the precipice either by means of tempests or its own melting. At first, when loosened, the volume in motion is but small; but it gathers as it continues to roll, and, by the time it has reached the habitable parts of the mountain, is generally grown of enormous bulk. Wherever it rolls it levels all things in its way, or buries them in unavoidable destruction. Instead of rolling, it sometimes is found to slide along from the top; yet even then it is generally as fatal as before. Nevertheless, we have had an instance, a few years ago, of a small family in Germany that lived for above a fortnight beneath one of these snow-slips. Although they were buried during the whole time, in utter darkness and under a bed of some hundred feet deep, yet they were luckily taken out alive—the weight of the snow being supported by a beam that kept up the roof, and nourishment being supplied them by the milk of an ass (if I remember right) that was buried under the same ruin.

But it is not the parts alone that are thus found to subside; whole mountains have been known totally to disappear. Pliny tells us, that in his own time the lofty mountain of Cybotus, together with the city of Eurites, were swallowed by an earthquake. The same fate, he says, attended Phlegium, one of the highest mountains in Ethiopia; which, after one night's concussion, was never seen more. In more modern times, a very noted mountain in the Molucca Islands, known by the name of the "Peak," and remarkable for being seen at a very great distance from sea, was swallowed by an earthquake, and nothing but a lake was left in the place where it stood. Thus, while storms and tempests are levelled against mountains above, earthquakes and waters are undermining them below. All our histories talk of their destruction; and very few new ones (if we except Mount Cenere, and one or two such heaps of cinders) are produced. If mountains, therefore, were of such great utility as some philosophers make them to mankind, it would be a very melancholy consideration that such benefits were diminishing every day. But the truth is, the valleys are fertilised by that earth which is washed from their sides, and the plains become richer in proportion as the mountains decay.

CHAP. XIII.

OF WATER.

In contemplating Nature, we shall often find the same substances possessed of contrary qualities, and producing opposite effects. Air, which liquifies our substance, dries up another. That fire which is seen to burn up the desert is often found, in other places, to assist the luxuriance of vegetation; and water—which, next to fire, is the most fluid substance upon earth—gives all other bodies their firmness and durability: so that every element seems to be a powerful servant, capable either of good or ill, and only requiring external direction to become the friend or the enemy of mankind. These opposite qualities, in this substance in particular, have not failed to excite the admiration and inquiry of the curious.

That water is the most fluid penetrating body (next to fire), and the most difficult to confine, is incontestably proved by a variety of experiments. A vessel through which water cannot pass may be said to retain anything. It may be objected, indeed, that syrups, oils, and honey leak through some vessels that water cannot pass through; but this is far from being the result of the greater tenuity and fineness of their parts; it is owing to the resin wherewith the wood of such vessels abounds, which oils and syrups have the power of dissolving—so that these fluids, instead of finding their way, may more properly be said to eat their way through the vessels which contain them. However, water will at length find its way even through these—for it is known to escape through vessels of every substance, glass only excepted. Other bodies may be found to make their way out more readily indeed—as air, when it finds a vent, will escape at once; and quicksilver, because of its weight, quickly penetrates through whatever chinky vessel confines it; but water, though it operates more slowly, always finds a more certain issue. As, for instance, it is well known that air will not pass through leather, which water will very readily penetrate. Air, also, may be retained in a bladder; but water will soon ooze through. And those who drive this to the greatest degree of precision pretend to say that it will pass through pores ten times smaller than air can do. Be this as it may, we are very certain that its parts are so small, that they have been actually driven through the pores of gold. This has been proved by the famous Florentine experiment, in which a quantity of water was shut up in a hollow ball of gold, and then pressed with immense force by screws, during which the fluid was seen to ooze out through the pores of the metal, and to stand like a dew upon its surface.

As water is thus penetrating and its parts thus minute, it may easily be supposed that they enter into the composition of all bodies—vegetable, animal, and fossil. This every chymist's experience convinces him of; and the mixture is the more obvious, as it can always be separated by a gentle heat from those substances with which it had been united. Fire, as was said, will penetrate where water cannot pass; but then it is not so easily separated. But there is scarce any substance from which water cannot be divorced. The parings or flings of lead, tin, and antimony, by distillation, yield water plentifully; the hardest stones, sea-salt, nitre, vitriol, and sulphur, are found to consist chiefly of water, into which they resolve by force of fire. "All birds, beasts, and fishes," says Newton, "insects, trees, and vegetables, with their parts, grow from water, and by putrefaction return to water again." In short, almost every substance that we see owes its texture and firmness to the parts of water that mix with its earth; and, deprived of this fluid, it becomes a mass of shapeless dust and ashes.

From hence we see, as was above hinted, that this

most fluid body, when mixed with others, gives them consistence and form. Water, by being mixed with earth and ashes and formed into a vessel, when baked before the fire becomes a copel, remarkable for this—that it will bear the utmost force of the hottest furnace that art can contrive. So the Chinese earth, of which porcelain is made, is nothing more than an artificial composition of earth and water united by heat, and which a greater quantity of heat could easily separate. Thus we see a body, extremely fluid of itself, in some measure assuming a new nature by being united with others; we see a body, whose fluid and dissolving qualities are so obvious, giving confidence and hardness to all the substances of the earth.

From considerations of this kind, Thales and many of the ancient philosophers held that all things were made of water. In order to confirm this opinion, Helmont made an experiment, by divesting a quantity of earth of all its oils and salts, and then putting this earth, so prepared, into an earthen pot which nothing but rain-water could enter, and planting a willow therein. The willow grew up to a considerable height and bulk, merely from the accidental aspersion of rain-water; while the earth in which it was planted received no sensible diminution. From this experiment he concluded that water was the only nourishment of the vegetable tribe; and that, vegetables being the nourishment of animals, all organised substances therefore owed their support and being only to water. But Woodward says this is all a mistake; and he endeavours to show that water, being impregnated with earthy particles, is only the conveyer of such substances into the pores of vegetables, rather than increaser of them, by its own bulk. He also shows that water is ever found to afford so much less nourishment in proportion as it is putrefied by distillation. A plant in distilled water will not grow so fast as in water not distilled; and if the same be distilled three or four times over, the plant will scarcely grow at all, or receive any nourishment from it—so that water, as such, does not seem the proper nourishment of vegetables, but only the vehicle thereof which contains the nutritious particles, and carries them through all parts of the plant. Water, in its pure state, may suffice to extend or swell the parts of a plant, but affords vegetable matter in a moderate proportion.

However this be, it is agreed on all sides that water, such as we find it, is far from being a pure simple substance. The most genuine we know is mixed with exhalations and dissolutions of various kinds; and no expedient that has been hitherto discovered is capable of purifying it entirely. If we filter and distil it a thousand times, according to Boerhaave, it will still deposit a sediment; and by repeating the process we may evaporate it entirely away, but can never totally remove its impurities. Some, however, assert that water, properly distilled, will have no sediment; and that the little white speck which is found at the bottom of the still is a substance that enters from without. Kircher used to show in his museum a phial of water that had been kept for fifty years hermetically sealed, during which time it had deposited no sediment, but continued as transparent as when first it was put in. How far, therefore, it may be brought to a state of purity by distillation is unknown; but we very well know that all such water as we everywhere see is a bed in which plants, minerals, and animals are found confusedly floating together.

Rain-water, which is a fluid of Nature's own distilling, and which has been raised so high by evaporation, is, nevertheless, a very mixed and impure substance. Exhalations of all kinds, whether salts, sulphurs, or metals, make a part of its substance, and tend to increase its weight. If we gather the water that falls after a thunder-clap in a sultry summer's day, and let it settle, we shall find a real salt sticking at the bottom. In winter, however, its impure mixtures are fewer; but still they

may be separated by distillation. But as to that which is generally caught pouring from the tops of houses, it is particularly foul, being impregnated with the smoke of the chimneys, the vapour of the slates or tiles, and with other impurities that birds and animals may have deposited there. Besides, though it should be supposed free from all these, it is mixed with a quantity of air, which, after being kept for some time, will be seen to separate.

Spring-water is next, in point of purity. This, according to Dr. Halley, is collected from the air itself; which, being cooled with water, and coming to be condensed by the evening's cold, is driven against the tops of the mountains, where, being condensed and collected it trickles down by the sides into the cavities of the earth, and, running for a while underground, bubbles in fountains upon the plain. This, having made but a short circulation, has generally had no long time to dissolve or imbibe any sovereign substances by the way.

River-water is generally more foul than the former; wherever the stream flows it receives a tincture from its channel. Plants, minerals, and animals, all contribute to add to its impurities: so that such as live at the mouths of great rivers generally are subject to all those disorders which contaminated and unwholesome waters are known to produce. Of all the river-water in the world, that of the Indus and the Thames is said to be the most light and wholesome.

The most impure fresh-water that we know is that of stagnated pools and lakes, which, in summer, may be more properly considered as a jelly of floating insects than a collection of water. In this, millions of little reptiles, undisturbed by any current, which might crush their frames to pieces, breed and engender. The whole teems with shapeless life, and only grows more fruitful by increasing putrefaction.

Of the purity of all these waters, the lightness and not the transparency ought to be the test. Water may be extremely clean and beautiful to the eye, and yet very much impregnated with mineral particles. In fact, sea-water is the most transparent of any, and yet is well known to contain a large mixture of salt and bitumen. On the contrary, those waters which are lightest have the fewest dissolutions floating in them; and may, therefore, be the most useful for all the purposes of life. But, after all, though much has been said upon this subject, and although waters have been weighed with great assiduity to determine their degree of salubrity, yet neither this, nor their curdling with soap, nor any other philosophical standard whatsoever, will answer the purposes of true information. Experience alone ought to determine the useful or noxious qualities of every spring; and experience assures us, that different kinds of water are adapted to different constitutions. An incontestible proof of this are the many medicinal springs throughout the world, whose peculiar benefits are known to the natives of their respective countries. These are of various kinds, according to the different minerals with which they are impregnated—hot, saline, sulphureous, bituminous, and oily. But the account of these will come most properly under that of the several minerals by which they are produced.

After all, therefore, we must be contented with but an impure mixture for our daily beverage. And yet, perhaps, this very mixture may often be more serviceable to our health than that of a purer kind. We know that it is so with regard to vegetables; and why not, also, in general to man? Be this as it will, if we are desirous of having water in its greatest purity, we are ordered by the curious in this particular to distil it from snow, gathered upon the tops of the highest mountains, and to take none but the outer and superficial part thereof. This we must be satisfied to call pure water; but even this is far short of the pure unmixed philosophical element—which, in reality, is no where to be found.

As water is thus mixed with foreign matter, and often the repository of minute animals or vegetable seeds, we need not be surprised that, when carried to sea, it is always found to putrefy. But we must not suppose that it is the element itself which thus grows putrid and offensive, but the substances with which it is impregnated. It is true, the utmost precautions are taken to destroy all vegetable and animal substances that may have previously been lodged in it, by boiling; but, notwithstanding this, there are some that will still survive the operation, and others that find their way during the time of its stowage. Seamen assure us that their water is generally found to putrefy twice at least, and sometimes thrice, in a long voyage. In about a month after it has been at sea, when the bung is taken out of the cask, it sends up a noisome and dangerous vapour, which takes fire upon the application of a lighted candle. The whole body of the water is then found replete with little worm-like insects, which float with great briskness through all its parts. These generally live for about a couple of days; and then dying, by depositing their spoils for a while increase the putrefaction. After a time, the heavier parts of these sinking to the bottom, the lighter float in a scum at the top; and this is what the mariners call the water's purging itself. There is still, however, another race of insects, which are bred very probably from the spoils of the former, and produce, after some time, similar appearances; these dying, the water is then thought to change no more. However, it very often happens, especially in hot climates, that nothing can drive these nauseous insects from the ship's store of water. They often increase to a very disagreeable and frightful size, so as to deter the mariner, though parching with thirst, from tasting that cup which they have contaminated.

This water, as thus described, is therefore a very different fluid from that simple elementary substance upon which philosophical theories have been founded, and concerning the nature of which there have been so many disputes. Elementary water is no way compounded, but is without taste, smell, or colour, and incapable of being discerned by any of the senses except the touch. This is the famous dissolvent of the chymists, into which, as they have boasted, they can reduce all bodies, and which makes up all other substances, only by putting on a different disguise. In some forms it is fluid, transparent, and evasive of the touch; in others, hard, firm, and elastic. In some it is stiffened by cold; in others, dissolved by fire. According to them, it only assumes external shapes from accidental causes; but the mountain is as much a body of water as the cake of ice that melts on its brow; and even the philosopher himself is composed of the same materials with the eloud or meteor which he contemplates.

Speculation seldom rests when it begins. Others, disallowing the universality of this substance, will not allow that in a state of nature there is any such thing as water at all. "What assumes the appearance," say they, "is nothing more than melted ice. Ice is the real element of Nature's making; and when found in a state of fluidity it is then in a state of violence. All substances are naturally hard; but some more readily melt with heat than others. It requires a great heat to melt iron—a smaller heat will melt copper; silver, gold, tin, and lead, melt with smaller still; ice, which is a body like the rest, melts with a very moderate warmth; and quicksilver melts with the smallest warmth of all. Water, therefore, is but ice kept in continual fusion, and still returning to its former state when the heat is taken away." Between these opposite opinions the controversy has been carried on with great ardour, and much has been written on both sides; and yet, when we come to examine the debate, it will probably terminate in this question—whether cold or heat first began their operations upon water. This is a fact of very little

importance, if known; and, what is more, it is a fact we can never know.

Indeed, if we examine into the operations of cold and heat upon water, we shall find that they produce somewhat similar effects. Water dilates in its bulk by heat to a very considerable degree; and, what is more extraordinary, it is likewise dilated by cold in the same manner.

If water be placed over a fire, it grows gradually larger in bulk as it becomes hot, until it begins to boil; after which no art can either increase its bulk or its heat. By increasing the fire, indeed, it may be more quickly evaporated away; but its heat and its bulk still continue the same. By the expanding of this fluid by heat, philosophers have found a way to determine the warmth or the coldness of other bodies; for if put into a glass tube, by its swelling and rising it shows the quantity of heat in the body to which it is applied; by its contracting and sinking, it shows the absence of the same. Instead of using water in this instrument, which is called a thermometer, they now make use of spirit of wine, which is not apt to freeze, and which is endued even with a greater expansion by heat than water. The instrument consists of nothing more than a hollow ball of glass, with a long tube growing out of it. This being partly filled with spirits of wine, tintured red, so as to be seen when it rises, the ball is plunged into boiling water, which, making the spirit within expand and rise in the tube, the water marks the greatest height to which it ascends; at this point the tube is to be broken off, and then hermetically sealed by melting the glass with a blow-pipe; a scale being placed by the side completes the thermometer. Now, as the fluid expands or condenses with heat or cold, it will rise and fall in the tube in proportion, and the degree or quantity of ascent or descent will be seen in the scale.

No fire, as was said, can make water hotter after it begins to boil. We can therefore at any time be sure of an equable certain heat—which is that of boiling water, which is invariably the same. The certainty of such a heat is not less useful than the instrument that measures it. It affords a standard, fixed degree of heat over the whole world—boiling water being as hot in Greenland as upon the coasts of Guinea. One fire is more intense than another; of heat there are various degrees; but boiling water is a heat every where the same, and easily procurable.

As heat thus expands water, so cold, when it is violent enough to freeze the same, produces exactly the same effect, and expands it likewise. Thus water is acted upon in the same manner by two opposite qualities—being dilated by both. As a proof that it is dilated by cold, we have only to observe the ice floating on the surface of a pond, which it would not do were it not dilated, and grown more bulky by freezing than the water which remains unfroze. Mr. Boyle, however, put the matter past a doubt by a variety of experiments. Having poured a proper quantity of water into a strong earthen vessel, he exposed it, uncovered, to the open air in frosty nights, and observed that continually the ice reached higher than the water before it was frozen. He filled also a tube with water, and stopped both ends with wax; the water, when froze, was found to push out the stopples from both ends, and a rod of ice appeared at each end of the tube, which showed how much it was swollen by the cold within.

From hence, therefore, we may be very certain of the cold's dilating of the water; and experience also shows, that the force of this expansion has been found as great as any which heat has been found to produce. The touch-hole of a strong gun-barrel being stopped, and a plug of iron forcibly driven into the muzzle, after the barrel had been filled with water it was placed in a mixture of ice and salt; the plug, though soldered to the barrel, at first gave way, but being fixed in more firmly, within a

quarter of an hour the gun-barrel burst with a loud noise, and blew up the cover of the box wherein it lay. Such is its force in an ordinary experiment. But it has been known to burst cannons, filled with water and then left to freeze; for the cold congealing the water, and the ice swelling, it became irresistible. The bursting of rocks by frost, which is frequent in the northern climates, and is sometimes seen in our own, is an equal proof of the expansion of congealed water. For having by some means insinuated itself into the body of the rock, it has remained there till the cold was sufficient to affect it by congelation. But when once frozen, no obstacle is able to confine it from dilating; and, if it cannot otherwise find room, the rock must burst asunder.

This alteration in the bulk of water might have served as a proof that it was capable of being compressed into a narrower space than it occupied before; but, till of late, water was held to be incompressible. The general opinion was, that no art whatsoever could squeeze into a narrower compass; that no power on earth, for instance, could force a pint of water into a vessel that held a hair's-breadth less than a pint. This, said they, appears from the famous Florentine experiment, as the water, rather than suffer compressure, was seen to ooze through the pores of the solid metal; and at length, making a cleft in the side, spun out with great vehemence. Later trials have proved that water is very compressible, and partakes of that elasticity which every other body possesses in some degree. Indeed, had not mankind been dazzled by the brilliancy of one inconclusive experiment, there were numerous reasons to convince them of its having the same properties with other substances. Ice, which is water in another state, is very elastic. A stone flung slantingly along the surface of a pond bounds from the water several times, which shows it to be elastic also. But the trials of Mr. Canton have put this past all doubt; which, being somewhat similar to those of the great Boyle, who pressed it with weights properly applied, carry sufficient conviction.

What has been hitherto related is chiefly applicable to the element of water alone; but its fluidity is a property that it possesses in common with several other substances, in other respects greatly differing from it. That quality which gives rise to the definition of a fluid—namely, that its parts are in a continual intestine motion—seems extremely applicable to water. What the shapes of those parts are it would be vain to attempt to discover. Every trial only shows the futility of the attempt: all we find is that they are extremely minute, and that they roll over each other with the greatest ease. Some, indeed, from this property alone, have not hesitated to pronounce them globular; and we have in all our hydrostatical books pictures of these little globes in a state of sliding and rolling over each other. But all this is merely the work of imagination: we know that substances of any kind, reduced very small, assume a fluid appearance somewhat resembling that of water. Mr. Boyle, after finely powdering and sifting a little dry powder of plaster of Paris, put it in a vessel over the fire, where it soon began to boil like water, exhibiting all the motions and appearances of a boiling liquor. Although but a powder, the parts of which we know are very different from each other, and just as accident has formed them, yet it heaved in great waves, like water. Upon agitation, a heavy body will sink to the bottom, and a light one emerge to the top. There is no reason, then, to suppose the figure of the parts of water round, since we see their fluidity very well imitated by a composition the parts of which are of various forms and sizes. The shape of the parts of water, therefore, we must be content to continue ignorant of. All we know is, that earth, air, and fire conduce to separate the parts from each other.

Earthy substances divide the parts from each other, and keep them asunder. This division may be so great,

that the water will entirely lose its fluidity thereby. Mud, potters' clay, and dried bricks are but so many different combinations of earth and water—each substance in which the parts of water are most separated from each other appearing to be the most dry. In some substances, indeed, where the parts of water are greatly divided, as in porcelain, for instance, it is no easy matter to recover and bring them together again; but they continue in a manner fixed and united to the manufactured clay. This circumstance led Dr. Cheney into a very peculiar strain of thinking. He suspected that the quantity of water on the surface of the earth was daily increasing. For, says he, some parts of it are continually joined to vegetable, animal, and mineral substances, which no art can again recover. United with these the water loses its fluidity; for if, continues he, we separate a few particles of any fluid and fasten them to a solid body, or keep them assunder, they will be fluid no longer. To produce fluidity a considerable number of such particles are required; but here they are close, and destitute of their natural properties. Thus, according to him, the world is growing every day harder and harder, and the earth firmer and firmer; and there may come a time when every object around us may be stiffened in universal fridity! However, we have causes enough of anxiety in this world already, not to add this preposterous concern to the number.

That air also contributes to divide the parts of water we can have no manner of doubt; some have even disputed whether water be not capable of being turned into air! However, though this cannot be allowed, it must be granted that it may be turned into a substance which greatly resembles air (as we have seen in the experiment of the *ceolipile*) with all its properties—except that, by cold, this new-made air may be condensed again into water.

But of all the substances which tend to divide the parts of water, fire is the most powerful. Water, when heated into steam, acquires such force, and the parts of it tend to fly off from each other with such violence, that no earthly substance we know of is strong enough to confine them. A single drop of water converted into steam has been found capable of raising a weight of twenty tons; and would have raised twenty thousand were the vessel confining it sufficiently strong, and the fire below increased in proportion.

From this easy yielding of its parts to external pressure arises the art of determining the specific gravity of bodies by plunging them in water; with many other useful discoveries in that part of natural philosophy, called "hydrostatics." The laws of this science, which Archimedes began, and Pascal, with some other of the moderns, have much improved, rather belongs to experimental than to natural history. However, I will take leave to mention some of the most striking paradoxes in this branch of science, which are well confirmed by experiment as rendered universal by theory. It would indeed, be unpardonable, while discoursing on the properties of water, to omit giving some account of the manner in which it sustains such immense bulks as we see floating upon its soft and yielding surface; how some bodies that are known to sink at one time swim with ease, if their surface be enlarged; how the heaviest body, even gold itself, may be made to swim upon water, and how the lightest, such as cork, shall remain sunk at the bottom; how the pouring in of a single quart of water will burst a hogshead hooped with iron; and how it ascends in pipes from the valley to travel over the mountain:—these are circumstances that are at first surprising, but, upon a slight consideration, lose their wonder.

In order to conceive the manner in which all these wonders are effected, we must begin by observing that water is possessed of an invariable property, which has not hitherto been mentioned—that of always keeping

its surface level and even. Winds, indeed, may raise it into waves, or art spurt it 'up in fountains; but ever, when left to itself it sinks into a smooth even surface, of which no one part is higher than another. If I should pour water, for instance, into the arm of a pipe of the shape of the letter U, the fluid would rise in the other arm just to the same height; because, otherwise, it would not find its level, which it invariably maintains. A pipe bending from one hill down into the valley, and rising by another, may be considered as a tube of this kind, in which the water, sinking in one arm, rises to maintain its level in the other. Upon this principle all water-pipes depend, which can never raise the water higher than the fountain from which they proceed.

Again, let us suppose for a moment that the arms of the pipe already mentioned may be made long or short at pleasure; and let us still further suppose that there is some obstacle at the bottom of it which prevents the water pouring into one arm from rising in other. Now, it is evident that this obstacle at the bottom will sustain a pressure from the water in one arm equal to what would make it rise in the other; and this pressure will be great in proportion as the arm filled with water is tall. We may therefore generally conclude that the bottom of every vessel is pressed by a force in proportion to the height of the water in that vessel. For instance, if the vessel filled with water be forty feet high, the bottom of that vessel will sustain such a pressure as would raise the same water forty feet high, which is very great. From hence we see how extremely apt our pipes that convey water to the city are to burst; for descending from a hill of more than forty feet high, they are pressed by the water contained in them with a force equal to what would raise it more than forty feet high; and that this is sometimes able to burst a wooden pipe we can have no room to doubt.

Still recurring to our pipe, let us suppose one of its arms ten times as thick as the other; this will produce no effect whatsoever upon the obstacle below, which we supposed hindering its rise in the other arm; because how thick soever the pipe may be, its contents would only rise to its own level; and it will, therefore, press the obstacle with a force equal thereto. We may therefore universally conclude that the bottom of any vessel is pressed by its water, not as it is broad or narrow, but in proportion as it is high. Thus, the water contained in a vessel not thicker than my finger presses its bottom as forcibly as the water contained in a hogshead of an equal height; and if we made holes in the bottoms of both, the water would burst out as forcibly from the one as the other. Hence we may easily burst a hogshead with a single quart of water; and it has been often done. We have only to place a hogshead on one end filled with water; we then bore a hole in its top, into which we plant a narrow tin pipe of about thirty feet high; by pouring a quart of water into this at the top, as it continues to rise higher in the pipe it will press more forcibly on the bottom and sides of the hogshead below, and at last burst it.

Still returning to our simple instrument of demonstration. If we suppose the obstacle at the bottom of the pipe to be moveable, so as that the force of the water can push it up into the other arm; such a body is quicksilver, for instance. Now, it is evident that the weight of water weighing down upon this quicksilver in one arm will at last press it up in the other arm, and will continue to press it upward until the fluid in both arms be upon a par; so that here we actually see quicksilver, the heaviest substance in the world except gold, floating upon water, which is but a very light substance.

When we see water thus capable of sustaining quicksilver, we need not be surprised that it is capable of floating much lighter substances—ships, animals, or timber. When anything floats upon water, we always see that a part of it sinks in the same. A cork, a ship,

a buoy, each buries itself a bed on the surface of the water. This bed may be considered as so much water displaced; the water will therefore lose so much of its own weight as is equal to the weight of that bed of water which it displaces. If the body be heavier than a similar bulk of water, it will sink; if lighter, it will swim. Universally, therefore, a body plunged in water loses as much of its weight as is equal to the weight of a body of its own bulk. Some light bodies, therefore, such as cork, lose much of their weight, and therefore swim; and more ponderous bodies sink, because they are heavier than their bulk of water.

Upon this simple theorem entirely depends the art of weighing metals hydrostatically. I have a guinea, for instance, and desire to know whether it be pure gold: I have weighed it in the usual way with another guinea, and find it exactly of the same weight, but still I have some suspicion, from its great bulk, that it is not pure. In order to determine this, I have nothing more to do than to weigh it in water with that same guinea that I know to be good, and of the same weight; and this will instantly show the difference; for the true ponderous metal will sink, and the false bulky one will be sustained in proportion to the greatness of its surface. Those whose business it is to examine the purity of metals have a balance made for this purpose, by which they can precisely determine which is most ponderous or, as it is expressed, which has the greatest specific gravity. Seventy-one pounds and a half of quicksilver is found to be equal in bulk to a hundred pounds weight of gold. In the same proportion, sixty of lead, fifty-four of silver, forty-seven of copper, forty-five of brass, forty-two of iron, and thirty-nine of tin, are each equal to a hundred pounds of the same ponderous of all metals.

This method of precisely determining the purity of gold by weighing in water was first discovered by Archimedes, to whom mankind have been indebted for many useful discoveries. Hiero, king of Sicily, having sent a certain quantity of gold to be made into a crown, the workman, it seems, kept a part for his own use, and supplied the deficiency with a baser metal. His fraud was suspected by the king, but could not be detected; till applying to Archimedes, he weighed the crown in water; and by this method informed the king of the quantity of gold which was taken away.

It has been said that all fluids endeavour to preserve their level; and, likewise, that a body pressing on the surface tended to destroy that level. From hence, therefore, it will easily be inferred that the deeper any body sinks the greater will be the resistance of the depressed fluid beneath. It will be asked, therefore, as the resistance increases in proportion as the body descends—How comes the body after it is got a certain way to sink at all? The answer is obvious; from the fluid above pressing it down with almost as great a force as the fluid beneath presses it up. Take away by any art the pressure of the fluid from above, and let only the resistance of the fluid from below be suffered to act; and after the body is got down very deep the resistance will be insuperable. To give an instance. A small hole opens in the bottom of a ship at sea, forty feet, we will suppose, below the surface of the water; through this the water bursts up with great violence; I attempt to stop it with my hand, but it pushes the hand violently away. Here the hand is, in fact, a body attempting to sink upon water, at a depth of forty feet, with the pressure from above taken away. The water, therefore, will overcome my strength, and it will continue to burst in till it has got to its level; if I should then dive into the hold, and clap my hand upon the opening as before, I should perceive no force acting against my hand at all; for the water above presses the hand as much down against the hole as the water without presses it upward. For this reason, also, when we dive to the bottom of the water we sustain a very great pressure from above, it is true, but it is coun-

teracted by the pressure from below; and the whole acting uniformly on the surface of the body, wraps us close round without injury.

As I have deviated thus far, I will just mention one or two properties more which water and all such like fluids is found to possess. And first, their ascending in vessels which are emptied of air, as in our common pumps, for instance. The air, however, being the agent in this case, we must previously examine its properties before we undertake the explanation. The other property to be mentioned is that of their ascending in small capillary tubes. This is one of the most extraordinary and inscrutable appearances in nature. Glass tubes may be drawn, by means of a lamp, as fine as a hair—still preserving their hollow within. If one of these be planted in a vessel of water or spirit of wine, the liquor will immediately be seen to ascend; and it will rise higher, in proportion as the tube is smaller, a foot, two feet, and more. How does this come to pass? Is the air the cause? No; the liquor rises although the air be taken away. Is attraction the cause? No; for quicksilver does not ascend, which it otherwise would. Many have been the theories of experimental philosophers to explain this property. Such as are fond of travelling in the regions of conjecture may consult Hawkebee, Morgan, Jurin, or Watson, who have examined the subject with great minuteness. Hitherto, however, nothing but doubts instead of knowledge have been the result of their inquiries. It will not, therefore, become us to enter into the minuteness of the inquiry, when we have so many greater wonders to call our attention away

CHAP. XIV.

OF THE ORIGIN OF RIVERS

"The sun ariseth, and the sun goeth down, and pants for the place from whence he arose. All things are filled with labour, and man cannot utter it. All rivers run into the sea, yet the sea is not full. Unto the place whence the rivers come, thither they return again. The eye is not satisfied with seeing, nor the ear with hearing." Thus speaks the wisest of the Jews; and at so early a period was the curiosity of man employed in observing these great circulations of Nature. Every eye attempted to explain those appearances; and every philosopher who has long thought upon the subject seems to give a peculiar solution. The inquiry whence rivers are produced—whence they derive those unceasing stores of water which continually enrich the world with fertility and verdure—has been variously considered, and divided the opinions of mankind more than any other topic in natural history.

In this contest the various champions may be classed under two leaders, M. De La Hire, who contends that rivers must be supplied from the sea, strained through the pores of the earth; and Dr. Halley, who has endeavoured to demonstrate that the clouds are sufficient for the supply. Both sides have brought mathematics to their aid, and have shown that long and laborious calculations can at any time be made to obscure both sides of a question.

De La Hire begins his proofs that rain-water evaporated from the sea is insufficient for the production of rivers, by showing that rain never penetrates the surface of the earth above sixteen inches. From thence he infers, that it is impossible in many cases for it to sink so as to be found at such considerable depths below. Rain-water he grants is often seen to mix with rivers, and to swell their currents; but a much greater part of it evaporates. "In fact," continues he, "if we suppose the earth everywhere covered with water, evaporation

alone would be sufficient to carry off two feet nine inches of it in a year; and yet we very well know that scarce nineteen inches of rain falls in that time—so that evaporation would carry off a much greater quantity than is ever known to descend. The small quantity of rain-water that falls is therefore but barely sufficient for the purposes of vegetation. Two leaves of a fig-tree have been found by experiment to imbibe from the earth, in five hours and a half, two ounces of water. This implies the great quantity of fluid that must be exhausted in the maintenance of one single plant. Add to this, that the waters of the river Rungis will, by calculation, rise to fifty inches; and the whole country from whence they are supplied never receives fifty inches in the year by rain. Besides this, there are many salt springs which are known to proceed immediately from the sea, and are subject to its flux and reflux. In short, wherever we dig beneath the surface of the earth, except in very few instances, water is to be found; and it is by this subterraneous water that springs and rivers, nay, a great part of vegetation itself, is supported; it is this subterraneous water which is raised into steam by the internal heat of the earth that feeds plants; it is this subterraneous water that distils through its interstices, and there, cooling, forms fountains; it is this, that, by the addition of rains, is increased into rivers, and pours plenty over the whole earth."

On the other side of the question, it is asserted that the vapours which are exhaled from the sea, and driven by the winds upon land, are more than sufficient to supply not only plants with moisture, but also to furnish a sufficiency of water to the greatest rivers. For this purpose, an estimate has been made of the quantity of water emptied at the mouths of the greatest rivers, and of the quantity also raised from the sea by evaporation; and it has been found that the latter by far exceeds the former. This calculation was made by Mr. Marionet. By him it was found, upon receiving such rain as fell in a year, in a proper vessel fitted for that purpose, that, one year with another, there might fall about twenty inches of water upon the surface of the earth throughout Europe. It was also computed that the river Seine, from its source to the city of Paris, might cover an extent of ground that would supply it annually with above seven billions of cubic feet of this water formed by evaporation. But upon computing the quantity which passed through the arches of one of its bridges in a year, it was found to amount only to two hundred and eighty millions of cubic feet, which is not above the sixth part of the former number. Hence, therefore, it appears that this river may receive a supply, brought to it by the evaporated waters of the sea, six times greater than what it gives back to the sea by its current; and, therefore, evaporation is more than sufficient for maintaining the greatest rivers, and supplying the purposes also of vegetation.

In this manner the sea supplies sufficient humidity to the air for furnishing the earth with all necessary moisture. One part of its vapours fall upon its own bosom before they arrive upon land. Another part is arrested by the sides of the mountains, and is compelled, by the rising stream of air, to mount upward towards its summits. Here it is presently precipitated, dripping down by the crannies of the stone. In some places, entering into the caverns of the mountains, it gathers in those receptacles, which, being once filled, all the rest overflows, and, breaking out by the sides of the hills, forms single springs. Many of these run down by the valleys or guts between the ridges of the mountain, and, coming to unite, form little rivulets or brooks; many of these, meeting in one common valley, and gaining the plain ground, being grown less rapid, become a river; and many of these uniting, make such vast bodies of water as the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Danube.

There is still a third part, which falls upon the lower

grounds, and furnishes plants with their wonted supply. But the circulation does not even rest here; for it is again exhaled into vapour by the action of the sun, and afterward returned to that great mass of waters whence it first arose. "This," adds Dr Halley, "seems the most reasonable hypothesis; and much more likely to be true than that of those who derive all springs from the filtering of the sea-waters, through certain imaginary tubes or passages within the earth; since it is well known that the greatest rivers have their most copious fountains the most remote from the sea."

This seems the most general opinion; and yet after all, it is still pressed with great difficulties, and there is still room to look out for a better theory. The perpetuity of many springs which always yield the same quantity when the least rain or vapour is afforded as well as when the greatest, is a strong objection. Derham mentions a spring, at Upminster, which he could never perceive by his eye to be diminished in the greatest droughts, even when all the ponds in the country, as well as an adjoining brook, have been dry for several months together. In the rainy seasons, also, it was never overflowed—except sometimes, perhaps, for an hour or so, upon the immission of the external rains. He therefore justly enough concludes, that had this spring its origin from rain or vapour, there would be found an increase or decrease of its water corresponding to the causes of its production.

Thus the reader, after having been tossed from one hypothesis to another, must at last be content to settle in conscious ignorance. All that has been written upon this subject affords him rather something to say than something to think—something rather for others than for himself. Varenus, indeed, although he is at a loss for the origin of rivers, is by no means so as to their formation. He is pretty positive that all rivers are artificial. He boldly asserts that their channels have been originally formed by the industry of man. His reasons are, that when a new spring breaks forth the water does not make itself a new channel, but spreads over the adjacent land. "Thus," says he, "men are obliged to direct its course, otherwise Nature never would have found one." He enumerates many rivers that are certainly known from history to have been dug by man. He alleges that no salt-water rivers are found, because men did not want salt water; and as for salt, that was procurable at a less expence than digging a river for it. However, it costs a speculative man but a small expence of thinking to form such an hypothesis. It may, perhaps, engross the reader's patience to detain him longer upon it.

Nevertheless, though Philosophy be thus ignorant as to the production of rivers, yet the laws of their motion and the nature of their currents have been very well explained. The Italians have particularly distinguished themselves in this respect, and it is chiefly to them that we are indebted for the improvement.

All rivers have their source either in mountains or elevated lakes; and it is in their descent from these that they acquire that velocity which maintains their future current. At first their course is generally rapid and headlong; but it is retarded in its journey by the continual friction against its banks by the many obstacles it meets to divert its stream, and by the plains generally becoming more level as it approaches towards the sea.

If this acquired velocity be quite spent, and the plain through which the river passes is entirely level, it will, notwithstanding, still continue to run from the perpendicular pressure of the water, which is always in exact proportion to the depth. This perpendicular pressure is nothing more than the weight of the upper waters pressing the lower out of their places, and, consequently, driving them forward, they cannot recede against the stream. As this pressure is greatest

in the deepest parts of the river, so we generally find the middle of the stream most rapid; both because it has the greatest motion thus communicated by the pressure, and the fewest obstructions from the banks on either side.

Rivers thus set into motion are almost always found to make their own beds. Where they find the bed elevated they wear its substance away, and deposit the sediment in the next hollow, so as in time to make the bottom of their channels even. On the other hand, the water is continually gnawing and eating away the banks on each side; and this with more force as the current happens to strike more against them. By these means, it always has a tendency to render them more straight and parallel to its own course. Thus it continues to rectify its banks and enlarge its bed; and, consequently, to diminish the force of its stream, till there becomes an equilibrium between the force of the water and the resistance of its banks, upon which both will remain without any further mutation: and it is happy for man that bounds are put to the erosion of the earth by water, and that we find all rivers only dig and widen themselves but to a certain degree.

In those plains and large valleys where great rivers flow, the bed of the river is usually lower than any part of the valley. But it often happens that the surface of the water is higher than many of the grounds that are adjacent to the banks of the stream. If, after inundations, we take a view of some rivers, we shall find their banks appear above water at a time that all the adjacent valley is overflowed. This proceeds from the frequent deposition of mud and such like substances upon the banks, by the rivers frequently overflowing; and thus, by degrees, they become elevated above the plain; and the water is often seen higher also.

Rivers, as every body has seen, are always broadest at the mouth, and grow narrower towards their source. But what is less known, and probably more deserving curiosity, is, that they run in a more directed channel as they immediately leave their sources; and that their sinuosities and turnings become more numerous as they proceed. It is a certain sign among the savages of North America, that they are near the sea when they find the rivers winding, and every now and then changing their direction. And this is even now become an indication to the Europeans themselves in their journeys through those trackless forests. As those sinuosities, therefore, increase as the river approaches the sea, it is not to be wondered at that they sometimes divide, and thus disembody by different channels. The Danube disembody into the Euxine by seven mouths; the Nile by the same number; and the Wolga by seventy.

The currents of rivers are to be estimated very differently from the manner in which those writers who have given us mathematical theories on this subject represent them. They found their calculations upon the surface being a perfect plain from one bank to the other: but this is not the actual state of Nature; for rivers in general rise in the middle; and this convexity is greatest in proportion as the rapidity of the stream is greater. Any person to be convinced of this need only lay his eye as nearly as he can on a level with the stream, and, looking across to the opposite bank, he will perceive the river in the midst to be elevated considerably above what it is at the edges. This rising in some rivers is often found to be three feet high, and is ever increased in proportion to the rapidity of the stream. In this case, the water in the midst of the current loses a part of its weight from the velocity of its motion; while that at the sides, for the contrary reason, sinks lower. It sometimes, however, happens that this appearance is reversed; for when tides are found to flow up with violence against the natural current of the water, the greatest rapidity is then found at the sides of the river, as the water there least resists the influx from the sea.

On those occasions, therefore, the river presents a concave rather than a convex surface; and as in the former case the middle waters rose in a ridge, in this case they sink in a furrow.

The stream in all rivers is more rapid in proportion as its channel is diminished. For instance, it will be much swifter where it is ten yards broad than where it is twenty; for the force behind still pushing the water forward, when it comes to the narrow part it must make up by velocity what it wants in room.

It often happens that the stream of a river is opposed by one of its jutting banks by an island in the midst, the arches of a bridge, or some such obstacle. This produces not unfrequently a back current; and the water, having passed the arch with great velocity, pushes the water on each side of its direct current. This produces a side current, tending to the bank; and not unfrequently a whirlpool, in which a large body of waters are circulated in a kind of cavity sinking down in the middle. The central point of the whirlpool is always lowest, because it has the least motion; the other parts are supported in some measure by the violence of theirs, and consequently rise higher as their motion is greater; so that towards the extremity of the whirlpool must be higher than towards the centre.

If the stream of a river be stopped at the surface, and yet be free below—for instance, if it be laid over by a bridge of boats—there will then be a double current; the water at the surface will flow back, while that at the bottom will proceed with increased velocity. It often happens that the current at the bottom is swifter than at the top, when, upon violent land-floods, the weight of waters towards the source presses the waters at the bottom before it has had time to communicate its motion to the surface. However, in all other cases, the surface of the stream is swifter than the bottom, as it is not retarded by rubbing over the bed of the river.

It might be supposed that bridges, dams, and other obstacles in the current of a river, would retard its velocity. But the difference they make is very inconsiderable. The water, by these stoppages, gets an elevation above the object; which, when it has surmounted them, gives a velocity that recompenses the former delay. Islands and turnings also retard the course of the stream but very inconsiderably; any cause which diminishes the quantity of the water most sensibly diminishes the force and the velocity of the stream.

An increase of water in the bed of the river always increases its rapidity, except in cases of inundation. The instant the river has overflowed its banks the velocity of its current is always turned that way, and the inundation is perceived to continue for some days; which it would not otherwise do if, as soon as the cause was discontinued, it acquired its former rapidity.

A violent storm that sets directly up against the course of the stream will always retard, and sometimes entirely stop its course. I have seen an instance of this, when the bed of a large river was left entirely dry for some hours, and the fish were caught among the stones at the bottom.

Inundations are generally greater towards the source of rivers than farther down, because the current is generally swifter below than above—and that for the reasons already assigned.

A little river may be received into a large one without augmenting either its width or depth. This, which at first view seems a paradox, is yet very easily accounted for. The little river, in this case, only goes towards increasing the swiftness of the larger, and putting its dormant waters into motion. In this manner, the Venetian branch of the Po was pushed on by the Ferrarese branch and that of Panaro, without any enlargement of its breadth or depth from these accessions.

A river tending to enter another, either perpendicularly or in any opposite direction, will be diverted by degrees

from that direction, and be obliged to make itself a more favourable entrance downward, and more conspiring with the stream of the former.

The union of two rivers into one makes it flow the swifter; since the same quantity of water, instead of rubbing against four shores, now only rubs against two. And, besides, the current being deeper, becomes of consequence more fitted for motion.

With respect to the places from whence rivers proceed, it may be taken for a general rule, that the largest and highest mountains supply the greatest and most extensive rivers. It may be also remarked, in whatever direction the ridge of the mountain runs, the river takes an opposite course. If the mountain, for instance, stretches from north to south, the river runs from east and west, and so contrariwise. These are some of the most generally received opinions regarding the course of rivers. However, they are liable to many exceptions; and nothing but an actual knowledge of each particular river can furnish us with an exact theory of its current.

The largest rivers of Europe are, first, the Volga, which is about six hundred and fifty leagues in length, extending from Reeschow to Astrachan. It is remarkable of this river, that it abounds with water during the summer months of May and June; but all the rest of the year is so shallow as to scarce cover its bottom, or allow a passage for loaded vessels that trade up in its stream.

The largest rivers of Africa are, in Senegal, which runs a course of not less than eleven hundred leagues, comprehending the Niger, which some have supposed to fall into it. However, later accounts affirm that the Niger is lost in the sands, about three hundred miles up from the western coasts of Africa. Be this as it may, the Senegal is well known to be navigable for more than three hundred leagues up the country; and how much higher it may reach is not yet discovered, as the dreadful fatality of the inland parts of Africa not only deter curiosity, but even avarice, which is a much stronger passion. At the end of the last war, of fifty Englishmen that were sent to the factory at Galam, a place taken from the French, and nine hundred miles up the river, only one returned to tell the fate of his companions, who were destroyed by the climate. The celebrated river Nile is said to be nine hundred and seventy leagues, from its source among the mountains of the Moon, in Upper Æthiopia, to its opening into the Mediterranean Sea. The sources of this river were considered as inscrutable by the ancients; and the causes of its periodical inundation were equally unknown. They have both been ascertained by the missionaries who have travelled into the interior parts of Æthiopia. The Nile takes its rise in the kingdom of Gojam, from a small aperture on the top of a mountain, which, though not above a foot and a half over, yet was unfathomable. This fountain, when arrived at the foot of the mountain, expands into a river; and, being joined by others, forms a lake thirty leagues long, and as many broad; from this, its channel, in some measure, winds back to the country where it first began; from thence, precipitating by frightful cataracts, it travels through a variety of desert regions, equally formidable, such as Amhara, Olaca, Damot, and Xaoa. Upon its arrival in the kingdom of Upper Egypt, it runs through a rocky channel, which some late travellers have mistaken for its cataracts. In the beginning of its course, it receives many lesser rivers into it; and Fliny was mistaken in saying that it received none. In the beginning also of its course, it has many windings; but, for above three hundred leagues from the sea, it runs in a direct line. Its annual overflows arise from a very obvious cause, which is almost universal with the great rivers that take their source near the line. The rainy season, which is periodical in those climates, flood the rivers; and as this always happens in our summer, so the Nile is at that time overflowed.

From these inundations, the inhabitants of Egypt derive happiness and plenty; and, when the river does not arise to its accustomed heights, they prepare for an indifferent harvest. It begins to overflow about the seventeenth of June; it generally continues to augment for forty days, and decreases in about as many more. The time of increase and decrease, however, is much more inconsiderable now than it was among the ancients. Herodotus informs us, that it was a hundred days rising, and as many falling; which shows that the inundation was much greater at that time than at present. Mr. Buffon has ascribed the present diminution, as well to the lessening of the Mountains of the Moon, by their substance having so long been washed down with the stream, as to the rising of the earth in Egypt, that has for so many ages received this extraneous supply. But we do not find, by the buildings that have remained since the times of the ancients, that the earth is much raised since then. Besides the Nile in Africa, we may reckon the Zara, and the Coanza, from the greatness of whose openings into the sea, and the rapidity of whose streams, we form an estimate of the great distance from whence they come. Their courses, however, are spent in watering deserts and savage countries, whose poverty or fierceness have kept strangers away.

But of all parts of the world, America, as it exhibits the most lofty mountains, so also it supplies the largest rivers. The foremost of these is the great river Amazon, which, from its source in the lake of Dauricocha to its discharge into the Western Ocean, performs a course of more than twelve hundred leagues. The breadth and depth of this river is answerable to its vast length; and, where its width is more contracted, its depth is augmented in proportion. So great is the body of its waters, that other rivers, though before the objects of admiration, are lost in its bosom. It proceeds, after their junction, with its usual appearance, without any visible change in its breadth or rapidity; and, if we may so express it, remains without ostentation. In some places it displays its whole magnificence, dividing into several large branches, and encompassing a multitude of islands; and, at length, discharging itself into the ocean by a channel of a hundred and fifty miles broad. Another river, that may almost rival the former, is the St. Lawrence, in Canada, which rising in the lake Affiniboils, passes from one lake to another, from Christineaux to Alempigo; from thence to lake Superior; thence to the lake Hurons; to lake Erie, to lake Ontario; and, at last, after a course of nine hundred leagues, pours their collected waters into the Atlantic Ocean. The river Mississippi is of more than seven hundred leagues, in length, beginning at its source near the lake Affiniboils, and ending at its opening into the gulph of Mexico. The river Plate runs a length of more than eight hundred leagues from its source in the river Paraná, to its mouth. The river Oroonoko is seven hundred and fifty-five leagues in length, from its source near Pasto to its discharge into the Atlantic Ocean.

Such is the amazing length of the greatest rivers; and even in some of these, the most remote sources very probably yet continue unknown. In fact, if we consider the number of rivers which they receive, and the little acquaintance we have with the regions through which they run, it is not to be wondered at that geographers are divided concerning the sources of most of them. As among a number of roots by which nourishment is conveyed to a stately tree, it is difficult to determine precisely that by which the tree is chiefly supplied, so among the many branches of a great river, it is equally difficult to tell which is the original. Hence it may easily happen, that a smaller branch is taken for the capital stream; and its runnings are pursued and delineated in prejudice of some other branch that better deserved the name and the description. In this manner in Europe, the Danube is known to receive thirty lesser

rivers: the Wolga, thirty-two or thirty-three. In Asia, the Hohanno receives thirty five; the Jenisca, above sixty; the Oby as many; the Amour about forty; the Nanquin receives thirty rivers; the Ganges twenty; and Euphrates about eleven. In Africa, the Senegal receives more than twenty rivers; the Nile receives not one for five hundred leagues upwards, and then only twelve or thirteen. In America, the river Amazon receives above sixty, and those very considerable; the river St. Lawrence about forty, counting those which fall into its lakes; the Mississippi receives forty; and the river Plate above fifty.

I mentioned the inundations of the Ganges and the Nile, but almost every other great river whose source lies within the tropics have their stated inundations also. The river Pegu has been called by travellers the Indian Nile, because of the similar overflowings of its stream; this it does to an extent of thirty leagues on each side; and so fertilizes the soil, that the inhabitants send great quantities of rice into other countries, and have still abundance for their own consumption. The river Senegal has likewise its inundations, which cover the whole flat country of Negroland, beginning and ending much about the same time with those of the Nile; as, in fact, both rivers rise from the same mountains, but the difference between the effects of the inundations in each river is remarkable: in the one, it distributes health and plenty; in the other, diseases, famine, and death. The inhabitants along the torrid coasts of the Senegal can receive no benefit from any additional manure the river may carry down to their soil, which is, by Nature, more than sufficiently luxuriant; or, even if they could, they have not industry to turn it to any advantage. The banks, therefore, of the river lie uncultivated, overgrown with rank and noxious herbage, and infested with thousands of animals of various malignity. Every new flood only tends to increase the rankness of the soil, and to provide fresh shelter for the creatures that infest it. If the flood continues but a few days longer than usual, the improvident inhabitants, who are driven up in the higher grounds, want provisions, and famine ensues. When the river begins to return into its channel, the humidity and heat of the air are equally fatal; and the carcases of infinite numbers of animals, swept away by the inundation, putrifying in the sun, produce a stench that is almost insupportable. But even the luxuriance of the vegetation becomes a nuisance. I have been assured, by persons of veracity who have been up to the river Senegal, that there are some plants growing along the coast, the smell of which is so powerful that it is hardly to be endured. It is certain, that all the sailors and soldiers who have been at any of our factories there ascribe the unwholesomeness of the voyage up the stream to the vegetable vapour. However this may be, the inundations of the rivers in this wretched part of the globe contribute scarce any advantage, if we except the beauty of the prospects which they afford. These, indeed, are finished beyond the utmost reach of art; a spacious glassy river, with its banks here and there fringed to the very surface by the mangrove-tree, that grows down into the water, presents itself to view; lofty forests of various colours, with openings between, carpeted with green plants and the most gaudy flowers; beasts and animals, of various kinds, that stand upon the banks of the river, and, with a sort of wild curiosity, survey the mariners as they pass, contribute to heighten the scene. This is the sketch of an African prospect; which delights the eye even while it destroys the constitution.

Beside these annually periodical inundations, there are many rivers that overflow at much shorter intervals. Thus most of those in Peru and Chili have scarce any motion by night; but upon the appearance of the morning sun they resume their former rapidity: this proceeds from the mountain snows, which, melting with the heat, increase the stream, and continue to drive on the current

while the sun continues to dissolve them. Some rivers also flow with an even steady current, from their source to the sea; others flow with greater rapidity, their stream being poured down in a cataract, or swallowed by the sands, before they reach the sea.

The rivers of those countries that have been least inhabited are usually more rocky, uneven, and broken into waterfalls or cataracts than those where the industry of man has been more prevalent. Wherever man comes Nature puts on a milder appearance: the terrible and the sublime are exchanged for the gentle and the useful; the cataract is sloped away into a placid stream; and the banks become more smooth and even. It must have required ages to render the Rhone or the Loire navigable; their beds must have been cleaned and directed; their inequalities removed; and by a long course of industry, Nature must have been taught to conspire with the desires of her controller. Every one's experience must have supplied instances of rivers thus being made to flow more evenly, and more beneficially to mankind; but there are some whose currents are so rapid and falls so precipitate that no art can obviate, and that must for ever remain as amazing instances of incorrigible Nature.

Of this kind are the cataracts of the Rhine; one of which I have seen exhibit a very strange appearance; it was that at Schathausen, which was frozen quite across, and the water stood in columns where the cataract had formerly fallen. The Nile, as was said, has its cataracts. The river Vologda, in Russia, has two. The river Zara, in Africa, has one near its source. The river Velino, in Italy, has a cataract of above a hundred and fifty feet perpendicular. Near the city of Gottenburgh, in Sweden, the river rushes down from a prodigious high precipice into a deep pit, with such a terrible noise, and dreadful force, that those trees designed for the masts of ships, which are floated down the river, usually are turned upside down in their fall, and often are shattered to pieces, by being dashed against the surface of the water in the pit; this occurs if the masts fall sideways upon the water; but if they fall endways, they dive so far under water, that they disappear for a quarter of an hour or more; the pit into which they are thus plunged has been often sounded with a line of some hundred fathoms long, but no ground has been found hitherto. There is also a cataract at Powerscourt, in Ireland, in which, if I am rightly informed, the water falls three hundred feet perpendicular; which is a greater descent than that of any other cataract in any part of the world. There is a cataract at Albany, in the province of New York, which pours its stream fifty feet perpendicular. But of all the cataracts in the world, that of Niagara, in Canada, if we consider the great body of water that falls, must be allowed to be the greatest and the most astonishing.

This amazing fall of water is made by the river St. Lawrence, in its passage from the lake Erie into the lake Ontario. We have already said the St. Lawrence was one of the largest rivers in the world; and yet the whole of its waters are here poured down, by a fall of a hundred and fifty feet perpendicular. It is not easy to bring the imagination to correspond with the greatness of the scene; a river, extremely deep and rapid, and that serves to drain the waters of almost all North America into the Atlantic Ocean, is here poured precipitately down a ledge of rocks, that rise, like a wall, across the whole bed of its stream. The width of the river a little above is near three quarters of a mile broad; and the rocks, where it grows narrower, are four hundred yards over. Their direction is not straight across, but hollowing inwards like a horse-shoe; so that the cataract, which bends to the shape of the obstacle, rounding inwards, presents a kind of theatre the most tremendous in Nature. Just in the middle of this circular wall of waters, a little island that has braved the fury of the currents presents one of its points, and divides the

stream at top into two; but it unites again long before it has got to the bottom. The noise of the fall is heard at several leagues distance; and the fury of the waters at the bottom of their fall is inconceivable. The dashing produces a mist that rises to the very clouds; and that produces a most beautiful rainbow, when the sun shines. It may easily be conceived, that such a cataract quite destroys the navigation of the stream; and yet some Indian canoes, as it is said, have been known to venture down it with safety.

Of those rivers that lose themselves in the sands, or are swallowed up by chasms in the earth, we have various information. What we are told by the ancients, of the Alpheus, in Aracadia, that sinks into the ground, and rises again near Syracuse, in Sicily, where it takes the name of Arethusa, is rather more known than credited. But we have better information with respect to the river Tigris being lost in this manner under Mount Taurus; of the Guadalquivir, in Spain, being buried in the sands; of the river Greata, in Yorkshire, running under ground, and rising again; and even of the great Rhine itself, a part of which is no doubt lost in the sands a little above Leydon. But it ought to be observed of this river, that by much the greatest part arrives at the ocean; for, although the ancient channel which fell into the sea, a little to the west of that city, is now entirely choked up, yet there are still a number of small canals, that carry a great body of waters to the sea; and, besides, it has also two very large openings, the Lech and the Waal, below Rotterdam, by which it empties itself abundantly.

Be this as it will, nothing is more common in sultry and sandy deserts, than rivers being thus either lost in the sands, or entirely dried up by the sun. And hence we see, that under the line the small rivers are but few; for such little streams as are common in Europe, and which with us receive the name of rivers, would quickly evaporate, in those parching and extensive deserts. It is even confidently asserted, that the great river Niger is thus lost before it reaches the ocean; and that its supposed mouths, the Gambia and the Senegal, are distinct rivers, that come a vast way from the interior parts of the country. It appears, therefore, that the rivers under the line are large; but it is otherwise at the poles, where they must necessarily be small. In that desolate region, as the mountains are covered with perpetual ice, which melts but little, or not at all, the springs and rivulets are furnished with a very small supply. Here, therefore, men and beasts would perish, and die for thirst, if Providence had not ordered that in the hardest winter thaws should intervene, which deposit a small quantity of snow-water in pools under the ice; and from this source the wretched inhabitants drain a scanty beverage.

Thus, whatever quarter of the globe we turn to, we shall find new reasons to be satisfied with that part of it in which we reside. Our rivers furnish all the plenty of the African stream, without its inundation; they have all the coolness of the polar rivulet, with a more constant supply; they may want the terrible magnificence of huge cataracts or extensive lakes, but they are more navigable and more transparent; though less deep and rapid than the rivers of the torrid zone, they are more manageable, and only wait the will of man to take their direction. The rivers of the torrid zone, like the monarchs of the country, rule with despotic tyranny—profuse in their bounties, and ungovernable in their rage. The rivers of Europe, like its kings, are the friends, and not the oppressors, of its people—bounded by no limits, abridged in the power of doing ill, directed by human sagacity, and only at freedom to distribute happiness and plenty.

CHAP. XV.

OF THE OCEAN IN GENERAL, AND OF ITS SOFTNESS.

If we look upon a map of the world, we shall find that the ocean occupies considerably more of the globe than the land is found to do. This immense body of waters is diffused round both the old and new continent to the south, and may surround them also to the north for what we know; but the ice in those regions has stopped our inquiries. Although the ocean, properly speaking, is but one extensive sheet of waters continued over every part of the globe without interruption, and although no part of it is divided from the rest, yet geographers have distinguished it by different names, as the Atlantic or Western Ocean, the Northern Ocean, the Southern Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Indian Ocean. Others have divided it differently, and given other names, as the Frozen Ocean, the Inferior Ocean, or the American Ocean. But all these being arbitrary distinctions, and not of Nature's making, the naturalist may consider them with indifference.

In this vast receptacle almost all the rivers of the earth ultimately terminate; nor do such great supplies seem to increase its stores, for it is neither apparently swollen by their tribute, nor diminished by their failure; it still continues the same. Indeed, what is the quantity of water of all the rivers and lakes in the world, compared to that contained in this great receptacle? If we should offer to make a rude estimate, we shall find that all the rivers in the world, flowing into the bed of the sea, with a continuance of their present stores, would take up at least eight hundred years to fill it to its present height. For, supposing the sea to be eighty-five millions of square miles in extent, and a quarter of a mile, upon an average, in depth, this, upon calculation, will give above twenty-one millions of cubic miles of water as the contents of the whole ocean. Now, to estimate the quantity of water which all the rivers supply, take one of them; the Po, for instance, the quantity of whose discharge into the sea, is known to be one cubic mile of water in twenty-six days. Now it will be found, upon a rude computation, from the quantity of ground the Po, with its influent streams, covers, that all the rivers of the world furnish about two thousand times that quantity of water. In the space of a year, therefore, they will have discharged into the sea about twenty-six thousand cubic miles of water; and not till eight hundred years will they have discharged as much water as it contained in the sea at present. I have not troubled the reader with the odd numbers, lest he should imagine I was giving precision to a subject that is incapable of it.

Thus great is the assemblage of waters diffused round our habitable globe; and yet, immeasurable as they seem, they are mostly rendered subservient to the necessities and the conveniences of so little a being as man. Nevertheless, if it should be asked whether they be made for him alone, the question is not easily resolved. Some philosophers have perceived so much analogy to man in the formation of the ocean, that they have not hesitated to assert its being made for him alone. The distribution of land and water, say they, is admirable; the one being laid against the other so skillfully, that there is a just equipoise of the whole globe. Thus the Northern Ocean balances against the Southern; and the new continent is an exact counterweight to the old. As to any objection from the ocean's occupying too large a share of the globe, they contend that there could not have been a smaller surface employed to supply the earth with a due share of evaporation. On the other hand, some take the gloomy side of the question: they either magnify its apparent defects, or assert that what seems defects to us may be real beauties to some wiser order of beings. They observe that multitudes

of animals are concealed in the ocean, and but a small part of them are known; the rest, therefore, they fail not to say, were certainly made for their own benefit, and not for ours. How far either of these opinions be just I will not presume to determine; but of this we are certain, that God has endowed us with abilities to turn this great extent of waters to our own advantage. He has made these things, perhaps, for other uses; but He has given us faculties to convert them to our own. This much agitated question, therefore, seems to terminate here. We shall never know whether the things of this world have been made for our use; but we very well know that we have been made to enjoy them. Let us, then, boldly affirm that the earth and all its wonders are ours, since we are furnished with powers to force them into our service. Man is the lord of all the sub-lunary creation; the howling savage, the winding serpent, with all the untameable and rebellious offspring of Nature, are destroyed in the contest, or driven at a distance from his habitations. The extensive and tempestuous ocean, instead of limiting or equalising his power, only serves to assist his industry and enlarge the sphere of his enjoyments. Its billows and its monsters, instead of presenting a scene of terror, only call up the courage of this intrepid little being; and the greatest dangers that man now fears on the deep is from his fellow-creatures. Indeed, when I consider the human race as Nature has formed them, there is but little of the habitable globe that seems made for them; but when I consider them as accumulating the experience of ages in commanding the earth, there is nothing so great or so terrible. What a poor contemptible being is the naked savage, standing on the beach of the ocean, and trembling at its tumults! How little capable is he of converting its terrors into benefits, or of saying—Behold an element made wholly for my enjoyment! He considers it as an angry deity, and pays it the homage of submission. But it is far different when he has exercised his mental powers—when he has learned to find his own superiority, and to make it subservient to his command. It is then that his dignity begins to appear, and that the true Deity is justly praised for having been mindful of man—for having given him the earth for his habitation and the sea for an inheritance.

This power which man has obtained over the ocean was at first enjoyed in common; and none pretended to a right in that element where all seemed intruders. The sea, therefore, was open to all till the time of the Emperor Justinian. His successor, Leo, granted such as were in possession of the shore the sole right of fishing before their respective territories. The Thracian Bosphorus was the first that was thus appropriated; and from that time it has been the struggle of most of the powers of Europe to obtain an exclusive right in this element. The republic of Venice claims the Adriatic; the Danes are in possession of the Baltic; but the English have a more extensive claim to the empire of all the seas encompassing England, Scotland, and Ireland; and although these have been long contested, yet they are now considered as their indisputable property. Every one knows that the great power of the nation is exerted on this element, and that the instant England ceases to be superior upon the ocean its safety begins to be precarious.

It is in some measure owing to our dependence upon the sea, and to our commerce there, that we are so well acquainted with its extent and figure. The bays, gulfs, currents, and shallows of the ocean are much better known and examined than the provinces and kingdoms of the earth itself. The hopes of acquiring wealth by commerce has carried man to much greater lengths than the desire of gaining information could have done. In consequence of this, there is scarce a strait or a harbour, scarce a rock or a quicksand, scarce an inflexion of the shore or the jutting of a promontory,

that has not been minutely described. But as these present very little entertainment to the imagination, or delight to any but those whose pursuits are lucrative, they need not be dwelt upon here. While the merchant and the mariner are solicitous in describing currents and soundings, the naturalist is employed in observing wonders, though not so beneficial, yet to him of a much more important nature. The saltiness of the sea seems to be the foremost

Whence the sea has derived that peculiar bitterish saltiness which we find in it, appears by Aristotle to have exercised the curiosity of naturalists in all ages. He supposed (and mankind were for ages content with the solution) that the sun continually raised dry saline exhalations from the earth, and deposited them upon the sea; and hence, say his followers, the waters of the sea are more salt at top than at bottom. But, unfortunately for this opinion, neither of the facts is true. Sea-salt is not to be raised by the vapours of the sun; and sea-water is not saltier at the top than at the bottom. Mr. Bohours is of opinion that the Creator gave the waters of the ocean their saltiness at the beginning, not only to prevent their corruption, but to enable them to bear greater burthens. But their saltiness does not prevent their corruption; for stagnant sea-water, like fresh, soon grows putrid; and, as for their bearing greater burthens, fresh water answers all the purposes of navigation quite as well. The established opinion, therefore, is that a Boyle, who supposes, "That the sea's saltiness is supplied not only from rocks or masses of salt at the bottom of the sea, but also from the salt which the rains and rivers and other waters dissolve in their passage through many parts of the earth, and at length carry with them to the sea." But as there is a difference in the taste of rock-salt found on land and that dissolved in the waters of the ocean, this may be produced by the plenty of nitrous and bituminous bodies that, with the salts, are washed into that great receptacle. These substances, being thus once carried to the sea, must for ever remain there; for they do not rise by evaporation so as to be returned back from whence they came. Nothing but the fresh waters of the sea rise in vapours, and all the saltiness remains behind. From hence it follows that every year the sea must become more and more salt; and this speculation Dr. Halley carries so far, as to lay down a method of finding out the age of the world by the saltiness of its waters. "For if it be observed," says he, "what quantity of salt is at present contained in a certain weight of water, taken up from the Caspian Sea, for example, and, after some centuries, what greater quantity of salt is contained in the same weight of water taken from the same place, we may conclude that, in proportion as the saltiness has increased in a certain time, so much must it have increased before that time; and we may thus, by the rule of proportion, make an estimate of the whole time wherein the water would acquire the degree of saltiness it should then be possessed of." All this may be fine; however, an experiment, begun in this century which is not to be completed till some centuries hence, is rather a little mortifying to modern curiosity; and I am induced to think the inhabitants round the Caspian Sea will not be apt to undertake the inquiry.

This saltiness is found to prevail in every part of the ocean; and as much at the surface as at the bottom. It is also found in all those seas that communicate with the ocean; rather in a less degree.

The great lakes, likewise, that have no outlets nor communication with the ocean, are found to be salt; but some of them in less proportion. On the contrary, all those lakes through which the rivers run into the sea, however extensive they be, are, notwithstanding, very fresh: for the rivers do not deposit their salts in the bed of the lake, but carry them with their currents into the ocean. Thus the lakes Ontario and Erie, in North America, although for magnitude they may be considered

as inland seas, are, nevertheless, fresh-water lakes; and kept so by the river St. Lawrence, which passes through them. But those lakes that have no communication with the sea, nor any rivers going out, although they be less than the former, are, however, always salt. Thus, that which goes by the name of the Dead Sea, though very small when compared to those already mentioned, is so exceedingly salt, that its waters seem scarce capable of dissolving any more. The lakes of Mexico and Titicaca, in Peru, though of no great extent, are, notwithstanding, salt—and both for the same reason.

Those who are willing to turn all things to the best, have not failed to consider this saltiness of the sea as a peculiar blessing from Providence, in order to keep so great an element sweet and wholesome. What foundation there may be in the remark I will not pretend to determine; but we shall shortly find a much better cause for its being kept sweet, namely, its motion.

On the other hand, there have been many who have considered the subject in a different light, and have tried every endeavour to make salt-water fresh, so as to supply the wants of mariners in long voyages, or when exhausted of their ordinary stores. At first it was supposed simple distillation would do; but it was soon found that the bitter part of the water still kept mixed. It was then tried by uniting salt of tartar with sea-water, and distilling both; but here the expense was greater than the advantage. Calcined bones were next thought of; but a hoghead of calcined bones, carried to sea, would take up as much room as a hoghead of water, and was more hard to be obtained. In this state, therefore, have the attempts to sweeten sea-water rested; the chymist satisfied with the reality of his invention; and the mariner convinced of its being useless. I cannot, therefore, avoid mentioning a kind of succedaneum which has been lately conceived to answer the purposes of fresh-water, when mariners are quite exhausted. It is well known that persons who go into a warm bath come out several ounces heavier than they went in; their bodies having imbibed a correspondent quantity of water. This more particularly happens if they have been previously debarred from drinking, or go in with a violent thirst; which they quickly find quenched and their spirits restored. It was supposed, that in case of a total failure of fresh-water at sea, a warm bath might be made of sea-water for the use of mariners; and that their pores would thus imbibe the fluid without any of its salts, which would be seen to crystallize on the surface of their bodies. In this manner, it is supposed, a sufficient quantity of moisture may be procured to sustain life, till time or accident furnish a more copious supply.

But, however this may be, the saltiness of the sea can by no means be considered as a principal cause in preserving its waters from putrefaction. The ocean has its currents, like rivers, which circulate its contents round the globe; and these may be said to be the great agents that keep it sweet and wholesome. Its saltiness alone would by no means answer this purpose: and some have even imagined, that the various substances with which it is mixed rather tend to promote putrescence than impede it. Sir Robert Hawkins, one of our most enlightened navigators, gives the following account of a cabin, in which the sea, continuing for some time without motion, began to assume a very formidable appearance. "Were it not," says he "for the moving of the sea, by the force of winds, tides, and currents, it would corrupt all the world! The experiment of this I saw in the year 1590, lying with a fleet about the islands of Azores, almost six months; the greatest part of which time we were becalmed. Upon which all the sea became so replenished with several sorts of jellies, and forms of serpents, adders, and snakes, as seemed wonderful: some green, some black, some yellow, some white, some of divers colours; and many of them had life; and some there were a yard and a half and two yards long; which,

had I not seen, I could hardly have believed, and hereof are witnesses all the company of the ships which were then present; so that hardly a man could draw a bucket of water clear of some corruption. In which voyage, towards the end thereof, many of every ship fell sick, and began to die apace. But the speedy passage into our country was a remedy to the crazed, and preservative for those that were not touched."

This shows, abundantly, how little the sea's saltiness was capable of preserving it from putrefaction: but to put the matter beyond all doubt, Mr. Boyle kept a quantity of sea-water, taken up in the English Channel, for some time barrelled up, and in the space of a few weeks it began to acquire a fetid smell. He was also assured by one of his acquaintance, who was becalmed for twelve or fourteen days in the Indian Sea, that the water for want of motion began to stink; and that, had it continued much longer, the stench would probably have poisoned him. It is the motion, therefore, and not the saltiness of the sea, that preserves it in its present state of salubrity—and this, most probably, by dashing and breaking in pieces the rudiments, if I may so call them, of the various animals that would otherwise breed there and putrefy.

There are some advantages, however, derived from the saltiness of the sea. Its waters, being evaporated, furnish that salt which is used for domestic purposes; and although in some places it is made from springs, and in others dug out of mines, yet the greatest quantity is made only from the sea. That which is called "bay-salt" (from its coming to us from the Bay of Biscay) is a stronger kind, made from the sun; that called "common-salt" is evaporated in pans over the fire, and is of a much inferior quality to the former.

Another benefit arising from the quantity of salt dissolved in the sea is, that it thus becomes heavier, and consequently more buoyant. Mr. Boyle, who examined the difference between sea-water and fresh, found that the former appeared to be about a forty-fifth part heavier than the latter. Those, also, who have had opportunities of bathing in the sea pretend to have experienced a much greater ease in swimming than in fresh water. However, as we see they have only a forty-fifth part more of their weight sustained by it, I am apt to doubt whether so minute a difference can be practically perceivable. Be this as it may, as sea-water alters in its weight from fresh, so it is found also to differ from itself in different parts of the ocean. In general it is perceived to be heavier, and consequently saltier, the nearer we approach the line.

But there is an advantage arising from the saltiness of the waters of the sea much greater than what has yet been mentioned—which is, that their congelation is thus retarded. Some, indeed, have gone so far as to say that sea-water never freezes; but this is an assertion contradicted by experience. However, it is certain that it requires a much greater degree of cold to freeze it than fresh water; so that, while rivers and springs are seen converted into one solid body of ice, the sea is always fit for navigation; and no way affected by the coldness of the severest winter. It is therefore one of the greatest blessings we derive from this element, that, when on land all the stores of Nature are locked up from us, we find the sea ever open to our necessities, and patient of the hand of industry.

But it must not be supposed that because in our temperate climate we never see the sea frozen it is in the same manner open in every part of it; a very little acquaintance with the accounts of mariners must have informed us, that at the polar regions it is embarrassed with mountains and moving sheets of ice that often render it impassable. These tremendous floats are of different magnitudes—sometimes rising more than a thousand feet above the surface of the water, sometimes diffused into plains of above two hundred leagues in

length, and in many parts sixty or eighty broad. They are usually divided by fissures, one piece following another so close that a person may step from one to the other. Sometimes mountains are seen rising amidst these plains, and presenting the appearance of a variegated landscape, with hills and valleys, houses, churches, and towers. These are appearances in which all naturalists are agreed; but the great contest is respecting their formation. Mr. Buffon asserts that they are formed from fresh water alone, which, congealing at the mouths of great rivers, accumulate those huge masses that disturb navigation. However, this great naturalist seems not to have been aware that there are two sorts of ice floating in these seas—the flat ice and the mountain ice; the one formed of sea-water only—the other of fresh.

The flat or driving ice is entirely composed of sea-water, which upon dissolution is found to be salt, and is readily distinguished from the mountain or fresh-water ice by its whiteness and want of transparency. This ice is much more terrible to mariners than that which rises up in lumps: a ship can avoid the one, as it is seen at a distance; but often gets in among the other, which, sometimes closing, crushes it to pieces. This, which manifestly has a different origin from the fresh-water ice, may perhaps have been produced from the Icy Sea, beneath the pole; or along the coasts of Spitzbergen or Nova Zembla.

The mountain ice, as was said, is different in every respect, being formed of fresh water, and appearing hard and transparent; it is generally of a pale-green colour, though some are of a beautiful sky blue; many large masses also appear grey, and some black. If examined more closely, they are found to be incorporated with earth, stones, and brushwood washed from the shore. On these, also, are sometimes found not only earth, but nests with birds' eggs, at several hundred miles from land. The generality of these, though almost totally fresh, have a thick crust of salt water frozen upon them, probably from the power that ice has sometimes to produce ice. Such mountains as are here described are most usually found at spring-time, and after a violent storm, driving out to sea, where they at first terrify the mariner, and are soon after dashed to pieces by the continual washing of the waves, or driven into the warmer regions of the south, there to be melted away. They sometimes, however, strike back upon their native shores, where they seem to take root at the feet of the mountains, and (as Martius tells us) are sometimes higher than the mountains themselves. Those seen by him were blue, full of clefts and cavities made by the rain, and crowned with snow, which, alternately thawing and freezing every year, augmented their size. These, composed of materials more solid than that driving at sea, presented a variety of agreeable figures to the eye that, with a little help from fancy, assumed the appearance of trees in blossom; the inside of churches, with arches, pillars, and windows, and the blue-coloured rays darting from within, presented the resemblance of a gloria.

If we inquire into the origin and formation of these—which, as we see, are very different from the former—I think we have a very satisfactory account in the following passage from Crantz:—"These mountains of ice," he says, "are not salt, like sea water, but sweet; and therefore can be formed nowhere except on the mountains, in rivers, in caverns, and against the hills near the sea-shore. The mountains of Greenland are so high, that the snow which falls upon them, particularly on the north side, is in one night's time wholly converted into ice. They also contain clefts and cavities where the sun seldom or never injects his rays. Besides these are projections, or landing-places, on the declivities of the steepest hills, where the rain and snow-water lodge and quickly congeal. When the accumulated flakes of snow slide down, or fall with the rain from the eminences above on these prominences; or, when here and

there a mountain spring comes rolling down to such a lodging-place where the ice has already seated itself, they all freeze, and add their tribute to it. This, by degrees, waxes to a body of ice that can no more be overpowered by the sun, and which, though it may at certain seasons diminish by a thaw, yet upon the whole, through annual acquisitions, it assumes an annual growth. Such a body of ice is often prominent far over the rocks. It does not melt on the upper surface, but underneath, and often cracks into many larger or smaller clefts, from whence the thawed water trickles out. By this it becomes at last so weak, that, being overloaded with its own ponderous bulk, it breaks loose, and tumbles down the rocks with a terrible crash. Where it happens to overhang a precipice on the shore, it plunges into the deep with a shock like thunder, and with such an agitation of the water as will overturn a boat at some distance, as many a poor Greenlander has fatally experienced." Thus are these amazing ice-mountains launched forth to sea, and found floating in the waters round both the poles. It is these that have hindered mariners from discovering the extensive countries which lie round the South Pole, and which probably block up the passage to China by the north.

I will conclude this chapter with one effect more produced by the saltness of the sea, which is the luminous appearance of its waves in the night. All who have been spectators of a sea by night a little ruffled by winds, seldom fail of observing its fiery brightness. In some places it shines as far as the eye can reach; at other times, only when the waves boom against the side of the vessel, or the oar dashes into the water. Some seas shine often—others more seldom; some, ever when particular winds blow—others within a narrow compass; a long tract of land being seen along the surface, whilst all the rest is hid in total darkness. It is not easy to account for these extraordinary appearances; some have supposed that a number of luminous insects produced the effect—and this is really sometimes the case; in general, however, they have every resemblance to that light produced by electricity, and probably arise from the agitation and dashing of the saline particles of the fluid against each other. But the manner in which this is done—for we can produce nothing similar by any experiments hitherto made—remains for some happier accident to discover. Our progress in the knowledge of Nature is slow; and it is a mortifying consideration, that we are, hitherto, more indebted for success to chance than industry.

CHAP. XVI.

OF THE TIDES, MOTION, AND CURRENTS OF THE SEA, WITH THEIR EFFECTS.

It was said in the former chapter that the waters of the sea were kept sweet by their motion, without which they would soon putrefy and spread universal infection. If we look for final causes, here indeed we have a great and an obvious one that presents itself before us. Had the sea been made without motion, and resembling a pool of stagnant water, the nobler races of Animated Nature would shortly be at an end. Nothing would then be left alive but swarms of ill-formed creatures, with scarce more than vegetable life, and subsisting by putrefaction. Were this extensive bed of waters entirely quiescent, millions of the smaller reptile kinds would there find a proper retreat to breed and multiply in; they would find there no agitation—no concussion in the parts of the fluid to crush their feeble frames, or to force them from the places where they were bred; there they would multiply in security and ease, enjoy a short life, and putrefying, thus again give nourishment to

numberless others as little worthy of existence as themselves. But the motion of this great element effectually destroys the number of these viler creatures; its currents and its tides produce continual agitations, the shock of which they are not able to endure; the parts of the fluid rubbing against each other destroy all viscidities; and the ocean, if I may so express it, acquires health by exercise.

The most obvious motion of the sea, and the most generally acknowledged, is that of its tides. The element is observed to flow for certain hours, from south towards the north; in which motion or flux, which lasts about six hours, the sea gradually swells; so that entering the mouths of rivers, it drives back the river-waters to their heads. After a continual flux of six hours, the sea seems to rest for a quarter of an hour; and then begins to ebb, or retire back again, from north to south for six hours more; in which time the waters sinking, the rivers resume their natural course. After a seeming pause of a quarter of an hour, the sea again begins to flow as before: and thus it has alternately risen and fallen, twice a-day, since the creation.

This amazing appearance did not fail to excite the curiosity as it did the wonder of the ancients. After some wild conjectures of the earliest philosophers, it became well known in the time of Pliny that the tides were entirely under the influence, in a small degree, of the sun; but in a greater of the moon. It was found that there was a flux and reflux of the sea in the space of twelve hours fifty minutes, which is exactly the time of a lunar day. It was observed that, whenever the moon was in the meridian, or, in other words, as nearly as possible over any part of the sea, that the sea flowed to that part and made a tide there; on the contrary, it was found that when the moon left the meridian the sea began to flow back again from whence it came, and there might be said to ebb. Thus far the waters of the sea seemed regularly to attend the motions of the moon. But as it appeared, likewise, that when the moon was in the opposite meridian as far off on the other side of the globe, there was a tide on this side also; so that the moon produced two tides—one by her greatest approach to us, and another by her greatest distance from us; in other words, the moon, in once going round the earth, produced two tides at the same time—one on the other part of the globe directly under her, and the other on the part of the globe directly opposite.

Mankind continued for several ages content with knowing the general cause of these wonders, hopeless of discovering the particular manner of the moon's operation. Kelper was the first who conjectured that attraction was the principal cause, asserting that the sphere of the moon's operation extended to the earth, and drew up its waters. The precise manner in which this is done was discovered by Newton.

The moon has been found, like all the rest of the planets, to attract and to be attracted by the earth. This attraction prevails throughout our whole planetary system. The more matter there is contained in any body, the more it attracts; and its influence decreases in proportion as the distance, when squared, increases. This being premised, let us see what must ensue upon supposing the moon in the meridian of any tract of the sea. The surface of the water immediately under the moon is nearer the moon than any other part of the globe is; and, therefore, must be more subject to its attraction than the waters any where else. The waters will, therefore, be attracted by the moon, and rise in a heap; whose eminence will be the highest where the attraction is greatest. In order to form this eminence, it is obvious that the surface, as well as the depths, will be agitated; that wherever the water runs from one part, succeeding waters must run to fill up the space it has left. Thus the waters of the sea, running from all parts to attend the motions of the moon, produce the flowing

of the tide; and it is high tide at that part wherever the moon comes over it, or to its meridian.

But when the moon travels onward, and ceases to point over the place where the waters were just risen, the cause here of their rising ceasing to operate, they will flow back by their natural gravity into the lower parts from whence they had travelled; and this retiring of the waters will form the ebbing of the sea.

Thus the first part of the demonstration is obvious; since, in general, it requires no great sagacity to conceive that the waters nearest the moon are most attracted, or raised highest by the moon. But the other part of the demonstration, namely, how there come to be high tides at the same time, on the opposite side of the globe, and where the waters are farthest from the moon, is not so easy to conceive. To comprehend this, it must be observed, that the part of the earth and its waters that are farthest from the moon are the parts of all others that are least attracted by the moon: it must be observed, that all the waters, when the moon is on the opposite side of the earth, must be attracted by it in the same direction that the earth itself attracts them; that is, if I may so say, quite through the body of the earth, towards the moon itself. This, therefore, being conceived, it is plain that those waters which are furthest from the moon will have less weight than those of any other part on the same side of the globe; because the moon's attraction, which conspires with the earth's attraction, is there least. Now, therefore, the waters farthest from the moon, having less weight, and being lightest, will be pressed on all sides by those that, having more attraction, are heavier: they will be pressed, I say, on all sides; and the heavier waters flowing in will make them swell and rise in an eminence directly opposite to that on the other side of the globe, caused by the more immediate influence of the moon.

In this manner, the moon, in one diurnal revolution, produces two tides; one raised immediately under the sphere of its influence, and the other directly opposite to it. As the moon travels, this vast body of waters rears upward, as if to watch its motions; and pursues the same constant rotation. However, in this great work of raising the tides the sun has no small share; it produces its own tides constantly every day, just as the moon does, but in a much less degree, because the sun is at an immensely greater distance. Thus there are solar tides. When the forces of these two great luminaries concur, which they always do when they are either in the same or in opposite parts of the heavens, they jointly produce a much greater tide than when they are so situated in the heavens as each to make peculiar tides of their own. To express the very same thing technically; in the conjunctions and oppositions of the sun and moon, the attraction of the sun conspires with the attraction of the moon—by which means the high spring-tides are formed. But in the quadratures of the sun and moon, the water raised by the one is depressed by the other; and hence the lower neap-tides have their production. In a word, the tides are greatest in the syzgies, and least in the quadratures.

This theory well understood, and the astronomical terms previously known, it may readily be brought to explain the various appearances of the tides, if the earth were covered with a deep sea, and the waters uninfluenced by shoals, currents, straits, or tempests. But in every part of the sea, near the shores, the geographer must come in to correct the calculations of the astronomer. For, by reason of the shallowness of some places and the narrowness of the straits in others, there arises a great diversity in the effect, not to be accounted for without an exact knowledge of all the circumstances of the place. In the great depths of the ocean, for instance, a very slow and imperceptible motion of the whole body of water will suffice to raise its surface several feet high; but if the same increase of water is to

be conveyed through a narrow channel, it must rush through it with the most impetuous rapidity. Thus, in the English Channel, and the German Ocean, the tide is found to flow strongest in those places that are narrowest; the same quantity of water being, in this case, driven through a smaller passage. It is often seen, therefore, pouring through a strait with great force; and by its rapidity considerably raised above the surface of that part of the ocean into which it runs.

This shallowness and narrowness in many parts of the sea also give rise to a peculiarity in the tides of some parts of the world. For in many places, and in our own seas in particular, the greatest swell of the tide is not while the moon is in its meridian height, and directly over the place, but some time after it has declined from thence. The sea, in this case, being obstructed, pursues the moon with what despatch it can, but does not arrive with all its waters till long after the moon has ceased to operate. Lastly, from this shallowness of the sea, and from its being obstructed by shoals and straits, we may account for the Mediterranean, the Baltic, and the Black Sea having no sensible tides. These, though to us they seem very extensive, are not, however, large enough to be affected by the influence of the moon; and as to their communication with the ocean through such narrow inlets, it is impossible in a few hours time that they should receive and return water enough to raise or depress them in any considerable degree.

In general, therefore, we may observe, that all tides are much higher and more considerable in the torrid zone than in the rest of the ocean; the sea in those parts being generally deeper and less affected by changeable winds or winding shores. The greatest tide we know of is that at the mouth of the river Indus, where the water rises thirty feet in height. How great, therefore, must have been the amazement of Alexander's soldiers at so strange an appearance! They who always before had been accustomed only to the scarcely perceptible risings of the Mediterranean, or the minute intumescence of the Black Sea, when made at once spectators of a river rising and falling thirty feet in a few hours, must no doubt have felt the most extreme awe, with a mixture of curiosity and apprehension. The tides are also remarkably high on the coasts of Malay, in the straits of Sunday, in the Red Sea, at the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, along the coasts of China and Japan, at Panama, and in the gulf of Bengal. The tides at Tonquin, however, are the most remarkable in the world. In this part there is but one tide and one ebb in twenty-four hours; whereas, as we have said before, in other places there are two. Besides, twice in each month, when the moon is near the equinoctial, there is no tide at all—the water being for some time quite stagnant. These, with some other odd appearances attending the same phenomena, were considered by many as inscrutable; but Sir Isaac Newton, with peculiar sagacity, adjudged them, to arise from the concurrence of two tides—one from the South Sea, and the other from the Indian Ocean. Of each of these tides there come successively two every day—two at one time greater, and two at another that are less. The time between the arrival of the two greater is considered by him as high tide—the time between the two lesser as ebb. In short, with this clue that great mathematician solved every appearance, and so established his theory as to silence every opposer.

This fluctuation of the sea from the tides produces another and more constant rotation of its waters from the east to the west—in this respect following the course of the moon. This may be considered as one great and general current of the waters of the sea; and although it be not every where distinguishable, it is nevertheless every where existent, except when opposed by some particular current or eddy produced by partial and local

causes. This tendency of the sea towards the west is plainly perceivable in all the great straits of the ocean—as, for instance, in those of Magellan, where the tide, running in from the east, rises twenty feet high, and continues flowing six hours; whereas the ebb continues but two hours, and the current is directed to the west. This proves that the flux is not equal to the reflux; and that from both results a motion of the sea westward, which is more powerful during the time of the flux than the reflux.

But this motion westward has been sensibly observed by navigators in their passage back from India to Madagascar, and so on to Africa. In the great Pacific Ocean, also, it is very perceivable; but the places where it is most obvious are, as was said, in those straits which join one ocean to another—in the straits between the Maldiva Islands, in the gulf of Mexico, between Cuba and Yucatan. In the straits of the gulf of Paria, the motion is so violent that it has received the appellation of the Dragon's Mouth. Northward, in the sea of Canda, in Waigat's Straits, in the straits of Java, and, in short, in every strait where the ocean on one part pours into the ocean on the other. In this manner, therefore, is the sea carried with an unceasing circulation round the globe; and, at the same time that its waters are pushed backward and forward with the tide, they have thus a progressive current to the west, which, though less observable, is not the less real.

Besides these two general motions of the sea, there are others which are particular to many parts of it, and are called "currents." These are found to run in all directions—east, west, north, and south—being formed, as was said above, by various causes; the prominence of the shores, the narrowness of the straits, the variations of the wind, and the inequalities at the bottom. These—though no great object to the philosopher, as their causes are generally local and obvious—are of the most material consequence to the mariner, and without a knowledge of which he could never succeed. It often has happened, that when a ship has unknowingly got into one of these everything seems to go forward with success; the mariners suppose themselves every hour approaching their wished-for port—the wind fills their sails—and the ship's prow seems to divide the water; but at last, by miserable experience, they find that instead of going forward they have been all the time receding. The business of currents, therefore, makes a considerable article in navigation; and the direction of their stream and their rapidity has been carefully set down. This some do by the observation of the surface of the current, or by the driving of the froth along the shore, or by throwing out the log-line, with a buoy made for that purpose, and by the direction and motion of this they judge of the setting and rapidity of the current.

These currents are generally found to be most violent under the equator, where indeed all the motions of the ocean are most perceivable. Along the coast of Guinea, if a ship happens to overshoot the mouth of any river it is bound to, the current prevents its return; so that it is obliged to steer out to sea, and take a very large compass, in order to correct the former mistake. These set in a contrary direction to the general motion of the sea westward—and that so strongly, that a passage which, with the current, is made in two days, is with difficulty performed in six weeks against it. However, they do not extend above twenty leagues from the coast; and ships going to the East Indies take care not to come within the sphere of their action. At Sumatra, the currents, which are extremely rapid, run from south to north: there are also strong currents between Madagascar and the Cape of Good Hope. On the western coasts of America the current always runs from the south to the north, where a south wind continually blowing most probably occasions this phenomenon. But the currents that are most remarkable are those

continually flowing in the Mediterranean Sea, both from the ocean by the straits of Gibraltar and its other extremity from the Euxine Sea by the Archipelago. This is one of the most extraordinary appearances in Nature, this large sea receiving not only the numerous rivers that fall into it—such as the Nile, the Rhone, and the Po—but also a very great influx from the Euxine Sea on one part and the ocean on the other. At the same time, it is seen to return none of the waters it is thus known to receive. Outlets running from it there are none; no rivers but such as bring it fresh supplies; no straits but what are constantly pouring their waters into it. It has therefore been the wonder of mankind in every age how and by what means this vast concourse of waters are disposed of; or how this sea, which is always receiving and never returning, is no way fuller than before. In order to account for this, some have said that the water was re-conveyed by subterraneous passages into the Red Sea. There is a story told of an Arabian califf who caught a dolphin in this sea, admiring the beauty of which he let it go again, having previously marked it by a ring of iron. Some time after a dolphin was caught in the Red Sea, and quickly known by the ring to be the same that had been taken in the Mediterranean before. Such, however, as have not been willing to found their opinions upon a story, have endeavoured to account for the disposal of the waters of the Mediterranean by evaporation. For this purpose they have entered into long calculations upon the extent of its surface, and the quantity of water that would be raised from such a surface in a year. They then compute how much water runs in by its rivers and straits in that time, and find that the quantity exhausted by evaporation greatly exceeds the quantity supplied by rivers and seas. This solution no doubt would be satisfactory did not the ocean and the Euxine evaporate as well as the Mediterranean; and as these are subject to the same drain, it must follow that all the seas will in this respect be upon a par; and therefore there must be some cause for this unperceived drain and continual supply. This seems to be satisfactorily accounted for by Dr. Smith, who supposes an under current running through the straits of Gibraltar to carry out as much water into the ocean as the upper current continually carries in from it. To confirm this, he observes that nearer home, between the north and the south foreland, the tide is known to run one way and the ebb another way at bottom. This double current he also confirms by an experiment communicated to him by an able seaman, who, being with one of the king's frigates in the Baltic, found he went with his boat into the mid-stream, and was carried violently by the current; upon which a basket was sunk, with a large cannon-ball, to a certain depth of water, which gave a check to the boat's motion; as the basket sunk still lower, the boat was driven, by the force of the water below, against the upper current; and the lower the basket was let down the stronger the under current was found, and the quicker was the boat's motion against the upper stream, which seemed not to be above four fathoms deep. From hence we may readily infer that the same cause may operate at the straits of Gibraltar; and that while the Mediterranean seems replenishing at top it may be empty at bottom.

The number of the currents at sea are impossible to be recouated, nor indeed are they always known; new ones are daily produced by a variety of causes, and as quickly disappear. When a regular current is opposed by another in a narrow strait, or where the bottom of the sea is very uneven, a whirlpool is often formed. These were formerly considered as the most formidable obstructions to navigation; and the ancient poets and historians speak of them with terror; they are described as swallowing up ships, and dashing them against the rocks at the bottom; apprehension did not fail to add imaginary terrors to the description—placing at the cen-

tre of the whirlpool a dreadful den, fraught with monsters whose howlings served to add new horrors to the dashings of the deep. Mankind at present, however, view the eddies of the sea with very little apprehension; and some have wondered how the ancients could have so much overcharged their descriptions. But all this is very naturally accounted for. In those times when navigation was in its infancy, and the slightest concussion of the waves generally sent the poor adventurer to the bottom, it is not to be wondered at that he was terrified at the violent agitations in one of these. When his little ship, but ill fitted for opposing the fury of the sea, was got within the vortex, there was then no possibility of ever returning. To add to the fatality, they were always near the shore; and along the shore was the only place where this ill-provided mariner durst venture to sail. These were, therefore, dreadful impediments to his navigation; for if he attempted to pass between them and the shore, he was sometimes sucked in by the eddy; and if he attempted to avoid them out at sea, he was often sunk by the storm. But in our time, and in our present improved state of navigation, Charybdis and the Euripus, with all the other irregular currents of the Mediterranean, are no longer formidable. Mr. Addison not attending to this train of thinking, upon passing through the straits of Sicily, was surprised at the little there was of terror in the present appearance of Sylla and Charybdis; and seems to be of opinion that their agitations are much diminished since the times of antiquity. In fact, from the reasons above, all the wonders of the Mediterranean Sea are described in much higher colours than they merit, to us who are acquainted with the more magnificent terrors of the ocean. The Mediterranean is one of the smoothest and most gentle seas in the world: its tides are scarce perceptible, except in the Gulf of Venice, and shipwrecks are less known there than in any other part of the world.

It is in the ocean, therefore, that these whirlpools are particularly dangerous, where the tides are violent and the tempests fierce. To mention only one, that called the Maelstrom, upon the coast of Norway, which is considered as the most dreadful and voracious in the world. The name it has received from the natives signifies "the navel of the sea"—since they suppose that a great share of the water of the sea is sucked up and discharged by its vortex. A minute description of the internal parts is not to be expected, since none who were there ever returned to bring back information. The body of the waters that form this whirlpool are extended in a circle above thirteen miles in circumference. In the midst of this stands a rock, against which the tide in its ebb is dashed with inconceivable fury. At this time it instantly swallows up all things that come within the sphere of its violence—trees, timber, and shipping. No skill in the mariner nor strength of rowing can work an escape; the sailor at the helm finds the ship at first goes in a current opposite to his intentions; his vessel's motion, though slow in the beginning, becomes every moment more rapid; it grows round in circles still narrower and narrower, till at last it is dashed against the rocks, and instantly disappears: nor is it seen again for six hours; till, the tide flowing, it is vomited forth with the same violence with which it was drawn in. The noise of this dreadful vortex still farther contributes to increase its terror, which, with the dashing of the waters, and the dreadful valley, if it may be so called, caused by their circulation, makes one of the most tremendous objects in Nature.



CHAP. XVII

OF THE CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE SEA UPON THE EARTH.

From what has been said, as well of the earth as of the sea, they both appear to be in continual fluctuation. The earth—the common promptuary that supplies subsistence to men, animals, and vegetables—is continually furnishing its stores to their support. But the matter which is thus derived from it is soon restored and laid down again to be prepared for fresh mutations. The transmigration of souls is no doubt false and whimsical; but nothing can be more certain than the transmigration of bodies. The spoils of the meanest reptile may go to the formation of a prince; and, on the contrary, as the poet has it, the body of Cæsar may be employed in stopping a beer-barrel. From this and other causes, therefore, the earth is in continual change. Its internal fires, the deviation of its rivers, and the falling of its mountains, are daily altering its surface; and geography can scarce recollect the lakes and the valleys that history once described.

But these changes are nothing to the instability of the ocean. It would seem that inquietude was as natural to it as its fluidity. It is first seen with a constant and equable motion going towards the west; the tides then interrupt this progression, and for a time drive the waters in a contrary direction. Besides these agitations, the currents act their part in a smaller sphere, being generally greatest where the other motions of the sea are least—namely, nearest the shore; the winds also contribute their share in this universal fluctuation; so that scarce any part of the sea is wholly seen to stagnate.

As this great element is thus changed, and continually labouring internally, it may be readily supposed that it produces correspondent changes upon its shores and those parts of the earth subject to its influence. In fact, it is every day making considerable alterations, either by overflowing its shores in one place or deserting them in others; by covering over whole tracts of country that were cultivated and peopled at one time, or by leaving its bed to be appropriated to the purposes of vegetation, and to supply a new theatre for human industry at another.

In this struggle between the earth and the sea for dominion, the greatest number of our shores seem to defy the whole rage of the waves, both by their height and the rocky materials of which they are composed. The coasts of Italy, for instance, are bordered with rocks of marble of different kinds, the quarries of which may easily be distinguished at a distance from sea, and appear like perpendicular columns of the most beautiful kinds of marble, ranged along the shore. In general, the coasts of France, from Brest to Bordeaux, are composed of rocks; as are also those of Spain and England, which defend the land, and are only interrupted here and there to give an egress to rivers, and to grant the convenience of bays and harbours to our shipping. It may be in general remarked, that wherever the sea is most violent and furious there the boldest shores, and of the most compact materials, are found to oppose it. There are many shores several hundred feet perpendicular, against which the sea, when swollen with tides or storms, rises and beats with inconceivable fury. In the Orkneys, where the shores are thus formed, it sometimes when agitated by a storm rises two hundred feet perpendicular, and dashes up its spray, together with sand and other substances that compose its bottom, upon land like showers of rain.

From hence, therefore, we may conceive how the violence of the sea and the boldness of the shore may be said to have made each other. Where the sea meets no obstacles it spreads its waters with a gentle intumescence, till all its power is destroyed by wanting depth

to aid the motion. But when its progress is checked in the midst by the prominence of rocks or the abrupt elevation of the land, it dashes with all the force of its depth against the obstacle, and forms, by its repeated violence, that abruptness of the shore which confines its impetuosity. Where the sea is extremely deep or much vexed by tempests, it is no small obstacle that can confine its rage; and for this reason we see the boldest shores projected against the deepest waters—all less impediments having long before been surmounted and washed away. Perhaps of all the shores in the world there is not one so high as that on the west of St. Kilda, which upon admeasurement was found to be 600 fathoms perpendicular above the surface of the sea. Here the sea is deep, turbulent, and stormy; so that it requires great force in the shore to oppose its violence. In many parts of the world, and particularly upon the coasts of the East Indies, the shores, though not high above water, are generally very deep, and consequently the waves roll against the land with great weight and irregularity. This rising of the waves against the shores is called by mariners "the surf of the sea," and in shipwrecks is generally fatal to such as attempt to swim on shore. In this case no dexterity in the swimmer, no float he can use, neither swimming-girdle nor cork-jacket, will save him; the weight of the superincumbent waves break upon him at once, and crushes him with certain ruin. Some few of the natives, however, have the art of swimming and navigating their little boats near those shores where an European is sure of instant destruction.

In places where the force of the sea is less violent, or its tides less rapid, the shores are generally seen to descend with a more gradual declivity. Over these, the waters of the tide steal by almost imperceptible degrees, covering them for a large extent, and leaving them bare on its recess. Upon these shores, as was said, the sea seldom beats with any great violence, as a large wave has not depth sufficient to float it onwards—so that here only are to be seen gentle surges making calmly towards land, and lessening as they approach. As the sea, in the former description, is generally seen to present prospects of tumult and uproar, here it more usually exhibits a scene of repose and tranquil beauty. Its waters—which, when surveyed from the precipice, afforded a muddy greenish hue, arising from their depth and position to the eye—when regarded from the shelving shore wear the colour of the sky, and seem rising to meet it. The deafening noise of the sea is here converted into gentle murmurs; instead of the water dashing against the face of the rock, it advances and recedes, still going forward, but with just force enough to push its weeds and shells by insensible approaches to the shore.

There are other shores, besides those already described, which either have been raised by Art to oppose the sea's approaches, or, from the sea's gaining ground, are threatened with imminent destruction. The sea's being thus seen to give and take away lands at pleasure, is without question one of the most extraordinary considerations in all natural history. In some places it is seen to obtain the superiority by slow and certain approaches, or to burst in at once, and overwhelm all things in undistinguished destruction; in other places it departs from its shores, and where its waters have been known to rage, it leaves fields covered with the most beautiful verdure.

The formation of new lands by the sea's continually bringing its sediment to one place, and by the accumulation of its sands in another, is easily conceived. We have had many instances of the in England. The island of Oxney, which is adjacent to Romney-marsh, was produced in this manner. This had for a long time been a low level, continually in danger of being overflowed by the river Rother; but the sea, by its depositions, has

gradually raised the bottom of the river, while it has followed the mouth; so that the one is sufficiently secured from inundations, and the other is deep enough to admit ships of considerable burden. The like also may be seen at that bank called the "Dogger sands," where two tides meet, and which thus receive new increase every day—so that in time the place seems to promise fair for being habitable earth. On many parts of the coasts of France, England, Holland, Germany, and Prussia, the sea has been sensibly known to retire. Hubert Thomas asserts, in his Description of the Country of Liege, that the sea formerly encompassed the city of Tongres, which, however, is at present thirty-five leagues distant from it. This assertion he supports by many strong reasons; and among others, by the iron rings fixed in the walls of the town, for fastening the ships that came into the port. In Italy there is a considerable piece of ground, gained at the mouth of the river Arno; and Ravenna, that once stood by the sea-side, is now considerably removed from it. But we need scarce mention these, when we find that the whole republic of Holland seems to be a conquest upon the sea, and, in a manner, rescued from its bosom. The surface of the earth in this country is below the level of the bed of the sea; and I remember, upon approaching the coast, to have looked down upon it from the sea as into a valley; however, it is every day rising higher by the depositions made upon it by the sea, the Rhine, and the Meuse; and those parts which formerly admitted large men-of-war are now known to be too shallow to receive ships of very moderate burthen. The province of Yucatan, a peninsula in the Gulf of Mexico, was formerly a part of the sea. This tract, which stretches out into the ocean a hundred leagues, and which is above thirty leagues broad, is everywhere, at a moderate depth below the surface, composed of shells, which evince that its land once formed the bed of the sea. In France, the town of Aigues Mortes was a port in the time of St. Louis, which is now removed more than four miles from the sea. Psalmodi, in the same kingdom, was an island in the year 815, but is now more than six miles from the shore. All along the coasts of Norfolk, I am well assured, that in the memory of man the sea has gained fifty yards in some places, and lost as much in others.

Thus numerous, therefore, are the instances of new lands having been produced from the sea, which, as we see, is brought about two different ways—first, by the waters raising banks of sand and mud where their sediment is deposited; and, secondly, by their relinquishing the shore entirely, and leaving it unoccupied to the industry of man.

But as the sea has been thus known to recede from some lands, so has it, by fatal experience, been found to encroach upon others; and probably these depredations on one part of the shore may account for their dereliction from another; for the current which rested upon some certain bank, having got an egress in some other place, it no longer presses upon its former bed, but pours all its stream into the new entrance; so that every inundation of the sea may be attended with some correspondent dereliction of another shore.

However this be, we have numerous histories of the sea's inundations, and of its burying whole provinces in its bosom. Many countries that have been thus destroyed bear melancholy witness to the truth of history, and show the tops of their houses and the spires of their steeples still standing at the bottom of the water. One of the most considerable inundations we have in history is that which happened in the reign of Henry I., which overflowed the estates of the Earl Godwin, and now forms that bank called the Goodwin Sands. In the year 1546 a similar eruption of the sea destroyed a hundred thousand persons in the territory of Dordt, and yet a greater number round Dullart. In Friesland and

Zealand there were more than three hundred villages overwhelmed; and their ruins continue still visible at the bottom of the water in a clear day. The Baltic Sea has, by slow degrees, covered a large part of Pomerania; and, among others, destroyed and overwhelmed the famous port of Vineta. In the same manner, the Norwegian Sea has formed several little islands from the main land, and still daily advances upon the continent. The German Sea has advanced upon the shores of Holland, near Catt; so that the ruins of an ancient citadel of the Romans, which was formerly built upon this coast, are now actually under water. To these accidents several more might be added; our own historians and those of other countries abound with them—almost every flat shore of any extent being able to show something it has lost or something it has gained from the sea.

There are some shores on which the sea has made temporary depredations—where it has overflowed, and, after remaining perhaps some ages, it has again retired of its own accord, or been driven back by the industry of man. There are many lands in Norway, Scotland, and the Maldivia Islands that are at one time covered with water and at another free. The country round the Isle of Ely, in the time of Bede (about 1100 years ago), was one of the most delightful spots in the whole kingdom; it was not only richly cultivated, and produced all the necessaries of life, but grapes also that afforded excellent wine. The accounts of that time are copious in the description of its verdure and fertility—its rich pastures covered with flowers and herbage—its beautiful shades and open air. But the sea, breaking in upon the land, overwhelmed the whole country, took possession of the soil, and totally destroyed one of the most fertile valleys in the world. Its air, from being dry and healthful, from that time became most unwholesome and clogged with vapours; and the small part of the country that, by being higher than the rest, escaped the deluge, was soon rendered uninhabitable from its noxious vapours. Thus this country continued under water for some centuries; till at last the sea, by the same caprice which had prompted its invasions, began to abandon the earth in like manner. It has continued for some ages to relinquish its former conquests; and although the inhabitants can neither boast the longevity nor the luxuries of their former pre-occupants, yet they find ample means of subsistence; and if they happen to survive the first years of their residence there, they are often known to arrive at a good old age.

But although history be silent as to many other inundations of the like kind, where the sea has overflowed the country and afterwards retired, yet we have numberless testimonies of another nature that prove it beyond the possibility of doubt. I mean those numerous trees that are found buried at considerable depths in places where either rivers or the sea has accidentally overflowed. At the mouth of the river Ness, near Bruges, in Flanders, at the depth of fifty feet, are found great quantities of trees lying as close to each other as they do in a wood; the trunks, the branches, and the leaves are in such perfect preservation, that the particular kind of each tree may instantly be known. About five hundred years ago this very ground was known to have been covered with the sea; nor is there any history or tradition of its having been dry ground, which we can have no doubt must have been the case. Thus we see a country flourishing in verdure, producing large forests, and trees of various kinds, overwhelmed by the sea. We see this element depositing its sediment to a height of fifty feet; and its waters must, therefore, have risen much higher. We see the same, after it has thus overwhelmed and sunk the land so deep beneath its slime, capriciously retiring from the same coasts, and leaving that habitable once more which it had formerly destroyed. All this is wonderful; and perhaps, instead of attempting to inquire

after the cause, which has hitherto been inscrutable, it will best become us to rest satisfied with admiration.

At the city of Modena, in Italy, and about four miles round it, wherever it is dug, when the workmen arrive at the depth of sixty-three feet they come to a bed of chalk, which they bore with an augre five feet deep; they then withdraw from the pit before the augre is removed, and upon its extraction the water bursts up through the aperture with great violence, and quickly fills this new-made well, which continues full, and is affected neither by rains nor droughts. But that which is most remarkable in this operation is the layers of earth as we descend. At the depth of fourteen feet are found the ruins of an ancient city, paved streets, houses, floors, and different pieces of Mosaic. Under this is found a solid earth, that would induce one to think had never been removed; however, under it is found a soft oozy earth, made up of vegetables; and at twenty-six feet depth, large trees entire, such as walnut-trees, with the walnuts still sticking on the stem, and their leaves and branches in exact preservation. At twenty-eight feet deep a soft chalk is found, mixed with a vast quantity of shells; and this bed is eleven feet thick. Under this, vegetables are found again, with leaves and branches of trees as before; and thus alternately chalk and vegetable earth to the depth of sixty-three feet. These are the layers wherever the workmen attempt to bore; while in many of them they also find pieces of charcoal, bones, and bits of iron. From this description, therefore, it appears that this country has been alternately overflowed and deserted by the sea one age after another; nor were these overflowings and retirings of trifling depth or of short continuance. When the sea burst in, it must have been a long time in overwhelming the branches of the fallen forest with its sediment; and still longer in framing a regular bed of shells eleven feet over them. It must have therefore taken an age at least to make any one of these layers; and we may conclude, that it must have been many ages employed in the production of them all. The land also, upon being deserted, must have had time to grow compact, to gather fresh fertility, and to be drained of its waters before it could be disposed to vegetation, or before its trees could have shot forth again to maturity.

We have instances nearer home of the same kind given us in the Philosophical Transactions; one of them by Mr. Derham. An inundation of the sea at Dagenham, in Essex, laying bare a part of the adjacent pasture for above two hundred feet wide, and in some places twenty deep, it discovered a number of trees that had lain there for many ages before; these trees, by lying long under ground, were become black and hard, and their fibres so tough, that one might as easily break a wire as any of them; they lay so thick in the place where they were found, that in many parts he could step from one to another; he conceived, also, that not only all the adjacent marshes for several hundred acres were covered underneath with such timber, but also the marshes along the mouth of the Thames for several miles. The meeting with these trees at such depths he ascribes to the sediment of the river and the tides, which, constantly washing over them, have always left some part of their substance behind, so as, by repeated alluvions, to work a bed of vegetable earth over them to the height at which he found it.

The levels of Hatfield-Chace, in Yorkshire, a tract of above eighteen thousand acres, which was yearly overflowed, was reduced to arable and pasture land by one Sir Cornelius Vermuden, a Dutchman. At the bottom of this wide extent are found millions of the roots and bodies of trees, such as this island either formerly did or does at present produce. The roots of all stand in their proper postures; and by them, as thick as ever they could grow, the respective trunks of each, some

above thirty yards long. The oaks, some of which have been sold for fifteen pounds a-piece, are as black as ebony, very lasting, and close grained. The ash-trees are as soft as earth, and are commonly cut in pieces by the workmen's spades, and as soon as flung up into the open air turn to dust. But all the rest, even the willows themselves, which are softer than the ash, preserve their substance and texture to this very day. Some of the first appear to have vegetated even after they were fallen, and to have from their branches struck up trees as large as the parent trunk. It is observable that many of these trees have been burnt—some quite through, some on one side; some have been found chopped and squared, others riven with great wooden wedges—all sufficiently manifesting that the country which was deluged had formerly been inhabited. Near a great root of one tree were found eight coins of the Roman emperors; and in some places the marks of the ridge and furrow were plainly perceivable, which testified that the ground had formerly been patient of cultivation.

The learned naturalist who has given this description has pretty plainly evinced that this forest in particular must have been thus levelled by the Romans, and that the falling of the trees must have contributed to the accumulation of the waters. "The Romans," says he, "when the Britons fled, always pursued them into the fortresses of low woods and miry forests: in these the wild natives found shelter; and, when opportunity offered, issued out, and fell upon their invaders without mercy. In this manner the Romans were at length so harassed, that orders were issued out for cutting down all the woods and forests in Britain. In order to effect this, and destroy the enemy the easier, they set fire to the woods, composed of pines, which spreading, the conflagration destroyed not only the forest, but infinite numbers of the wretched inhabitants who had taken shelter therein. When the pine-trees had thus done what mischief they could, the Romans then brought their army nearer, and, with whole legions of the captive Britons, cut down most of the trees that were yet left standing—leaving only here and there some trees untouched as monuments of their fury. These, unneeded of their labour, being destitute of the underwood and of their neighbouring trees, were easily overthrown by the winds, and remained on the places where they happened to fall. The forest, thus fallen, must necessarily have stopped up the currents both from land and sea, and turned into great lakes what were before but temporary streams. The working of the waters here, the consumption and decay of rotten boughs and branches, and the vast increase of water-moss which flourishes upon marshy grounds, soon formed a covering over the trunks of the fallen trees, and raised the earth several feet above its former level. The earth thus every day swelling, by a continual increase from the sediment of the waters, and by the lightness of the vegetable substances of which it was composed, soon overtopped the waters by which this intumescence was at first effected; so that it entirely got rid of its inundations, or only demanded a slight assistance from man for that purpose." This may be the origin of all bogs, which are formed by the putrefaction of vegetable substances, mixed with the mud and slime deposited by waters, and at length acquiring a sufficient consistency.

From this we see what powerful effects the sea is capable of producing upon its shores, either by overflowing some or deserting others—by altering the direction of these, and rendering those craggy and precipitate which before were shelving. But the influence it has upon these is nothing to that which it has upon that great body of earth which forms its bottom. It is at the bottom of the sea that the greatest wonders are performed, and the most rapid changes are produced; it is there that the motion of the tides and the currents have

their whole force, and agitate the substances of which their bed is composed. But all these are almost wholly hid from human curiosity; the miracles of the deep are performed in secret; and we have but little information from its abysses, except what we receive by inspection at very shallow depths, or by the plummet, or from divers, who are known to descend from twenty to thirty fathoms.

The eye can reach but a very short way into the depths of the sea; and that only when its surface is glassy and serene. In many seas it perceives nothing but a bright sandy plain at the bottom, extending for several hundred miles, without an intervening object. But in others, particularly in the Red Sea, it is very different: the whole bottom of this extensive bed of waters is, literally speaking, a forest of sub-marine plants, and corals formed by insects for their habitation, sometimes branching out to a great extent. Here are seen the madrepores, the sponges, mosses, sea-mushrooms, and various other marine productions, covering every part of the bottom; so that some have even supposed the sea to have taken its name from the colour of its plants below. However, these plants are by no means peculiar to this sea, as they are found in great quantities in the Persian Gulf, along the coasts of Africa, and those of Provence and Catalonia.

The bottom of many parts of the sea near America presents a very different though a very beautiful appearance. This is covered with vegetables, which make it look as green as a meadow, and beneath are seen thousands of turtles and other sea animals feeding thereon.

In order to extend our knowledge of the sea to greater depths, recourse has been had to the plummet—which is generally made of a lump of lead of about forty pounds weight fastened to a cord. This, however, only answers in moderate depths; for when a deep sea is to be sounded, the matter of which the cord is composed, being lighter than the water, floats upon it, and, when let down to a considerable depth, its length so increases its surface that it is often sufficient to prevent the lead from sinking; so that this may be the reason that some parts of the sea are said to have no bottom.

In general, we learn from the plummet that the bottom of the sea is tolerably even where it has been examined; and that the farther from the shore the sea is in general the deeper. Notwithstanding, in the midst of a great and unfathomable ocean we often find an island raising its head, and singly braving its fury. Such islands may be considered as the mountains of the deep; and, could we for a moment imagine the waters of the ocean removed or dried away, we should probably find the inequalities of its bed resembling those that are found on land; here extensive plains—there valleys; and in many places mountains of amazing height. M. Buache has actually given us a map of that part of its bottom which lies between Africa and America, taken from the several soundings of mariners; in it we find that same uneven surface that we do upon land, the same eminences, and the same depressions. In such an imaginary prospect, however, there would be this difference—that as the tops of land-mountains appear the most barren and rocky, the tops of sea-mountains would be found the most verdant and fruitful.

The plummet, which thus gives us some idea of the inequalities of the bottom, leaves us totally in the dark as to every other particular; recourse, therefore, has been had to divers; these, either being bred up in this dangerous way of life, and accustomed to remain some time under water without breathing, or assisted by means of a diving-bell, have been able to return some confused and uncertain accounts of the places below. In the great diving-bell improved by Dr. Halley, which was large enough to contain five men, and was supplied with fresh air by buckets that alternately rose and fell, they de-

scended fifty fathoms. In this huge machine, which was let down from the mast of the ship, the doctor himself went down to the bottom, where, when the sea was clear, and especially when the sun shone, he could see perfectly well to write or read, and much more to take up anything that was underneath: at other times, when the water was troubled and thick, it was as dark as night below, so that he was obliged to keep a candle lighted at the bottom. But there was one thing very remarkable—that the water, which from above was usually seen of a green colour, when looked at from below appeared to him of a very different one, casting a redness upon one hand like that of damask roses—a proof of the sea's taking its colour not from anything floating in it, but from the different reflections of the rays of light. Upon the whole, the accounts we have received from the bottom by this contrivance are but few. We learn from it, and from divers in general, that while the surface of the sea may be deformed by tempests, it is usually calm and temperate below; that some divers who have gone down when the weather was calm, and came up when it was tempestuous, were surprised at their not perceiving the change at the bottom. This, however, must not be supposed to obtain with regard to the tides and the currents, as they are seen constantly shifting their bottom—taking their bed with great violence from one place and depositing it upon another. We are informed, also, by divers, that the sea grows colder in proportion as they descend to the bottom; that as far as the sun's rays pierce it is influenced by their warmth; but lower, the cold becomes almost intolerable. A person of quality, who had been himself a diver, as Mr. Boyle informs us, declared, that though he seldom descended above three or four fathoms, yet he found it so much colder than near the top that he could not well endure it; and that being let down in a great diving-bell, although the water could not immediately touch him, he found the air extremely cold upon his first arrival at the bottom.

From divers, also, we learn that the sea in many places is filled with rocks at bottom; and that among their cliffs and upon their sides various substances sprout forward, which are either really vegetables or the nests of insects, increased to some magnitude. Some of these assume the shape of beautiful flowers; and, though soft when taken up, soon harden, and are kept in the cabinets of the curious.

But of all those divers who have brought us information from the bottom of the deep, the famous Nicola Pesce, whose performances are told us by Kircher, is the most celebrated. I will not so much as pretend to vouch for the veracity of Kircher's account, which he assures us he had from the archives of the kings of Sicily; but it may serve to enliven a heavy chapter. "In the times of Frederic, king of Sicily, there lived a celebrated diver, whose name was Nicolas, and who, from his amazing skill in swimming, and his perseverance under water, was surnamed the "Fish." This man had from his infancy been used to the sea, and earned his scanty subsistence by diving for corals and oysters, which he sold to the villages on shore. His long acquaintance with the sea at last brought it be almost his natural element. He frequently was known to spend five days in the midst of the waves, without any other provisions than the fish which he caught there, and ate raw. He often swam over from Sicily to Calabria, a tempestuous and dangerous passage, carrying letters from the king. He was frequently known to swim among the gulfs of the Lipari Islands, no way apprehensive of danger.

"Some mariners out at sea one day observed something at some distance from them, which they regarded as a sea-monster; but upon its approach it was known to be Nicolas Pesce, whom they took into their ship. When they asked him whither he was going in so stormy

and rough a sea, and at such a distance from land, he showed them a packet of letters which he was carrying to one of the towns of Italy, exactly done up in a leather bag in such a manner as that they could not be wetted by the sea. He kept them thus company for some time on their voyage, conversing and asking questions: and after eating a hearty meal with them he took his leave, and, jumping into the sea, pursued his voyage alone.

"In order to aid these powers of enduring in the deep, Nature seemed to have assisted him in a very extraordinary manner; for the spaces between his fingers and toes were webbed, as in a goose; and his chest became so very capacious, that he could take in at one inspiration as much breath as would serve him for a whole day.

"The account of so extraordinary a person did not fail to reach the King himself; who, actuated by the general curiosity, ordered that Nicolas should be brought before him. It was no easy matter to find him, who generally spent his time in the solitudes of the deep; but at last, however, after much searching, he was found and brought before his Majesty. The curiosity of this monarch had long been excited by the accounts he had heard of the bottom of the gulf of Charybdis; he therefore conceived that it would be a proper opportunity to have more certain information, and commanded our poor diver to examine the bottom of this dreadful whirlpool; as an incitement to his obedience, he ordered a golden cup to be flung into it. Nicolas was not insensible of the danger to which he was exposed—dangers best known only to himself—and he therefore presumed to remonstrate; but the hopes of the reward, the desire of pleasing the King, and the pleasure of showing his skill, at last prevailed. He instantly jumped into the gulf, and was swallowed as instantly up in its bosom. He continued for three quarters of an hour below, during which time the King and his attendants remained upon shore anxious for his fate; but he at last appeared, buffeting upon the surface, holding the cup in triumph in one hand, and making his way good among the waves with the other. It may be supposed he was received with applause upon his arrival on shore; the cup was made the reward of his adventure; the King ordered him to be taken proper care of; and, as he was somewhat fatigued and debilitated by his labour, after a hearty meal he was put to bed, and permitted to refresh himself by sleeping.

"When his spirits were thus restored, he was again brought to satisfy the King's curiosity with a narrative of the wonders he had seen; and his account was to the following effect:—He would never, he said, have obeyed the King's commands, had he been apprized of half the dangers that were before him. There were four things, he said, that rendered the gulf dreadful, not only to men, but even to the fishes themselves: first, the force of the water bursting up from the bottom, which requires great strength to resist; secondly, the abruptness of the rocks, that on every side threatened destruction; thirdly, the force of the whirlpool dashing against those rocks; and, fourthly, the number and magnitude of the polypous fish; some of which appeared as large as a man, and which, everywhere sticking against the rocks, projected their fibrous arms to entangle him. Being asked how he was able so readily to find the cup that had been thrown in, he replied that it happened to be flung by the waves into the cavity of a rock against which he himself was urged in his descent. This account, however, did not satisfy the King's curiosity: being requested to venture once more into the gulf for further discoveries, he at first refused; but the King, desirous of having the most exact information possible of all things to be found in the gulf, repeated his solicitations; and, to give them still greater weight, produced a larger cup than the

former, and added also a purse of gold. Upon these considerations, the unfortunate Pessacola once again plunged into the whirlpool, and was never heard of more."

CHAP. XVIII.

A SUMMARY ACCOUNT OF THE MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF AIR.

Having described the earth and the sea, we now ascend into that fluid which surrounds them both; and which, in some measure, supports and supplies all Animated Nature. As upon viewing the bottom of the ocean from its surface we see an infinity of animals moving therein and seeking food, so, were some superior being to regard the earth at a proper distance, he might consider us in the same light; he might, from his superior station, behold a number of busy little beings, immersed in the aerial fluid that everywhere surrounds them, and sedulously employed in procuring the means of subsistence. This fluid, though too fine for the gross perception of its inhabitants, might, to his nicer organs of sight, be very visible; and, while he at once saw into its operations, he might smile at the varieties of human conjecture concerning it; he might readily discern, perhaps, the height above the surface of the earth to which this fluid atmosphere reaches; he might exactly determine that peculiar form of its parts which gives it the spring and elasticity with which it is endued; he might distinguish which of its parts were incorruptible air, and which only made for a little time to assume the appearance, so as to be quickly returned back to the element from whence it came. But as for us, who are immersed at the bottom of this gulf, we must be contented with a more confined knowledge; and, wanting a proper point of prospect, remain satisfied with a combination of the effects.

One of the first things that our senses inform us of is, that although the air is too fine for our sight, it is very obvious to our touch. Although we cannot see the wind contained in a bladder, we can very readily feel its resistance; and though the hurricane may want colour, we often fatally experience that it does not want force. We have equal experience of the earth's spring or elasticity: the bladder, when pressed, returns again upon the pressure being taken away; a bottle when filled often bursts, from the spring of air which is included.

So far the highest experience reaches; but, by carrying experiment a little farther, we learn that air also is heavy; a round glass vessel being emptied of its air, and accurately weighed, has been found lighter than when it was weighed with the air in it. Upon computing the superior weight of the full vessel, a cubic foot of air is found to weigh something more than an ounce.

From this experiment, therefore, we learn that the earth, and all things upon its surface, are everywhere covered with a ponderous fluid, which, rising very high over our heads, must be proportionably heavy. For instance, as in the sea, a man at the depth of twenty feet sustains a greater weight of water than a man at the depth of but ten feet; so will a man at the bottom of a valley have a greater weight of air over him than a man on the top of a mountain.

From hence we may conclude that we sustain a very great weight of air; and although, like men walking at the bottom of the sea, we cannot feel the weight which presses equally round us, yet the pressure is not the less real. As in morals, we seldom know the blessings that surround us till we are deprived of them; so here we do not perceive the weight of the ambient fluid till a part of it is taken away. If, by any means, we contrive

to take away the pressure of the air from any one part of our bodies, we are soon made sensible of the weight upon the other parts. Thus, if we clap our hand upon the mouth of a vessel from whence the air has been taken away, there will thus be air on one side and none on the other; upon which, we shall instantly find the hand violently sucked inwards; which is nothing more than the weight of the air upon the back of the hand that forces it into the space which is empty below.

As by this experiment we perceive that the air presses with great weight upon everything on the surface of the earth, so by other experiments we learn the exact weight with which it presses. First, if the air be exhausted out of any vessel, a drinking vessel for instance, and this vessel be set with the mouth downwards in water, the water will rise up into the empty space, and fill the inverted glass; for the external air will in this case press up the water where there is no weight to resist—as one part of a bed being pressed makes the other parts that have no weight upon them rise. In this case, as we said, the water being pressed without will rise in the glass; and would continue to rise (if the empty glass was tall enough) thirty-two feet high. In fact, there have been pipes made purposely for this experiment of above thirty-two feet high; in which, upon being exhausted, the water has always risen to the height of thirty-two feet; there it has always rested, and never ascended higher. From this, therefore, we learn that the weight of the air which presses up the waters is equal to a pillar or column of water which is thirty-two feet high, as it is just able to raise such a column, and no more. In other words, the surface of the earth is everywhere covered with a weight of air which is equivalent to a covering of thirty-two feet deep of water, or to a weight of twenty-nine inches and a half of quicksilver, which is known to be just as heavy as the former.

Thus we see that the air at the surface of the earth is just as heavy as thirty-two feet of water, or twenty-nine inches and a half of quicksilver; and it is easily found by computation, that to raise water thirty-two feet will require a weight of fifteen pounds upon every square inch. Now, if we are fond of computations, we have only to calculate how many square inches are in the surface of a human body; and allowing every inch to sustain fifteen pounds, we may amaze ourselves at the weight of air we sustain. It has been computed and found that our ordinary load of air amounts to within a little of forty thousand pounds. This is wonderful! but wondering is not the way to grow wise.

Although this be our ordinary load and our usual supply, there are at different times great variations. The air is not, like water, equally heavy at all seasons, but sometimes is lighter and sometimes more heavy. It is sometimes more compressed, and sometimes more elastic or springy, which produces the same effect as an increase of its weight. The air which at one time raises water thirty-two feet in the tube, and quicksilver twenty-nine inches, will not at another raise the one to thirty feet, or the other to twenty six inches. This makes therefore a very great difference in the weight we sustain; and we are actually known, by computation, to carry at one time four thousand pounds of air more than at another.

The reason of this surprising difference in the weight of air is either owing to its pressure from above, or to an increase of vapour floating in it. Its increased pressure is the consequence of its spring or elasticity, which cold and heat sensibly affect, and are continually changing.

This elasticity of the air is one of its most amazing properties, and to which it should seem nothing can set bounds. A body of air that may be contained in a nutshell may easily, with heat, be dilated into a sphere of unknown dimensions. On the contrary, the air contained in a house may be compressed into a cavity not larger than the eye of a needle. In short, no bounds can be set to its confinement or expansion—at least,

experiment has hitherto found its attempts indefinite. In every situation it retains its elasticity; and the more closely we compress it the more strongly does it resist the pressure. If to the increasing the elasticity on one side by compression we increase it on the other side by heat, the force of both soon becomes irresistible; and a certain French philosopher states that air thus confined and expanding was sufficient for the explosion of a world.

Many instruments have been formed to measure and determine these different properties of the air, and which serve several purposes. The barometer serves to measure its weight—to tell us when it is heavier and when lighter. It is composed of a glass tube or pipe, of about thirty inches in length, closed up at one end; this tube is then filled with quicksilver; this done, the maker, clapping his finger upon the open end, inverts the tube, and plunges the open end, finger and all, into a basin of quicksilver, and then takes his finger away. Now the quicksilver in the tube will, by its own weight, endeavour to descend into that in the basin; but the external air pressing on the surface of the quicksilver in the basin without, and no air being in the tube at top, the quicksilver will continue in the tube, being pressed up, as was said, by the air on the surface of the basin below. The height at which it is known to stand in the tube is usually about twenty-nine inches when the air is heavy; but not above twenty-six when the air is very light. Thus, by this instrument we can, with some exactness, determine the weight of the air, and, of consequence, tell before-hand the changes of the weather. Before fine dry weather, the air is charged with a variety of vapours, which float in it unseen, and render it extremely heavy, so that it presses upon the quicksilver; or, in other words, the barometer rises. In moist, rainy weather, the vapours are washed down, or there is not heat sufficient for them to rise, so that the air is then sensibly lighter, and presses up the quicksilver with less force; or, in other words, the barometer is seen to fall. Our constitutions seem also to correspond with the changes of the weather-glass; they are braced, strong, and vigorous, with a large body of air upon them; they are languid, relaxed, and feeble when the air is light, and refuses to give our fibres their proper tone.

But although the barometer thus measures the weight of the air with exactness enough for the general purposes of life, yet it is often affected with a thousand irregularities, that no exactness in the instrument can remedy, nor no theory account for. When high winds blow the quicksilver generally is low; it rises higher in cold weather than in warm, and is usually higher at morning and evening than at mid-day; it generally descends lower after rain than it was before it. There are also frequent changes in the air without any sensible alteration in the barometer.

As the barometer is thus used in predicting the changes of the weather, so it is also serviceable in measuring the heights of mountains, which mathematicians cannot so readily do; for, as the higher we ascend from the surface of the earth the air becomes lighter, so the quicksilver in the barometer will descend in proportion. It is found to sink at the rate of the tenth part of an inch for every ninety feet we ascend; so that in going up a mountain, if I find the quicksilver fallen an inch, I conclude that I am got upon an ascent of near nine hundred feet high. In this there has been found some variation, into a detail of which it is not the business of a natural historian to enter.

In order to determine the elasticity of air the wind-gun has been invented, which is an instrument variously made; but in all upon the principle of compressing a large quantity of air into a tube, in which there is an ivory ball, and then giving the compressed elastic air free power to act, and drive the ball as directed. The ball thus driven will pierce a thick board, and will be as fatal at small distances as if driven with gunpowder.

CHAP. XIX.

I do not know whether ever the force of this instrument has been assisted by means of heat; certain I am, that this, which could be very easily contrived by means of phosphorus, or any other hot substance applied to the barrel, would give such a force as I doubt whether gunpowder itself could produce.

The air-pump is an instrument contrived to exhaust the air from round a vessel adapted to that purpose called a receiver. This method of exhausting is contrived in the simple instrument by a piston, like that of a syringe, going down into the vessel, and thus pushing out its air; which, by means of a valve, is prevented from returning into the vessel again. But this, like all other complicated instruments, will be better understood by a minute inspection than an hour's description: it may suffice here to observe, that by depriving animals and other substances of all air, it shows us what the benefits and effects of air are in sustaining life or promoting vegetation.

The digester is an instrument of still more extraordinary effects than any of the former, and sufficiently discovers the amazing force of air, when its elasticity is augmented by fire. A common tea-kettle, if the spout were closed up and the lid put firmly down, would serve to become a digester, if strong enough. But the instrument used for this purpose is a strong metal pot, with a lid to screw close on, so that, when down, no air can get in or return; into this pot meat and bones are put, with a small quantity of water, and then the lid screwed close; a lighted lamp is put underneath, and, what is very extraordinary yet equally true, in six or eight minutes the whole mass, bones and all, are dissolved into a jelly; so great is the force and elasticity of the air contained within, struggling to escape, and breaking in pieces all the substances with which it is mixed. Care, however, must be taken not to heat this instrument too violently; for then the inclosed air would become irresistible, and burst the whole with perhaps a fatal explosion.

There are numberless other useful instruments made to depend on the weight, the elasticity, or the fluidity of the air, which do not come within the plan of the present work; the design of which is, not to give an account of the inventions that have been made for determining the nature and properties of air, but a mere narrative of its effects. The description of the pump, the forcing-pump, the fire-engine, the steam-engine, the syphon, and many others, belong not to the naturalist, but to the experimental philosopher: the one gives a history of Nature as he finds she presents herself to him, and he draws the obvious picture; the other pursues her with close investigation, tortures her by experiment to give up her secrets, and measures her latent qualities with laborious precision. Much more, therefore, might be said of the mechanical effects of air, and of the conjectures that have been made respecting the form of its parts; how some have supposed them to resemble little hoops coiled up in a spring; others, like fleeces of wool; others, that the parts are endued with a repulsive quality, by which, when squeezed together, they endeavour to fly off and recede from each other. We might have given the disputes relative to the height to which this body of air extends above us, and concerning which there is no agreement. We might have inquired how much of the air we breathe is elementary, and not reducible to any other substance; and of what density it would become if it were supposed to be continued down to the centre of the earth. At that place we might, with the help of figures and a bold imagination, have shown it twenty thousand times heavier than its bulk in gold; we might also prove it millions of times purer than upon earth when raised to the surface of the atmosphere. But these speculations do not belong to natural history; and they have hitherto produced no great advantages in that branch of science to which they more properly appertain.

AN ESSAY TOWARDS A NATURAL HISTORY OF THE AIR.

A late eminent philosopher has considered our atmosphere as one large chemical vessel, in which an infinite number of various operations are constantly performing. In it all the bodies of the earth are continually sending up a part of their substance by evaporation, to mix in this great alembic and to float awhile in common. Here minerals, from their lowest depths, ascend in noxious or in warm vapours to make a part of the general mass; seas, rivers, and subterraneous springs furnish their copious supplies; plants receive and return their share; and animals—that, by living upon consume this general store—are found to give it back in greater quantities when they die. The air, therefore, that we breathe, and upon which we subsist, bears very little resemblance to that pure elementary body which was described in the last chapter, and which is rather a substance that may be conceived than experienced to exist. Air, such as we find it, is one of the most compounded bodies in all Nature. Water may be reduced to a fluid everyway resembling air by heat, which by cold becomes water again. Everything we see gives off its part to the air, and has a little floating atmosphere of its own round it. The rose is encompassed with a sphere of its odorous particles; while the nightshade infects the air with scents of a more ungrateful nature. The perfume of musk flies off in such abundance, that the quantity remaining becomes sensibly lighter by the loss. A thousand substances that escape all our senses we know to be there—the powerful emanations of the loadstone, the effluvia of electricity, the rays of light, and the insinuations of fire. Such are the various substances through which we move, and which we are constantly taking in at every pore, and returning again with imperceptible discharge!

This great solution or mixture of all earthly bodies is continually operating upon itself, which perhaps may be the cause of its unceasing motion; but it operates still more visibly upon such grosser substances as are exposed to its influence—for scarce any substance is found capable of resisting the corroding qualities of the air. The air, say the chymists, is a chaos furnished with all kinds of salts and menstrooms; and therefore it is capable of dissolving all kinds of bodies. It is well known that copper and iron are quickly covered and eaten with rust, and that in the climates near the equator no art can keep them clean. In those dreary countries, the instruments, knives, and keys that are kept in the pocket are nevertheless quickly encrusted; and the great guns, with every precaution, after some years become useless. Stones, as being less hard, may be readily supposed to be more easily soluble. The marble of which the noble monuments of Italian antiquity are composed, although in one of the finest climates in the world, show the impressions which have been made upon them by the air. In many places they seem worm-eaten by time, and in others they seem crumbling into dust. Gold alone seems to be exempted from this state of dissolution—it is never found to contract rust, though exposed never so long. The reason of this seems to be, that sea-salt—which is the only menstruum capable of acting upon and dissolving gold—is but very little mixed with the air; for salt being a very fixed body, and not apt to volatilize and rise with heat, there is but a small proportion of it in the atmosphere. In the laboratories and shops, however, where salt is much used and the air is impregnated with it, gold is found to rust as well as other metals.

Bodies of a softer nature are obviously destroyed by the air. Mr. Boyle says that silks brought to Jamaica will, if there exposed to the air, rot, even while they preserve their colour; but if kept therefrom, they retain both their strength and gloss. The same happens in

Brazil, where their clothes, which are black, soon turn of an iron colour, though in the shops they preserve their proper hue. In these tropical climates, also, such are the putrescent qualities of the air, that white sugar will sometimes be full of maggots. Drugs and plaisters lose their virtue, and become verminous. In some places they are obliged to expose their sweetmeats by day in the sun, otherwise the night air would quickly cause them to putrify. On the contrary, in the cold arctic regions animal substances during their winter are never known to putrify; and meat may be kept for months without any salt whatsoever. This experiment happily succeeded with the eight Englishmen who were accidentally left upon the inhospitable coasts of Greenland, at a place where seven Dutchmen had perished but a few years before; for, killing some rein-deer for their subsistence, and having no salt to preserve the flesh, to their great surprise they soon found it did not want any, as it remained sweet during their eight months' continuance upon that shore.

These powers with which air is endued over unorganised substances are exerted in a still stronger manner over plants, animals of an inferior nature, and, lastly, over man himself. Most of the beauty and the luxuriance of vegetation is well known to be derived from the benign influence of the air; and every plant seems to have its favourite climate not less than its proper soil. The lower ranks of animals also seem formed for their respective climates, in which only they can live. Man alone seems the child of every climate, and capable of existing in them all. However, this peculiar privilege does not exempt him from the influences of the air; he is as much subject to her malignity as the meanest insect or vegetable.

With regard to plants, air is so absolutely necessary for their life and preservation that they will not vegetate in an exhausted receiver. All plants have within them a quantity of air, which supports and agitates their juices. They are continually imbibing fresh nutriment from the air to increase this store, and to supply the wants which they sustain from evaporation. When, therefore, the external air is drawn from them, they are no longer able to subsist. Even that quantity of air which they before were possessed of escapes through their pores into the exhausted receiver; and as this continues to be pumped away they become languid, grow flaccid, and die. However, the plant or flower thus ceasing to vegetate is kept, by being secured from the external air, a much longer time sweet than it would have continued had it been openly exposed.

That air which is so necessary to the life of vegetables is still more so to that of animals; there are none found, how seemingly torpid soever, that do not require their needful supply. Fishes themselves will not live in water from whence the air is exhausted; and it is generally supposed that they die in frozen ponds from the want of this necessary to animal existence. Many have been the animals that idle curiosity has tortured in the prison of a receiver, merely to observe the manner of their dying. We shall, from a thousand instances, produce that of the viper, as it is known to be one of the most vivacious reptiles in the world, and as we shall feel but little compassion for its tortures. Mr. Boyle took a new-caught viper, and, shutting it up into a small receiver, began to pump away the air. "At first, upon the air's being drawn away, it began to swell; some time after he had done pumping it began to gape, and open its jaws; being thus compelled to open its jaws, it once more resumed its former lankness; it then began to move up and down within, as if to seek for air, and after a while foamed a little, leaving the foam sticking to the inside of the glass; soon after the body and neck grew prodigiously tumid, and a blister appeared upon its back; an hour and a half after the receiver was exhausted the distended viper moved, and gave manifest

signs of life; the jaws remained quite distended; as it were from beneath the epiglottis came the black tongue, and reached beyond it; but the animal seemed by its posture not to have any life; the mouth, also, was grown blackish within; and in this situation it continued for twenty-three hours. But upon the air's being readmitted the viper's mouth was presently closed, and soon after opened again; and for some time these motions continued, which argued the remains of life." Such is the fate of the most insignificant or minute reptile that can be thus included. Mites, fleas, and even the little eels that are found swimming in vinegar, die for want of air. Not only these, but the eggs of these animals, will not produce in vacuo, but require air to bring them to perfection.

As in this manner air is necessary to their subsistence, so also it must be of a proper kind, and not impregnated with foreign mixtures. That factitious air which is pumped from plants or fluids is generally in a short time fatal to them. Mr. Boyle has given us many experiments to this purpose. After having shown that all vegetable and most mineral substances, properly prepared, may afford air by being placed in an exhausted receiver, and this in such quantities, that some have thought it a new substance, made by the alteration which the mineral or plant has undergone by the texture of its parts being loosened in the operation—having shown, I say, that this air may be drawn in great quantities from vegetable, animal, or mineral substances, such as apples, cherries, amber burnt, or hartshorn—he included a frog in artificial air, produced from paste; in seven minutes' space it suffered convulsions, and at last lay still, and, being taken out, recovered no motion at all, but was dead. A bird enclosed in artificial air, from raisins, died in a quarter of a minute, and never stirred more. A snail was put into the receiver, with air of paste; in four minutes it ceased to move, and was dead, although it had survived in vacuo for several hours—so that factitious air proved a greater enemy to animals than even a vacuum itself.

Air, also, may be impregnated with fumes that are instantly fatal to animals. The fumes of hot iron, copper, or any other heated metal, blown into the place where an animal is confined, instantly destroy it. We have already mentioned the vapours in the grotto Del Cane suffocating a dog. The ancients even supposed that these animals, as they always ran with their noses to the ground, were the first that felt any infection. In short, it should seem that the predominance of any one vapour from any body, how wholesome soever in itself, becomes infectious; and that we owe the salubrity of the air to the variety of its mixture.

But there is no animal whose frame is more sensibly affected by the changes of the air than man. It is true, he can endure a greater variety of climates than the lower orders generally are able to do; but it is rather by the means which he has discovered of obviating their effects, than by the apparent strength of his constitution. Most other animals can bear cold or hunger better, endure greater fatigues in proportion, and are satisfied with shorter repose. The variations of the climate, therefore, would probably effect them less, if they had the same means or skill in providing against the severities of the change. However this be, the body of man is an instrument much more nicely sensible of the variations of the air than any of those which his own art has produced; for his frame alone seems to unite all their properties, being invigorated by the weight of the air, relaxed by its moisture, enfeebled by its heat, and stiffened by its frigidity.

But it is chiefly by the predominance of some peculiar vapour that the air becomes unfit for human support. It is often found by dreadful experience to enter into the constitution, to mix with its juices, and to putrify the whole mass of blood. The nervous system is not

less affected by its operations; palsies and vertigoes are caused by its damps; and a still more fatal train of distempers by its exhalations. In order that the air should be wholesome, it is necessary, as we have seen, that it should not be of one kind, but the compound of several substances; and the more various the composition, to all appearance the more salubrious. A man, therefore, who continues in one place is not so likely to enjoy this wholesome variety as he who changes his situation, and, if I may so express it, instead of waiting for a renovation of air, walks forward to meet his arrival. This mere motion, independent even of the benefits of exercise, becomes wholesome, by thus supplying a great variety of that healthful fluid by which we are sustained.

A thousand accidents are found to increase these bodies of vapour, that make one place more or less wholesome than another. Heat may raise them in too great quantities; and cold may stagnate them. Minerals may give off their effluvia in such proportion as to render the air unwholesome by their supply; and animal putrefaction seems to furnish a quantity of vapour, at least as noxious as any of the former. All these united generally make up the mass of respiration, and are, when mixed together, harmless; but any one of them, for a long time singly predominant, becomes at length fatal.

The effects of heat in producing a noxious quality in the air are well known. Those torrid regions under the Line are always unwholesome. At Senegal, I am told, the natives consider forty as a very advanced time of life, and generally die of old age at fifty. At Carthage, in America, where the heat of the hottest day ever known in Europe is continual—where, during their winter season, these dreadful heats are united with a continual succession of thunder, rain, and tempests, arising from their intenseness—the wan and livid complexions of the inhabitants might make strangers suspect that they were just recovered from some dreadful distemper. The actions of the natives are conformable to their colour; in all their motions they are somewhat relaxed and languid; the heat of the climate even affects their speech, which is soft and slow, and their words generally broken. Travellers from Europe retain their strength and ruddy colour in that climate possibly for three or four months; but afterwards suffer such decays in both, that they are no longer to be distinguished from the inhabitants by their complexion. However, this languid and spiritless existence is frequently drawn out on sometimes even to eighty. Young persons are generally most affected by the heat of the climate, which spares the more aged; but all, upon their arrival on the coasts, are subject to the same train of fatal disorders. Few nations have experienced the mortality of these coasts so much as our own; in our unsuccessful attack upon Carthage, more than three parts of our army were destroyed by the climate alone; and those that returned from that fatal expedition found their former vigour irretrievably gone. In our more fortunate expedition, which gave us the Havannah, we had little reason to boast of our success; instead of a third, not a fifth part of the army were left survivors of their victory, the climate being an enemy that even heroes cannot conquer.

The distempers that thus proceed from the cruel malignity of those climates are many; that, for instance, called the "chopotonadas," carries off a multitude of people, and extremely thins the crews of European ships whom gain tempts into those inhospitable regions. The nature of this distemper is but little known, being caused in some persons by cold, in others by indigestion. But its effects are far from being obscure; it is generally fatal in three or four days. Upon its seizing the patient it brings on what is there called the "black vomit," which is the sad symptom after which none are ever known to recover. Some, when the vomit attacks them, are seized with a delirium that, were they not tied down,

they would tear themselves to pieces, and thus expire in the midst of this furious paroxysm. This disorder in milder climates takes the name of the "bilious fever," and is attended with milder symptoms, but is very dangerous in all.

There are many other disorders incident to the human body that seem the offspring of heat; but to mention no other, that very lassitude which prevails in all the tropical climates may be considered as a disease. The inhabitants of India, says a modern philosopher, sustain an unceasing languor from the heats of their climate, and are torpid in the midst of profusion. For this reason, the great Disposer of Nature has clothed their country with trees of an amazing height, whose shade might defend them from the beams of the sun, and whose continued freshness might in some measure temper their fierceness. From these shades, therefore, the air receives refreshing moisture, and animals a cooling protection. The whole race of savage animals retire in the midst of the day to the very centre of the forests, not so much to avoid their enemy man as to find a defence against the raging heats of the season. This advantage which arises from shade in torrid climates may probably afford a solution for that extraordinary circumstance related by Boyle, which he imputes to a different cause. In the island of Ternate, belonging to the Dutch—a place that had long been celebrated for its beauty and healthfulness—the clove-trees grew in such plenty, that they in some measure lessened their own value; for this reason—the Dutch resolved to cut down the forests, and thus to raise the price of the commodity; but they had soon reason to repent of their avarice—for such a change ensued (by cutting down the trees), that the whole island, from being healthy and delightful, having lost its charming shades, became extremely sickly, and has actually continued so to this day. Boerhaave considered heat so prejudicial to health, that he was never seen to go near a fire.

An opposite set of calamities are the consequence in climates where the air is condensed by cold. In such places, all that train of distempers which are known to arise from obstructed perspiration are very common—eruptions, boils, scurvy, and a loathsome leprosy that covers the whole body with a scurf and white putrid ulcers. These disorders also are infectious; and, while they thus banish the patient from society, they generally accompany him to the grave. The men of these climates seldom attain the age of fifty; but the women, who do not lead such laborious lives, live longer.

The autumnal complaints which attend a wet summer indicate the dangers of a moist air. The long continuance of an east wind also shows the prejudice of a dry one. Mineral exhalations, when copious, are everywhere known to be fatal; and although we probably owe the increase and luxuriance of vegetation to a moderate degree of their warmth, yet the natives of those countries where there are mines in plenty but too often experience the noxious effects of their vicinity. Those trades that deal in the preparation of metals of all kinds are always unwholesome; and the workmen, after a short time, are generally seen to labour under palsies and other nervous complaints. The vapours from some vegetables are well known to be attended with dangerous effects. The shade of the machinet-tree, in America, is said to be fatal, as was that of the juniper, if we may credit the ancients. Those who walk through fields of poppies, or in any manner prepare those flowers for making opium, are very sensibly affected with the drowsiness they occasion. A physician of Mr. Boyle's acquaintance, causing a large quantity of black hellebore to be pounded in a mortar, most of the persons who were in the room, and especially the person who pounded it, were purged by it, and some of them strongly. He also gathered a certain plant in Ireland, which the person who beat it in a mortar and the physician

who was standing near were so strongly effected by, that their hands and faces swelled to an enormous size, and continued tumid for a long time after.

But neither mineral nor vegetable steams are so dangerous to the constitution as those proceeding from animal substances, putrefying either by disease or death. The effluvia that comes from diseased bodies propagate that frightful catalogue of disorders which are called "infectious." The parts which compose vegetable vapours and mineral exhalations seem gross and heavy in comparison of these volatile vapours, that go to great distances, and have been described as spreading desolation over the whole earth. They fly everywhere—penetrate everywhere; and the vapours that fly from a single disease soon render it epidemic.

The plague is the first upon the list in this class of human calamities. From whence this scourge of man's presumption may have its beginning is not well known; but we well know that it is propagated by infection. Whatever be the general state of the atmosphere, we learn from experience that the noxious vapours, though but singly introduced at first, taint the air by degrees: every person infected tends to add to the growing malignity; and as the disorder becomes more general the putrescence of the air becomes more noxious, so that the symptoms are aggravated by continuance. When it is said that the origin of this disorder is unknown, it implies that the air seems to be but little employed in first producing it. There are some countries, even in the midst of Africa, that we learn have never been infected with it, but continue for centuries unmolested. On the contrary, there are others that are generally visited once a year, as in Egypt—which, nevertheless, seems peculiarly blessed with the serenity and temperature of its climate. In the former countries, which are of vast extent, and many of them very populous, everything should seem to dispose the air to make the plague continual among them—the great heats of the climate, the unwholesomeness of the food, the sloth and dirt of the inhabitants, but, above all, the bloody battles which are continually fought among them, after which heaps of dead bodies are left unburied, and exposed to putrefaction. All these one might think would be apt to bring the plague among them; and yet we are assured by Leo Africanus, that in Numidia the plague is not known once in a hundred years; and that in Negroland it is not known at all. This dreadful disorder, therefore, must have its rise, not from any previous disposition of the air, but from some particular cause, beginning with one individual, and extending the malignity by communication, till at last the air becomes actually tainted by the generality of the infection.

The plague which spread itself over the whole world in the year 1346, as we are told by Mezeray, was so contagious that scarce a village, or even a house, escaped being infected by it. Before it had reached Europe, it had been for two years travelling from the great kingdom of Cathay, where it began by a vapour most horribly fetid; this broke out of the earth like a subterranean fire, and upon the first instant of its eruption consumed and desolated above two hundred leagues of that country, even to the trees and stones.

In that great plague which desolated the city of London in the year 1665, a pious and learned school master of Mr. Boyle's acquaintance, who ventured to stay in the city, and took upon him the humane office of visiting the sick and the dying who had been deserted by better physicians, averred, that being once called to a poor woman who had buried her children of the plague, he found the room where she lay so little that it scarce could hold any more than the bed whereon she was stretched. However, in this wretched abode, beside her, in an open coffin, her husband lay, who had some time before died of the same disease; and whom she, poor creature, soon followed. But what showed the pecu-

liar malignity of the air thus suffering from animal putrefaction was, that the contagious steams had produced spots on the very wall of their wretched apartment; and Mr. Boyle's own study, which was contiguous to a pest-house, was also spotted in the same frightful manner. Happily for mankind, this disorder for more than a century has not been known in our island; and for this last age has abated much of its violence, even in those countries where it is most common. Diseases, like empires, have their revolutions; and those which for a while were the scourge of mankind sink unheard of, to give place to new ones more dreadful, as being less understood.

For this revolution in disorders, which has employed the speculation of many, Mr. Boyle accounts in the following manner:—"Since," says he, "there want not causes in the bowels of the earth to make considerable change amongst the materials that Nature has plentifully treasured up in those magazines, and as those noxious steams are abundantly supplied to the surface, it may not seem improbable that in this great variety some may be found capable of particularly affecting the human frame in a particular manner, and thus of producing new diseases. The duration of these may be greater or less, according to the lastingness of those subterraneous causes that produced them. On which account, it need be no wonder that some diseases have but a short duration, and vanish not long after they appear; whilst others may continue longer, as having under ground more settled and durable causes to maintain them."

From the recital of this train of mischiefs produced by the air upon minerals, plants, animals, and man himself, a gloomy mind may be apt to dread this indigent nurse of Nature as a cruel and an inexorable step-mother; but it is far otherwise; and, although we are sometimes injured, yet almost all the comforts and blessings of life spring from its propitious influence. It would be needless to observe, that it is absolutely necessary for the support of our lives; for of this, every moment's experience assures us. But how it contributes to this support is not so readily comprehended. All allow it to be a friend to whose benefits we are constantly obliged; and yet, to this hour, philosophers are divided as to the nature of the obligation. The dispute is whether the air is only useful by its weight to force our juices into circulation; or whether, by containing a peculiar spirit, it mixes with the blood in our vessels, and acts like a spur to their industry. Perhaps it may exert both these useful offices at the same time. Its weight may give the blood its progressive motion through the larger vessels of the body, and its admixture with it cause those contractions of all the vessels which serve to force it still more strongly forward through the minutest channels of the circulation. Be this as it may, it is well known that that part of our blood which has just received the influx of the air in our bodies is of a very different colour from that which has almost performed its circuit. It has been found that the arterial blood which has been immediately mixed with the air in the lungs, and, if I may so express it, is just beginning its journey through the body, is of a fine florid scarlet colour; while, on the contrary, the blood of the veins that is returning from having performed its duty is of a blackish crimson hue. Whence this difference of colour should proceed is not well understood; we only know the fact that this florid colour is communicated by the air; and we are well convinced that this air has been admitted into the blood for very useful purposes.

Besides this vital principle in animals, the air also gives life and body to flame. A candle quickly goes out in an exhausted receiver; for having soon consumed the quantity of air, it then expires for want of a fresh supply. There has been a flame contrived that will burn under water: but none yet has been found that will continue

CHAP. XX.

OF WINDS, IRREGULAR AND REGULAR.

to burn without air. Gunpowder, which is the most catching and powerful fire we know, will not go off in an exhausted receiver; nay, if a train of gunpowder be laid so as that one part may be fired in the open air, yet the other part in *vacuo* will remain untouched and unconsumed. Wood, also, set on fire immediately goes out; and its flame ceases upon removing the air; for something is then wanting to press the body of the fire against that of the fuel, and to prevent the too speedy diffusion of the flame. We frequently see cooks, and others whose business it is to keep up strong fires, take proper precautions to exclude the beams of the sun from shining upon them, which effectually puts them out. This they are apt to ascribe to a wrong cause—namely, the operation of the light; but the real fact is, that the warmth of the sun-beams lessen and dissipate the body of the air that goes to feed the flame, and the fire, of consequence, languishes for want of a necessary supply.

The air, while it thus kindles fire into flame, is nevertheless found to moderate the rays of light, to dissipate their violence, and to spread an uniform lustre over every object. Were the beams of the sun to dart directly upon us without passing through this protecting medium, they would either burn us up at once or blind us with their effulgence. But by going through the air they are reflected, refracted, and turned from their direct course a thousand different ways; and thus are more evenly diffused over the face of Nature.

Among the other necessary benefits the air is of to us, one of the principal is its conveyance of sound. Even the vibrations of a bell (which have the loudest effect that we know of) ceases to be heard when under the receiver of an air-pump. Thus all the pleasures we receive from conversation with each other, or from music, depend entirely upon the air.

Odours, likewise, are diffused only by the means of air; without this fluid to swim in they would for ever remain torpid in their respective substances—and the rose would affect us with as little sensations of pleasure as the thorn on which it grew.

Those who are willing to augment the catalogue of the benefits we receive from this element assert, also, that tastes would be insipid were it not that the air presses their parts upon the nerves of the tongue and palate, so as to produce their grateful effects. Thus, continue they, upon the tops of high mountains, as on the Peak of Teneriffe, the most poignant bodies—as pepper, ginger, salt, and spice—have no sensible taste, for want of their particles being thus sent home to the sensory. But we owe the air sufficient obligations not to be careful in admitting this among the number. In fact, all substances have their taste, as well on the tops of the mountains as in the bottom of the valley; and I have been one of many who have eaten a very savoury dinner on the Alps.

It is sufficient, therefore, that we regard the air as the parent of health and vegetation, as a kind dispenser of light and warmth, and as the conveyer of sounds and odours. This is an element of which Avarice will not deprive us, and which Power cannot monopolise. The treasures of the earth, the verdure of the fields, and even the refreshments of the stream, are too often seen going to assist the luxuries of the great; while the less fortunate part of mankind stand humble spectators of their encroachments. But the air no limitations can bound, nor any land-marks restrain. In this benign element all mankind can boast an equal possession; and for this we all have equal obligations to Heaven. We consume a part of it for our own sustenance while we live; and when we die, our putrefying bodies give back the supply which, during life, we had accumulated from the general mass.



Wind is a current of air. Experimental philosophers produce an artificial wind by an instrument called an "æolipile." This is nothing more than a hollow copper ball with a long pipe (a tea-kettle might be readily made into one, if it were entirely closed at the lid and the spout left open); through this spout it is to be filled with water and then set upon the fire, by which means it produces a violent blast, like wind, which continues while there is any water remaining in the instrument. In this manner water is converted into a rushing air, which, if caught as it goes out and left to cool, is again quickly converted into its former element. Besides this, as was mentioned in the former chapter, almost every substance contains some portion of air. Vegetables or the bodies of animals left to putrify produce it in a very copious manner. But it is not only seen thus escaping from bodies, but it may be very easily made enter into them. A quantity of air may be compressed into water so as to be intimately blended with it. It finds a much easier admission into wine, or any fermented liquor; and an easier still into spirits of wine. Some salts suck up the air in such quantities that they are made sensibly heavier thereby, and often are melted by its moisture. In this manner, most bodies being found either capable of receiving or affording it, we are not to be surprised at those streams of air that are continually fleeting round the globe. Minerals, vegetables, and animals contribute to increase the current, and are sending off their constant supplies. These, as they are differently affected by cold or heat, by mixture or putrefaction, all yield different quantities of air at different times; and the loudest tempests and most rapid whirlwinds are formed for their united contributions.

The sun is the principal instrument in rarifying the juices of plants, so as to give an escape to their imprisoned air; it is also equally operative in promoting the putrefaction of animals. Mineral exhalations are more frequently raised by subterranean heat. The moon, the other planets, the seasons, are all combined in producing these effects in a smaller degree. Mountains give a direction to the courses of the air; fires carry a current of air along their body; night and day alternately chill and warm the earth, and produce an alternate current of its vapours. These and many other causes may be assigned for the variety and the activity of the winds, their continual change, and their uncertain duration.

With us on land, as the wind proceeds from so many causes, and meets such a variety of obstacles, there can be but little hopes of ever bringing its motions to conform to theory, or of foretelling how it may blow a minute to come. The great Bacon, indeed, was of opinion, that by a close and regular history of the winds, continued for a number of ages together, and the particulars of each observation reduced to general maxims, we might at last come to understand the variations of this capricious element; and that we could foretell the certainty of a wind with as much ease as we now foretell the return of an eclipse. Indeed, his own beginnings in this arduous undertaking seem to speak the possibility of its success; but, unhappily for mankind, this investigation is the work of ages, and we want a Bacon to direct the process.

To be able, therefore, with any plausibility to account for the variations of the wind upon land is not to be at present expected; and to understand anything of their nature, we must have recourse to those places where they are more permanent and steady. This uniformity and steadiness we are chiefly to expect upon the ocean. There, where there is no variety of substances to furnish the air with various and inconstant supplies—where

there are no mountains to direct the course of its current, but where all is extensively uniform and even, in such a place, the wind arising from a simple cause must have but one simple motion: in fact, we find it so. There are many parts of the world where the winds that with us are so uncertain pay their stated visits. In some places they are found to blow one way by day and another by night; in others, for one half of the year they go in a direction contrary to their former course; but what is more extraordinary still, there are some places where the winds never change, but for ever blow the same way. This is particularly found to obtain between the tropics in the Atlantic and Æthiopic oceans, as well as in the great Pacific Sea.

Few things can appear more extraordinary to a person who has never been out of our variable latitudes than this steady wind, that for ever sits in the sail, sending the vessel forward, and as effectually preventing its return. He who has been taught to consider that nothing in the world is so variable as the winds, must certainly be surprised to find a place where there is nothing more uniform. With us their inconstancy has become a proverb; with the natives of those distant climates they may talk of a friend or a mistress as fixed and unchangeable as the winds, and mean a compliment by the comparison. When our ships are once arrived into the proper latitudes of the great Pacific Ocean, the mariner forgets the helm, and his skill becomes almost useless, neither storms nor tempests are known to deform the glassy bosom of that immense sheet of waters; a gentle breeze, that for ever blows in the same direction, rests upon the canvas, and speeds the navigator. In the space of six weeks ships are thus known to cross an immense ocean, which takes more than so many months to return. Upon returning, the trade-wind, which has been propitious, is then avoided; the mariner is generally obliged to steer into the northern latitudes, and to take the advantage of every causal wind that offers to assist him into port. This wind, which blows with such constancy one way, is known to prevail not only in the Pacific Ocean, but also in the Atlantic, between the coasts of Guinea and Brazil, and likewise in the Æthiopic Ocean. This seems to be the great universal wind, blowing from the east to the west, that prevails in all the extensive oceans where the land does not frequently break the general current. Were the whole surface of the globe an ocean there would probably be but this one wind—for ever blowing from the east, pursuing the motions of the sun westward. All the other winds seem subordinate to this; and many of them are made from the deviations of its current. To form, therefore, any conception relative to the variation of the wind in general, it is proper to begin with that which never varies.

There have been many theories to explain this invariable motion of the winds; among the rest, we cannot omit that of Dr. Lyster, for its strangeness. "The sea," says he, "in those latitudes is generally covered over with green weeds for a great extent; and the air emitted from the vegetable perspiration of these produces the trade-wind." The theory of Cartesius was not quite so absurd. He alleged that the earth went round faster than its atmosphere at the equator; so that its motion from west to east gave the atmosphere an imaginary one from east to west; and thus an east wind was eternally seen to prevail. Rejecting these arbitrary opinions—conceived without force and asserted without proof—Dr. Halley has given one more plausible, which seems to be the reigning system of the day.

To conceive his opinion clearly, let us for a moment suppose the whole surface of the earth to be an ocean, and the air encompassing it on every side without motion. Now it is evident that that part of the air which lies directly under the beams of the sun will be rarified; and if the sun remained for ever in the same place,

there would be a great vacuity in the air, if I may so express it, beneath the place where the sun stood. The sun moving forward from east to west, this vacuity will follow too, and still be made under it. But while it goes on to make new vacuities, the air will rush in to fill up those the sun has already made; in other words, as it is still travelling forward the air will be continually rushing in behind, and pursue its motions from east to west. In this manner the air is put into motion by day; and by night the parts continue to impel each other till the next return of the sun, which gives a new force to the circulation.

In this manner is explained the constant east wind that is found blowing round the globe near the equator. But it is also known, that as we recede from the equator on either side we come into a trade-wind that continually rushes from the poles, from the north on one side or the south on the other—both directing towards the equator. This also proceeds from a similar cause with the former; for the air being more rarified in those places over which the sun more directly darts its rays, the currents will come both from the north and the south to fill up the intermediate vacuity.

These two motions—namely, the general one from east to west and the more particular one from both the poles—will account for all the phenomena of trade-winds; which, if the whole surface of the globe were sea, would undoubtedly be constant, and for ever continue to blow in one direction. But there are a thousand circumstances to break these air currents into smaller ones; to drive them back against their general course; to raise or depress them; to condense them into storms, or to whirl them in eddies. In consequence of this, regard must be often had to the nature of the soil, the position of the high mountains, the course of the rivers, and even to the luxuriance of vegetation.

If a country lying directly under the sun be very flat and sandy, and if the land be low and extensive, the heats occasioned by the reflection of the sun-beams produce a very great rarefaction of the air. The deserts of Africa, which are conformable to this description, are scarce ever fanned by a breath of wind by day; but the burning sun is continually seen blazing in intolerable splendour above them. For this reason, all along the coasts of Guinea the wind is always perceived blowing in upon land, in order to fill up the vacuity caused by the sun's operation. On those shores, therefore, the wind blows in a contrary direction to that of its general current, and is constantly found setting in from the west.

From the same cause it happens that those constant calms, attended with deluges of rain, are found in the same part of the ocean; for this tract being placed in the middle, between the westerly winds blowing on the coast of Guinea and the easterly trade-winds that move at some distance from shore in a contrary direction, the tendency of that part of the air which lies between these two opposite currents is indifferent to either, and so rests between both in torpid serenity; and the weight of the incumbent atmosphere being diminished by the continual contrary winds blowing from hence, it is unable to keep the vapours suspended that are copiously borne thither, so that they fall in continual rains.

But it is not to be supposed that any theory can account for all the phenomena of even those winds that are known to be most regular. Instead of a complete system of the trade-winds, we must rather be content with an imperfect history. These, as was said, being the result of a combination of effects, assume as great a variety as the causes producing them are various.

Besides the great general wind above mentioned, in parts of the Atlantic which lie under the temperate zone a north wind prevails constantly during the months of October, November, December, and January. These, therefore, are the most favourable months for embarking

for the East Indies, in order to take the benefit of these winds for crossing the line; and it has been found by experience that those who had set sail five months before were not in the least farther advanced in their voyage than those who waited for the favourable wind. During the winter of Nova Zembla and the other arctic countries a north wind reigns almost continually. In the Cape de Verde islands a south wind prevails during the month of July. At the Cape of Good Hope a north-west wind blows during the month of September. There are also regular winds, produced by various causes, upon land. The ancient Greeks were the first who observed a constant breeze, produced by the melting of the snows in some high countries. This was perceived in Greece, Thrace, Macedonia, and the *Ægean* Sea. The same kinds of winds are now remarked in the kingdom of Congou and the most southern parts of Africa. The flux and reflux of the sea also produces some regular winds that serve the purposes of trade; and in general it may be observed, that wherever there is a strong current of water there is a current of air that seems to attend it.

Besides these winds that are found to blow in one direction, there are, as was said before, others that blow for certain months of the year one way, and the rest of the year the contrary way; these are called the "Monsoons," from a famous pilot of that name, who first used them in navigation with success. In all that part of the ocean which lies between Africa and India, the east winds begin in the month of January, and continue till about the commencement of June. In the month of August or September the contrary direction takes place; and the west winds prevail for three or four months. The interval between these winds—that is to say, from the end of June to the beginning of August—there is no fixed wind; but the sea is usually tossed by violent tempests proceeding from the north. These winds are always subject to their greatest variations as they approach the land; so that on one side the great peninsula of India the coasts are for near half the year harrassed by violent hurricanes and northern tempests; while on the opposite side, and all along the coasts of Coromandel, these dreadful tempests are wholly unknown. At Java and Ceylon, a west wind begins to reign in the month of September; but at fifteen degrees of south latitude this wind is found to be lost, and the great general trade-wind from the east is perceived to prevail. On the contrary, at Cochin, in China, the west wind begins in March; so that these Monsoons prevail at different seasons throughout the Indies. The mariner takes one part of the year to go from Java to the Moluccas; another from Cochin to Molucca; another from Molucca to China; and still another to direct him from China to Japan.

There are winds, also, that may be considered as peculiar to certain coasts; for example, the south wind is almost constant upon the coasts of Chili and Peru; western winds almost constantly prevail on the coast of *Terræ Magellanica*, and in the environs of the Straits le Maire. On the coasts of Malabar north and north-west winds prevail continually; along the coast of Guinea the north-west wind is also very frequent; and, at a distance from the coasts, the north-east is always found prevailing. From the beginning of November to the end of December a west wind prevails on the coasts of Japan; and during the whole winter no ships can leave the port of Cochin on account of the impetuosity of the winds that set upon the coast. These blow with such vehemence that the ports are entirely choked up with sand, and even boats are not able to enter. However, the east winds that prevail for the half of the year clear the mouths of their harbours from the accumulations of the preceding winter, and set the confined ships at liberty. At the Straits of Babelmandel there is a south wind that periodically returns, and which is always followed by a north-east.

Beside winds thus peculiar to certain coasts, there are others found to prevail on all the coasts in warm climates, which during the one part of the day blow from the shore, and during another part of it blow from the sea. The sea-breeze in those countries, as Dampier observes, commonly arises in the morning, about nine o'clock, proceeding slowly in a fine small black curl upon the surface of the water, and making its way to refresh the shore. It is gentle at first, but increases gradually till twelve o'clock, then insensibly sinks away, and is totally hushed at five. Upon its ceasing the land-breeze begins to take its turn, which increases gradually till twelve at night, and is succeeded in the morning by the sea-breeze again. Without doubt, nothing could be more fortunate for the inhabitants of the warm countries where those breezes blow than this alternate refreshment, which they feel at those seasons when it is most wanted. The heat on some coasts would be insupportable were it not for such a supply of air, when the sun has rarified all that which lay more immediately under the coast. The sea-breeze temperates the heat of the sun by day, and the land-breeze corrects the malignity of the dews and vapours by night. Where these breezes, therefore, prevail (and they are very common) the inhabitants enjoy a share of health and happiness unknown to those that live much farther up the country, or such as live in similar latitudes without this advantage. The cause of these obviously seems to arise from the rarefaction of the air by the sun, as their duration continues with its appearance and alters when it goes down—the sun, it is observed, equally diffusing his beams upon land and sea, the land, being a more solid body than the water, receives a greater quantity of heat, and reflects it more strongly. Being thus, therefore, heated to a greater degree than the waters, it of consequence drives the air from land out to sea; but, its influence being removed, the air returns to fill up the former vacuity. Such is the usual method of accounting for this phenomenon; but unfortunately the sea and land breezes are visitants that come at all hours. On the coasts of Malabar, the land-breezes begin at midnight and continue till noon; then the sea-breezes take their turn, and continue till midnight. While again, at Congou, the land-breezes begin at five and continue till nine the following day.

But if the cause of these be so inscrutable—which are, as we see, tolerably regular in their visitations—what shall we say to the winds of our own climate, that are continually shifting and incapable of rest? Some general causes may be assigned, which nothing but particular experience can apply. And in the first place it may be observed, that clouds and heat—in short, whatever increases the density or the elasticity of the air in any one place will produce a wind there; for the increased activity of the air thus pressing powerfully on the parts of it that are adjacent will drive them forward, and thus go on in a current till the whole comes to an equality.

In this manner, as a denser air produces a wind on one hand, so will any accident that contributes to lighten the air produce it on the other; for a lighter may be considered as a vacuity into which the neighbouring air will rush; and hence it happens, that when the barometer marks a peculiar lightness in the air it is no wonder that it foretells a storm.

The winds upon large waters are generally more regular than those upon land. The wind at sea generally blows with an even, steady gale; the wind on land puffs by intervals, increasing its strength, and remitting it without any apparent cause. This in a great measure may be owing to the many mountains, towers, or trees that it meets in its way, all contributing either to turn it from its course or interrupt its passage.

The east wind blows more constantly than any other; and for an obvious reason—all other winds are in some measure deviations from it, and may partly owe their

origin thereto. It is generally, likewise, the most powerful—and for the same reason.

There are often double currents of the air: while the wind blows one way we frequently see the clouds move another. This is generally the case before thunder; for it is well known that the thunder-cloud always moves against the wind. The cause of this surprising appearance has hitherto remained a secret. From hence we may conclude that weathercocks only inform us of that current of the air which is near the surface of the earth, but are often erroneous with regard to the upper regions; in fact Derham has often found them erroneous.

Winds are generally more powerful on elevated situations than on the plain, because their progress is interrupted by fewer obstacles. In proportion as we ascend the heights of a mountain, the violence of the weather seems to increase until we have got above the region of storms, where all is usually calm and serene. Sometimes, however, the storms rise even to the tops of the highest mountains—as we learn from those who have been on the Andes, and as we are convinced by the deep snows that crown even the highest.

Winds blowing from the sea are generally moister and more attended with rains than those which blow over extensive tracts of land; for the sea gives off more vapours to the air, and these are rolled forward upon land by the wind's blowing from thence. For this reason our easterly winds that blow from the continent are dry in comparison to those from the surface of the ocean, with which we are surrounded on every quarter.

In general, the winds are more boisterous in spring and autumn than at other seasons; for that being the time of high tides, the sea may communicate a part of its motions to the winds. The sun and moon, also, which then have a greater effect upon the waters, may probably have some influence upon the winds; for, there being a great body of air surrounding the globe, which, if condensed into water, would cover it to the depth of thirty-two feet, it is evident that the sun and moon will, to a proportionable degree, affect the atmosphere, and make it a tide of air. This tide will be scarce perceivable; but without doubt it actually exists, and may contribute to increase the vernal and autumnal storms which are then known to prevail.

Upon narrowing the passage through which the air is driven, both the density and the swiftness of the wind is increased; for as currents of water flow with greater force and rapidly by narrowing their channels, so also will a current of air driven through a contracted space grow more violent and irresistible. Hence we find those dreadful storms that prevail in the defiles of mountains, where the wind, pushing from behind through a narrow channel, at once increases in speed and density, levelling or tearing up every obstacle that rises to obstruct its passage.

Winds reflected from the sides of mountains and towers are often found to be more forceful than those in direct progression. This we frequently perceive near lofty buildings, such as churches or steeples, where winds are generally known to prevail, and are much more powerful than at some distance. The air in this case, by striking against the sides of the building, acquires additional density, and therefore blows with more force.

These differing degrees of density which the air is found to possess sufficiently show that the force of the winds do not depend upon their velocity alone; so that those instruments called "anemometers," which are made to measure the velocity of the wind, will by no means give us certain information of the force of the storm. In order to estimate this with exactness we ought to know its density; which also these are not calculated to discover. For this reason we often see storms with very powerful effects that do not seem to show any great speed; and, on the contrary, we see these wind mea-

surers go round with great swiftness, when scarce any damage has followed from the storm.

Such is the nature and the inconstancy of the irregular winds with which we are best acquainted. But their effects are much more formidable in those climates near the tropics, where they are often found to break in upon the steady course of the trade-winds, and to mark their passage with destruction. With us the tempest is but rarely known, and its ravages are registered as an uncommon calamity; but in the countries that lie between the tropics, and for a good space beyond them, its visits are frequent and its effects anticipated. In these regions the winds vary their terrors; sometimes involving all things in a suffocating heat; sometimes mixing all the elements of fire, air, earth, and water together; sometimes, with a momentary swiftness, passing over the face of the country, and destroying all things in their passage; and sometimes raising whole sandy deserts in one country, to deposit them upon some other. We have little reason, therefore, to envy these climates the luxuriance of their soil or the brightness of their skies. Our own muddy atmosphere, that wraps us round in obscurity, though it fails to guild our prospects with sunshine or our groves with fruitage, nevertheless answers the calls of industry. They may boast of a plentiful but precarious harvest; while with us, the labourer toils in a certain expectation of a moderate but a happy return.

In Egypt—a kingdom so noted for its fertility and the brightness of its atmosphere—during summer, the south winds are so hot that they almost stop respiration; besides which, they are charged with such quantities of sand that they sometimes darken the air as with a thick cloud. These sands are so fine, and driven with such violence, that they penetrate everywhere, even into chests, be they shut ever so closely. If these winds happen to continue for any length of time they produce epidemic diseases, and are often followed by a great mortality. It is also found to rain but very seldom in that country; however, the want of showers is richly compensated by the copiousness of their dews, which greatly tend to promote vegetation.

In Persia, the winter begins in November and continues till March. The cold at that time is intense enough to congeal the water; and snow falls in abundance upon their mountains. During the months of March and April, winds arise that blow with great force, and seem to usher in the heats of summer. These return again in autumn with some violence, without, however, producing any dreadful effects. But during their summer all along the coasts of the Persian Gulph a very dangerous wind prevails which the natives call the "Sameyel," still more dreadful and burning than that of Egypt, and attended with instant and fatal effects. This terrible blast, which was, perhaps, the pestilence of the ancients, instantly kills all those that it involves in its passage. What its malignity consists in none can tell, as none have ever survived its effects to give information. It frequently, as I am told, assumes a visible form, and darts, in a kind of bluish vapour, along the surface of the country. The natives, not only of Persia but of Arabia, talk of its effects with terror; and their poets have not failed to heighten them with the assistance of imagination. They have described it as under the conduct of a minister of vengeance, who governs its terrors, and raises or depresses it as he thinks proper. These deadly winds are also known along the coasts of India, at Necapatan, Masulipatan, and Petapoli. But, luckily for mankind, the shortness of their duration diminishes the injuries that might ensue from their malignity.

The Cape of Good Hope, as well as many islands in the West Indies, are famous for their hurricanes, and that extraordinary kind of cloud which is said to produce them. This cloud, which is the forerunner of a

approaching hurricane, appears, when first seen, like a small black spot on the verge of the horizon, and is called by sailors the "bull's eye," from being seen so minute at a vast distance. All this time a perfect calm reigns over the sea and land, while the cloud grows gradually broader as it approaches. At length, coming to the place where its fury is to fall, it invests the whole horizon with darkness. During all the time of its approach a hollow murmur is heard in the cavities of the mountains; and beasts and animals, sensible of its approach, are seen running over the fields to seek for shelter. Nothing can be more terrible than its violence when it begins. The houses in those countries, which are made of timber the better to resist its fury, bend to the blast like osiers, and again recover their rectitude. The sun which but a moment before blazed with meridian splendour, is totally shut out, and a midnight darkness prevails, except that the air is incessantly illuminated with gleams of lightning, by which one can easily see to read. The rain falls at the same time in torrents; and its descent has been resembled to what pours from the spouts of our houses after a violent shower. These hurricanes are not less offensive to the sense of smell also; and never come without leaving the most noisome stench behind them. If the seamen also lay by their wet clothes for twenty-four hours, they are all found swarming with little white maggots that were brought with the hurricane. Our first mariners when they visited these regions were ignorant of its effects and the signs of its approach; their ships, therefore, were dashed to the bottom at the first onset, and numberless were the wrecks which the hurricane occasioned. But at present, being forewarned of its approach, they strip their masts of all their sails, and thus patiently abide its fury. These hurricanes are common in all the tropical climates. On the coasts of Guinea they have frequently three or four in a day, which thus shut out the heavens for a little space; and when past, leave all again in former splendour. They chiefly prevail on the coast in the intervals of the trade-winds, the approach of which clears the air of its meteors, and gives these mortal showers that little degree of wholesomeness which they possess. They chiefly obtain the during the months of April and May; they are known at Loango from January to April; on the opposite coast of Africa the hurricane season begins in May; and, in general, whenever a trade-wind begins to cease, these irregular tempests are found to exert their fury.

All this is terrible; but there is a tempest known in those climates more formidable than any we have hitherto been describing, which is called by the Spaniards a "Tornado." As the former was seen arriving from one part of the heavens and making a line of destruction, so the winds in this seem to blow from every quarter, and settle upon one destined place with such fury that nothing can resist their vehemence. When they have all met in their central spot, then the whirlwind begins with circular rapidity. The sphere every moment widens as it continues to turn, and catches every object that lies within its attraction. This, also, like the former, is preceded by a flattering calm; the air is everywhere hushed, and the sea is as smooth as polished glass: however, as its effects are more dreadful than those of the ordinary hurricane, the mariner tries all the power of his skill to avoid it; which, if he fails of doing, there is the greatest danger of his going to the bottom. All along the coasts of Guinea, beginning about two degrees north of the line, and so downward, lengthwise, for about a thousand miles and as many broad, the ocean is un-navigable upon account of these tornadoes. In this torpid region there reigns unceasing tornadoes or continual calms; among which, whatever ship is so unhappy as to fall it is totally deprived of all power of escaping. In this dreadful repose of all the elements, the solitary vessel is obliged to continue without a single

breeze to assist the mariner's wishes, except those whirlwinds, which only serve to increase his calamity. At present, therefore, this part of the ocean is totally avoided; and, although they may be much gold along the coasts of that part of Africa to tempt Avarice, yet there is something much more dreadful than the sabled dragon of antiquity to guard the treasure. As the internal parts of that country are totally unknown to travellers from their burning sands and extensive deserts, so here we find a vast tract of ocean lying off its shores equally unvisited by the mariner.

But of all those terrible tempests that deform the face of Nature and repress human presumption, the sandy tempests of Arabia and Africa are the most terrible, and strike the imagination most strongly. To conceive a proper idea of these, we are by no means to suppose them resembling those whirlwinds of dust that we sometimes see scattering in our air, and sprinkling their contents upon our roads or meadows. The sand-storm of Africa exhibits a very different appearance. As the sand of which the whirlwind is composed is excessively fine, and almost resembles the parts of water, its motion entirely resembles that of a fluid; and the whole plain seems to float onward like a slow inundation. The body of sand thus rolling is deep enough to bury houses and palaces in its bosom: travellers who are crossing those extensive deserts perceive its approach at a distance, and in general have time to avoid it or turn out of its way, as it generally extends but to a moderate breadth. However, when it is extremely rapid or very extensive, as sometimes is the case, no swiftness, no art can avail; nothing then remains but to meet death with fortitude, and submit to be buried alive with resignation.

It is happy for us of Britain that we have no such calamity to fear; for from this, even some parts of Europe are not entirely free. We have an account given us, in the History of the French Academy, of a miserable town in France that is constantly in danger of being buried under a similar inundation; with which I will take leave to close this chapter. "In the neighbourhood of St. Paul de Leon, in Lower Brittany, there lies a tract of country along the sea-side, which before the year 1666 was inhabited, but now lies deserted, by reason of the sands which cover it, to the height of twenty feet; and which every year advance more and more inland, and gain ground continually. From the time mentioned above, the sand has buried more than six leagues of the country inward; and it is now but half a league from the town of St. Paul; so that in all appearance the inhabitants must be obliged to abandon it entirely. In the country that has been overwhelmed there are still to be seen the tops of some steeples peeping through the sand, and many chimneys that still remain above this sandy ocean. The inhabitants, however, had sufficient time to escape; but being deprived of their little all they had no other resource but begging for their subsistence. This calamity chiefly owes its advancement to a north or an east wind, raising the sand, which is extremely fine, in such great quantities and with such velocity, that M. Deslandes, who gave the account, says, that while he was walking near the place during a moderate breeze of wind, he was obliged from time to time to shake the sand from his clothes and his hat, on which it was lodged in great quantities, and made them too heavy to be easily borne. Still further, when the wind was violent, it drove the sand across a little arm of the sea, into the town of Roscoff, and covered the streets of that place two feet deep; so that they have been obliged to carry it off in carts. It may also be observed, that there are several particles of iron mixed with the sand, which are readily affected by the loadstone. The part of the coast that furnishes these sands is a tract of about four leagues in length, and is upon a level with the sea at high-water. The shore lies in such a manner as to leave its sands subject only to the north and east winds, that bear them

Farther up the shore. It is easy to conceive how the same sand that has at one time been borne a short way inland, may, by some succeeding and stronger blast, be carried up much higher; and thus the whole may continue advancing forward, deluging the plain, and totally destroying its fertility. At the same time the sea, from whence this deluge of sand proceeds, may furnish it in inexhaustible quantities. This unhappy country, thus overwhelmed in so singular a manner, may well justify what the ancients and the moderns have reported concerning those tempests of sand in Africa, that are said to destroy villages, and even armies, in their bosom."

CHAP. XXI.

OF METEORS, AND SUCH APPEARANCES AS RESULT FROM A COMBINATION OF THE ELEMENTS.

In proportion as the substances of Nature are more compounded and combined, their appearances become more inexplicable and amazing. The properties of water have been very nearly ascertained. Many of the qualities of air, earth, and fire have been discovered and estimated; but when these come to be united by Nature, they often produce a result which no artificial combinations can imitate; and we stand surprised that, although we are possessed of all those substances which Nature makes use of, she shows herself a much more various operator than the most skilful chymist ever appeared to be. Every cloud that moves and every shower that falls serves to mortify the philosopher's pride, and to show him hidden qualities in air and water that he finds it difficult to explain. Dews, hail, snow, and thunder are not less difficult for being more common. Indeed, when we reflect on the manner in which Nature performs any one of these operations our wonder increases. To see water (which is heavier than air) rising in air, and then falling in a form so very different from that in which it rose; to see the same fluid at one time descending in the form of hail—at another, in that of snow; to see two clouds, by dashing against each other, producing an electrical fire which no watery composition that we know of can effect;—these, I say, serve sufficiently to excite our wonder; and still the more, in proportion as the objects are ever pressing on our curiosity. Much, however, has been written concerning the manner in which Nature operates in these productions—as nothing is so ungrateful to mankind as hopeless ignorance.

And first, with regard to the manner in which water evaporates and rises to form clouds, much has been advanced and many theories devised. All water, say some, has a quantity of air mixed with it; and the heat of the sun darting down, disengages the particles of the air from the grosser fluid: the sun's rays, being reflected back from the water, carry back with them those bubbles of air and water, which, being lighter than the condensed air, will ascend till they meet with a more rarified air; and they will then stand suspended. Experience, however, proves nothing of all this. Particles of air or fire are not thus known to ascend with a thin coat of water; in fact, we know the little particles of steam are solid drops of water. But besides this, water is known to evaporate more powerfully in the severest frost than when the air is moderately warm. Dr. Hamilton, therefore, of the University of Dublin, rejecting this theory, has endeavoured to establish another. According to him, as aqua-fortis is a menstruum that dissolves iron and keeps it mixed in the fluid—as aqua-regia is a menstruum that dissolves gold—or as water dissolves salts to a certain quantity,—so air is a menstruum that corrodes and dissolves a certain quantity of water, and keeps it suspended above. But however ingenious this may be, it can hardly be admitted; as we know, by Mariotte's

experiment, that if water and air be enclosed together, instead of the air's acting as a menstruum upon the water, the water will act as a menstruum upon the air, and take it all up. We know, also, that of two bodies that which is most fluid and penetrating is most likely to be the menstruum of the other; but water is more fluid and penetrating than air, and therefore the most likely of the two to be the menstruum. We know that all bodies are more speedily acted upon the more their parts are brought into contact with the menstruum that dissolves them; but water enclosed with compressed air is not the more diminished thereby. In short, we know that cold, which diminishes the force of other menstrooms, is often found to promote evaporation. In this variety of opinion and uncertainty of conjecture, I cannot avoid thinking that a theory of evaporation may be formed upon very simple and obvious principles, and embarrassed, as far as I can conceive, with very few objections.

We know that a repelling power prevails in Nature not less than an attractive one. This repulsion prevails strongly between the body of fire and that of water. If I plunge the end of a red hot bar of iron into a vessel of water, the fluid rises, and large drops of it fly up in all manner of directions, every part bubbling and steaming untill the iron be cold. Why may we not for a moment compare the rays of the sun, darted directly upon the surface of the water, to so many bars of red hot iron; each bar, indeed, infinitely small, but not the less powerful? In this case, whenever a ray of fire darts, the water, from its repulsive quality, will be driven on all sides; and, of consequence, as in the case of the bar of iron, a part of it will rise. The parts thus rising, however, will be extremely small; as the ray that darts is extremely so. The assemblage of the rays darting upon the water in this manner will cause it to rise in a light thin steam above the surface; and as the parts of this steam are extremely minute, they will be lighter than air, and consequently float upon it. There is no need for supposing them bubbles of water filled with fire; for any substance, even gold itself, will float on air if its parts be made small enough—or, in other words, if its surface be sufficiently increased. This water, thus disengaged from the general mass, will be farther attenuated and broken by the reflected rays, and, consequently, more adapted for ascending.

From this plain account every appearance in evaporation may be easily deduced. The quantity of heat increases evaporation, because it raises a greater quantity of steam. The quantity of wind increases evaporation; for, by waving the surface to the water, it thus exposes a greater surface to the evaporating rays. A dry frost in some measure assists the quantity of evaporation, as the quantity of rays are found to be no way diminished thereby. Moist weather alone prevents evaporation; for the rays being absorbed, refracted, and broken by the intervening moisture before they arrive at the surface, cannot produce the effect; and the vapour will rise in a small proportion.

Thus far we have accounted for the ascent of vapours; but to account for their falling again is attended with rather more difficulty. We have already observed that the particles of vapour, disengaged from the surface of the water, will be broken and attenuated in their ascent by the reflected, and even the direct, rays that happen to strike upon their minute surfaces. They will therefore continue to ascend till they rise above the operation of the reflected rays, which reaches but to a certain height above the surface of the earth. Being arrived at this region, which is cold for want of reflected heat, they will be condensed, and suspended in the form of clouds. Some vapours that ascend to great heights will be frozen into snow; others, that are condensed lower down, will put on the appearance of a mist, which we find the clouds to be when we ascend among them, as they hang

along the sides of a mountain. These clouds of snow and rain, being blown about by winds, are either entirely scattered and dispersed above, or they are still more condensed by motion, like a snow-ball, that grows more large and solid as it continues to roll. At last, therefore, they will become too weighty for the air which first raised them to sustain; and they will descend with their excess of weight, either in snow or rain. But as they will fall precipitately when they begin to descend, the air in some measure will resist the falling; for, as the descending fluid gathers velocity in its precipitation, the air will increase its resistance to it, and the water will therefore be thus broken into rain—as we see that water which falls from the tops of houses, though it begins in a spout, separates into drops before it has got to the bottom. Were it not for this happy interposition of the air between us and the water falling from a considerable height above us, a drop of rain might fall with dangerous force, and a hailstone might strike us with fatal rapidity.

In this manner evaporation is produced by day; but when the sun goes down, a part of that vapour which his rays had excited, being no longer broken and attenuated by the reflecting rays, it will become heavier than the air, even before it has reached the clouds; and it will therefore fall back in dew, which differ only from rain in descending before they have had time to condense into a visible form.

Hail, the Cartesians say, is a frozen cloud, half melted, and frozen again in its descent. A hoar-frost is but a frozen dew. Lightning we know to be an electrical flash produced by the opposition of two clouds; and thunder to be found proceeding from the same, continued by an echo reverberated among them. It would be to very little purpose to attempt explaining exactly how these wonders are effected: we have as yet but little insight into the manner in which these meteors are found to operate upon each other; and, therefore, we must be contented with a detail rather of their effects than their causes.

In our own gentle climate, where Nature wears the mildest and kindest aspect, every meteor seems to befriend us. With us, rains fall in refreshing showers, to enliven our fields and to paint the landscape with a more vivid beauty. Snows cover the earth to preserve its tender vegetables from the inclemency of the departing winter. The balmy dews descend so imperceptibly as in no way injure the constitution. Even thunder itself is seldom injurious; and it is often wished by the husbandman to clear the air, and to kill numberless insects that are noxious to vegetation. Hail is the most injurious meteor that is known in our climate; but it seldom visits us with violence, and then its fury is but transient.

One of the most dreadful storms we hear of was that at Hertfordshire, in the year 1697. It began by thunder and lightning, which continued for some hours, when suddenly a black cloud came forward, against the wind, and marked its passage with devastation. The hailstones which it poured down, being measured, were found to be many of them fourteen inches round, and consequently as large as a bowling-green ball. Wherever it came every plantation fell before it; it tore up the ground, split great oaks and other trees without number; the fields of rye were cut down as if levelled with a scythe; wheat, oats, and barley suffered the same damage. The inhabitants found but a precarious shelter even in their houses, their tiles and windows being broke by the violence of the hailstones, which, by the force with which they came, seemed to have descended from a great height. The birds in this universal wreck vainly tried to escape by flight; pigeons, crows, and rooks, and many more of the smaller and feebler kinds, were brought down. An unhappy young man, who had not time to take shelter, was killed; one of his eyes was struck out of his head, and his body was all over black with the bruises:

another had just time to escape, but not without the most imminent danger, his body being bruised all over. But what is most extraordinary, all this fell within the compass of a mile.

Mezeray, in his History of France, tells us of a shower of hail much more terrible, which happened in the year 1510, when the French monarch invaded Italy. There was for a time a horrid darkness, thicker than that of midnight, which continued till the terrors of mankind were changed to still more terrible objects, by thunder and lightning breaking the gloom, and bringing on such a shower of hail as no history of human calamities could equal. These hailstones were of a bluish colour; and some of them weighed not less than a hundred pounds. A noisome vapour of sulphur attended the storm. All the birds and beasts of the country were entirely destroyed. Numbers of the human race suffered the same fate. But what is still more extraordinary, the fishes found no protection from their native element, but were equal sufferers in the general calamity.

These, however, are terrors that are seldom exerted in our mild climates. They only serve to mark the page of history with wonder; and stand as admonitions to mankind of the various stores of punishment in the hands of the Deity, which His power can treasure up, and His mercy can suspend.

In the temperate zones, therefore, meteors are rarely found thus terrible; but between the tropics and near the poles they assume very dreadful and various appearances. In those inclement regions where Cold and Heat exert their chief power, meteors seem peculiarly to have fixed their residence. They are seen there in a thousand terrifying forms astonishing to Europeans, yet disregarded by the natives from their frequency. The wonders of air, fire, and water are there combined to produce the most tremendous effects; and to sport with the labours and apprehensions of mankind. Lightnings, that flash without noise; hurricanes, that tear up the earth; clouds, that all at once pour down their contents, and produce an instant deluge; mock suns; northern lights, that illuminate half the hemisphere; circular rainbows; haloes; fleeting balls of fire; clouds reflecting back the images of things on earth, like mirrors; and waterspouts, that burst from the sea to join with the mists that hang immediately above them. These are but a part of the phenomena that are common in those countries, and from many of which our own climate is in a great measure exempted.

The meteors of the torrid zone are different from those that are found near the polar circles; and it may readily be supposed that in those countries where the sun exerts the greatest force in raising vapours of all kinds, there should be the greatest quantity of meteors. Upon the approach of the winter months, as they are called under the line, which usually begin about May, the sky, from a fiery brightness, begins to be overcast, and the whole horizon seems wrapt in a muddy cloud. Mists and vapours still continue to rise; and the air, which so lately before was clear and elastic, now becomes humid, obscure, and stifling: the fogs become so thick, that the light of the sun seems in a manner excluded; nor would its presence be known but for the intense and suffocating heat of its beams, which dart through the gloom, and, instead of dissipating, only serve to increase the mist. After this preparation there follows an almost continual succession of thunder, rain, and tempests. During this dreadful season the streets of cities flow like rivers, and the whole country wears the appearance of an ocean. The inhabitants often make use of this opportunity to lay in a stock of fresh water for the rest of the year—as the same cause which pours down the deluge at one season denies the kindly shower at another. The thunder which attends the fall of these rains is much more terrible than that we are generally acquainted with. With us the flash is seen at some distance, and the noise

shortly after ensues; our thunder generally rolls on one quarter of the sky, and one stroke pursues another. But here it is otherwise; the whole sky seems illuminated with unremitted flashes of lightning; every part of the air seems productive of its own thunders; and every cloud produces its own shock. The strokes come so thick that the inhabitants can scarce mark the intervals, but all is one unremitted roar of elementary confusion. It would seem, however, that the lightning of those countries is not so fatal nor so dangerous as with us; since in this case the torrid zone would be uninhabitable.

When these terrors have ceased—with which, however, the natives are familiar—meteors of another kind begin to make their appearance. The intense beams of the sun, darting upon stagnant waters that generally cover the surface of the country, raise vapours of various kinds. Floating bodies of fire, which assume different names (rather from their accidental forms than from any real difference between them), are seen without surprise. The “*draco volans*,” or flying dragon, as it is called; the “*ignis-fatuus*,” or wandering fire; the “fires of St. Helmo,” or the mariner’s light,—are everywhere frequent; and of these we have numberless descriptions. “As I was riding in Jamaica,” says Mr. Barbham, “one morning from my habitation, situated about three miles north-west from Jago de la Vega, I saw a ball of fire, appearing to me about the size of a bomb, swiftly falling down with a great blaze. At first I thought it fell into the town; but when I came nearer I saw my people gathered together, a little to the southward, in the Savannah, to whom I rode up to inquire the cause of their meeting. They were admiring, as I found, the ground’s being strangely broken up and ploughed by a ball of fire, which, as they said, fell down there. I observed there were many holes in the ground—one in the middle of the bigness of a man’s head, and five or six smaller ones round about of the size of one’s fist, and so deep as not to be fathomed by such implements as were at hand. It was observed, also, that all the green herbage was burnt up near the holes; and there continued a strong smell of sulphur near the place for some time after.”

Ulloa gives an account of one of a similar kind at Quito. “About nine at night,” he says, “a globe of fire appeared to rise from the side of the mountain Pichinca, and so large, that it spread a light over all the part of the city facing that mountain. The house in which I lodged looking that way, I was surprised with an extraordinary light darting through the crevices of the window-shutters. On this appearance, and the bustle of the people in the street, I hastened to the window, and came time enough to see it in the middle of its career, which continued from west to south till I lost sight of it, being intercepted by a mountain which lay between. It was round, and its apparent diameter about a foot. I observed it to rise from the sides of Pichinca; although, to judge from its course, it was behind that mountain where this congeries of inflammable matter was kindled. In the first half of its visible course it emitted a prodigious effulgence, then it began gradually to grow dim; so that, upon its disappearing behind the intervening mountain, its light was very faint.”

Meteors of this kind are very frequently seen between the tropics; but they sometimes also visit the more temperate regions of Europe. We have the description of a very extraordinary one given us by Montanari, that serves to show to what great heights in our atmosphere these vapours are found to ascend. In the year 1676, a great globe of fire was seen at Bononia, in Italy, about three quarters of an hour after sun-set. It passed westward with a most rapid course, at the rate of not less than a hundred and sixty miles in a minute, which is much swifter than the force of a cannon-ball, and at last stood over the Adriatic Sea. In its course it crossed over all Italy; and by computation it could not have been less than thirty-eight miles above the surface of

the earth. In the whole line of its course, wherever it approached, the inhabitants below could distinctly hear it, with a hissing noise resembling that of a firework. Having passed away to sea towards Corsica, it was heard at last to go off with a violent explosion, much louder than that of a cannon; and immediately after another noise was heard, like the rattling of a heavy cart upon a stony pavement—which was probably nothing more than the echo of the former sound. Its magnitude when at Bononia appeared to be twice as long as the moon one way, and as broad the other; so that, considering its height, it could not have been less than a mile long and half a mile broad. From the height at which this was seen, and there being no volcano in that quarter of the world from whence it came, it is more than probable that this terrible globe was kindled on some part of the contrary side of the globe, in those regions of vapours which we have been just describing; and thus, rising above the air, and passing in a course opposite to that of the earth’s motion, in this manner it acquired its amazing rapidity.

To these meteors, common enough southward, we will add one more of a very uncommon kind, which was seen by Ulloa at Quito, in Peru—the beauty of which will in some measure serve to relieve us, after the description of those hideous ones preceding. “At day-break,” he observes, “the whole mountain of Pambamarca, where we then resided, was encompassed with very thick clouds, which the rising of the sun dispersed so far as to leave only some vapours too fine to be seen. On the side opposite to the rising sun, and about ten fathoms distant from the place where we were standing, we saw, as in a looking-glass, each his own image—the head being, as it were, the centre of three circular rainbows, one without the other, and just near enough to each other as that the colours of the internal verged upon those more external; while round all was a circle of white, but with a greater space between. In this manner these circles were erected like a mirror before us; and as we moved, they moved in disposition and order. But what is most remarkable, though we were six in number, every one saw the phenomenon with regard to himself, and not that relating to others. The diameter of the arches gradually altered as the sun rose above the horizon; and the whole, after continuing a long time, insensibly faded away. In the beginning, the diameter of the inward iris, taken from its last colour, was about five degrees and a half; and that of the white arch, which surrounded the rest, was not less than sixty-seven degrees. At the beginning of the phenomenon the arches seemed of an oval or elliptical figure, like the disk of the sun; and afterwards became perfectly circular. Each of these was of a red colour, bordered with orange; and the last bordered by a bright yellow, which altered into a straw-colour, and this turned to a green; but in all, the external colour remained red.” Such is the description of one of the most beautiful illusions that has ever been seen in Nature. This alone seems to have combined all the splendours of optics in one view. To understand the manner, therefore, how this phenomenon was produced would require a perfect knowledge of optics; which it is not our present province to enter upon. It will be sufficient, therefore, only to observe, that all these appearances arise from the density of the cloud, together with its uncommon and peculiar situation with respect to the spectator and the sun. It may be observed, that but one of these three rainbows was real, the rest being only reflections thereof. It may also be observed that whenever the spectator stands between the sun and a cloud of falling rain, a rainbow is seen, which is nothing more than a reflection of the different coloured rays of light from the bosom of the cloud. If, for instance, we take a glass globe filled with water, and hand it up before us opposite the sun, in many situations it will appear transparent; but if it is raised higher, or

sideways, to an angle of forty-five degrees, it will at first appear red; a very little higher, yellow; then green, then blue, then violet colour; in short, it will assume successively all the colours of the rainbow; but, if raised higher, still it will become transparent again. A falling shower may be considered as an infinite number of these little transparent globes, assuming different colours by being placed at the proper heights. The rest of the shower will appear transparent, and no part of it will seem coloured—but such as are angles of forty-five degrees from the eye, forty-five degrees upward, forty-five degrees on each side, forty-five degrees downward, did not the plane of the earth prevent us. We therefore see only an arch of the rainbow, the lower part being cut off from our sight by the earth's interposition. However, upon the tops of very high mountains circular rainbows are seen, because we can see to an angle of forty-five degrees downward, as well as upward or sideways, and therefore we take in the rainbow's complete circle.

In those forlorn regions round the poles, the meteors, though of another kind, are not less numerous and alarming. When the winter begins, and the cold prepares to set in, the same misty appearance which is produced in the southern climates by the heat is there produced by the contrary extreme. The sea smokes like an oven, and a fog arises, which mariners call the "frost-smoke." This cutting mist commonly raises blisters on several parts of the body; and as soon as it is wafted to some colder part of the atmosphere it freezes into little icy particles, which are driven by the wind, and create such an intense cold on land that the limbs of the inhabitants are sometimes frozen, and drop off.

There, also, haloes, or luminous circles round the moon, are oftener seen than in any other part of the earth, being formed by the frost-smoke—although the air in other respects seems to be clear. A lunar rainbow, also, is often seen there, though rather different from that common to us, as it appears of a pale white striped with grey. In these countries, also, the aurora-borealis streams with peculiar lustre and variety of colours. In Greenland it generally arises in the east, and darts its sportive fires in variegated beauty over the whole horizon. Its appearance is almost constant in winter; and at those seasons when the sun departs, to return no more for half a year, this meteor kindly rises to supply its beams, and affords sufficient light for all the purposes of existence. However, in the very midst of their tedious night the inhabitants are not entirely forsaken. The tops of the mountains are often seen painted with the red rays of the sun; and the poor Greenlanders from thence begin to date his chronology. It would appear whimsical to read a Greenland calendar, in which we might be told—That one of their chiefs, having lived forty days, died at last of a good old age; and that his widow continued for half a day to deplore his loss with great fidelity, and then—admitted a second husband.

The meteors of the day in these countries are not less extraordinary than those of the night. Mook suns are often reflected upon an opposite cloud; and the ignorant spectator fancies that there are often three or four real suns in the firmament at the same time. In this splendid appearance the real sun is always readily known by its superior brightness, every reflection being seen with diminished splendour. The solar rainbow there is often seen different from ours: instead of a pleasing variety of colours, it appears of a pale white, edged with a stripe of dusky yellow—the whole being reflected from the bosom of a frozen cloud.

But of all the meteors which mock the imagination with an appearance of reality, those strange illusions that are seen there in fine serene weather are the most extraordinary and entertaining. "Nothing," says Krantz, "ever surprised me more than, on a fine warm summer's day, to perceive the islands that lie four leagues west

of our shore putting on a form quite different from what they are known to have. As I stood gazing upon them, they appeared at first infinitely greater than what they naturally are, and seemed as if I viewed them through a large magnifying-glass. They were thus not only made larger, but brought nearer to me. I plainly descried every stone upon the land, and all the furrows filled with ice, as if I stood close by. When this illusion had lasted for a while the prospect seemed to break up, and a new scene of wonder to present itself. The islands seemed to travel to the shore, and represented a wood, or a tall cut hedge. The scene then shifted, and showed the appearance of all sorts of curious figures, as ships with sails, streamers, and flags; antique elevated castles, with decayed turrets; and a thousand forms for which fancy found a resemblance in Nature. When the eye had been satisfied with gazing, the whole groupe of riches seemed to rise in air, and at length vanish into nothing. At such times the weather is quite serene and clear; but, compressed with such subtle vapours as it is in very hot weather, and these appearing between the object, give it all that variety of appearances which glasses of different refrangibilities would have done." Mr. Krantz observes, that commonly a couple of hours afterwards a gentle west wind and a visible mist follows, which puts an end to this "lusus naturæ."

It were easy to swell this catalogue of meteors with the names of many others, both in our own climate and in other parts of the world—such as falling stars, which are thought to be no more than unctuous vapours raised from the earth to small heights, and continuing to shine till that matter which first raised and supported them being burnt out, they fall back again to the earth with extinguished flame; burning spears, which are a peculiar kind of aurora-borealis; bloody rains, which are said to be the excrements of an insect that at that time has been raised into the air; showers of stones, fishes, and ivy-berries—at first, no doubt, raised into the air by tempests in one country, and falling at some considerable distance, in the manner of rain, to astonish another. But omitting these—of which we know little more than what is thus briefly mentioned—I will conclude this chapter with the description of a water-spout—a most surprising phenomenon, not less dreadful to mariners than astonishing to the observer of Nature.

These spouts are seen very commonly in the tropical seas, and sometimes in our own. Those seen by Tournefort in the Mediterranean he has described as follows:—"The first of these," says this great botanist, "that we saw was about a musket-shot from our ship. There we perceived the water began to boil, and to rise about a foot above its level. The water was agitated and whitish; and above its surface there seemed to stand a smoke, such as might be imagined to come from wet straw before it begins to blaze. It made a sort of murmuring sound, like that of a torrent heard at a distance, mixed with a hissing noise like that of a serpent; shortly after we perceived a column of this smoke rise up to the clouds, at the same time whirling about with great rapidity. It appeared to be as thick as one's finger, and the former sound still continued. When this disappeared, after lasting for about eight minutes, upon turning to the opposite quarter of the sky we perceived another, which began in the manner of the former; presently after a third appeared in the west; and instantly beside it still another arose. The most distant of these three could not be above a musket-shot from the ship. They all appeared like so many heaps of wet straw set on fire, that continued to smoke, and to make the same noise as before. We soon after perceived each, with its respective canal mounting up in the clouds, and spreading where it touched—the cloud, like the mouth of a trumpet, making a figure, to express it intelligibly, as if the tail of an animal were pulled at one end by a weight. These canals were of a whitish colour, and so tinged, as I sup-

pose, by the water which was contained in them; for previous to this they were apparently empty, and of the colour of transparent glass. These canals were not straight, but bent in some parts, and far from being perpendicular, but rising in their clouds with a very inclined ascent. But what is the most particular, the cloud to which one of them was pointed happening to be driven by the wind, the spout still continued to follow its motion without being broken; and, passing behind one of the others, the sauts crossed each other in the form of St. Andrew's cross. In the beginning they were all about as thick as one's finger, except at the top, where they were broader; and two of them disappeared; but shortly after the last of the three increased considerably, and its canal, which was at first so small, soon became as thick as a man's arm, then as his leg, and at last thicker than his whole body. We saw distinctly through this transparent body the water, which rose up with a kind of spiral motion; and it sometimes diminished a little of its thickness, and again resumed the same; sometimes widening at top, and sometimes at bottom; exactly resembling a gut filled with water, pressed with the fingers to make the fluid rise or fall; and I am well convinced that this alteration in the spout was caused by the wind, which pressed the cloud and impelled it to give up its contents. After some time its bulk was so diminished as to be no thicker than a man's arm again; and thus, swelling and diminishing, it at last became very small. In the end, I observed the sea which was raised about it to resume its level by degrees, and the end of the canal that touched it to become as small as if it had been tied round with a cord; and this continued till the light, striking through the cloud, took away the view. I still, however, continued to look, expecting that its parts would join again, as I had before seen in one of the others, in which the spout was more than once broken, and yet again came together; but I was disappointed, for the spout appeared no more."

Many have been the solutions offered for this surprising appearance. Mr. Buffon supposes the spout here described to proceed from the operation of fire beneath the bed of the sea, as the waters at the surface are thus seen agitated. However, the solution of Dr. Stuart is not divested of probability, who thinks it may be accounted for by suction, as in the application of a cup-glass to the skin.

Wherever spouts of this kind are seen they are extremely dreaded by mariners; for if they happen to fall upon a ship they most commonly dash it to the bottom. But if the ship be large enough to sustain the deluge, they are at least sure to destroy its sails and rigging, and render it unfit for sailing. It is said that vessels of any force usually fire their guns at them, loaded with a bar of iron; and, if so happy as to hit them, the water is instantly seen to fall from them with a dreadful noise, though without any further mischief.

I am at a loss whether we ought to reckon these spouts, called "typhons" (which are sometimes seen on land), of the same kind with those so often described by mariners at sea, as they seem to differ in several respects. That, for instance, observed at Hatfield, in Yorkshire, in 1687, as it is described by the person who saw it, seems rather to have been a whirlwind than a water-spout. The season in which it appeared was very dry, the weather extremely hot, and the air very cloudy. After the wind had blown for some time with considerable force, and condensed the black clouds one upon another, a great whirling of the air ensued; upon which the centre of the clouds every now and then darted down in the shape of a thick, long, black pipe, in which the relator could distinctly see a motion, like that of a screw, continually screwing up to itself, as it were, whatever it happened to touch. In its progress it moved slowly over a grove of young trees, which it violently bent in a circular motion. Going forward to a barn, it in less

than a minute stript it of all the thatch, and filled the whole air with the same. As it came nearer the relator, he perceived that its blackness proceeded from a gyration of the clouds, by contrary winds meeting in a point or centre; and where the greatest force was exerted, there darting down, like an Archimedes' screw, to suck up all that came in its way. Another which he saw some time after was attended with still more terrible effects—levelling or tearing up great oak trees, catching up the birds in its vortex, and dashing them against the ground. In this manner it proceeded, with an audible whirling noise like that of a mill; and at length dissolved, after having done much mischief.

But we must still continue to suspend our assent as to the nature of even these land-spouts, since they have been sometimes found to drop in a great column of water at once upon the earth, and produce an instantaneous inundation, which could not readily have happened had they been caused by the gyration of a whirlwind only. Indeed, every conjecture regarding these meteors seems to me entirely unsatisfactory. They sometimes appear in the calmest weather at sea, of which I have been an eye-witness; and therefore these are not caused by a whirlwind. They are always capped by a cloud; and therefore are not likely to proceed from fires at the bottom. They change place; and therefore suction seems impracticable. In short, we still want facts upon which to build a rational theory; and instead of knowledge we must be contented with admiration. To be well acquainted with the appearances of Nature, even though we are ignorant of their causes, often constitutes the most useful wisdom.

CHAP. XXII.

THE CONCLUSION.

Having thus gone through a particular description of the earth, let us now pause for a moment to contemplate the great picture before us. The universe may be considered as the palace in which the Deity resides; and this earth is one of its apartments. In this, all the meaner races of Animated Nature mechanically obey Him; and stand ready to execute His commands without hesitation. Man alone is found refractory; he is the only being endued with a power of contradicting these mandates. The Deity was pleased to exert superior power in creating him a superior being—a being endued with a choice of good and evil, and capable, in some measure, of co-operating with his own intentions. Man, therefore, may be considered as a limited creature endued with powers imitative of those residing in the Deity. He is thrown into a world that stands in need of his help, and has been granted a power of producing harmony from partial confusion.

If, therefore, we consider the earth as allotted for our habitation, we shall find that much has been given us to enjoy and much to amend; that we have ample reasons for our gratitude, and still more for our industry. In those great outlines of Nature to which Art cannot reach, and where our greatest efforts must have been ineffectual, God himself has finished these with amazing grandeur and beauty. Our beneficent Father has considered these parts of Nature as peculiarly His own—as parts which no creature could have skill or strength to amend; and therefore made them incapable of alteration or of more perfect regularity. The heavens and the firmament show the wisdom and the glory of the Workman. Astronomers, who are best skilled in the symmetry of systems, can find nothing there that they can alter for the better. God made these perfect, because no subordinate being could correct their defects.

When, therefore, we survey Nature on this side,

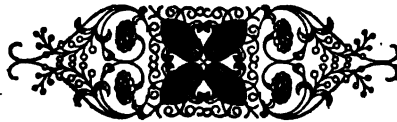
nothing can be more splendid, more correct, or amazing. We therefore behold a Deity residing in the midst of an universe, infinitely extended every way, animating all, and cheering the vacuity with His presence! We behold an immense and shapeless mass of matter formed into worlds by His power, and dispersed at intervals to which even the imagination cannot travel! In this great theatre of His glory, a thousand suns like our own animate their respective systems, appearing and vanishing at Divine command. We behold our own bright luminary fixed in the centre of its system, wheeling its planets in times proportioned to their distances, and at once dispensing light, heat, and action. The earth also is seen with its twofold motion—producing by the one the change of seasons, and by the other the grateful vicissitudes of day and night. With what silent magnificence is all this performed! With what seeming ease! The works of Art are exerted with interrupted force, and their noisy progress discovers the obstructions they receive; but the earth, with a silent, steady rotation, successively presents every part of its bosom to the sun—at once imbibing nourishment and light from that parent of vegetation and fertility.

But not only provisions of heat and light are thus supplied, but its whole surface is covered with a transparent atmosphere that turns with its motion, and guards it from external injury. The rays of the sun are thus broken into a genial warmth; and, while the surface is assisted, a gentle heat is produced in the bowels of the earth which contributes to cover it with verdure. Waters, also, are supplied in healthful abundance, to support life and assist vegetation. Mountains arise to diversify the prospect and give a current to the stream. Seas extend from one continent to the other, replenished with animals that may be turned to human support; and also serving to enrich the earth with a sufficiency of vapour. Breezes fly along the surface of the fields to promote health and vegetation. The coolness of the

evening invites to rest; and the freshness of the morning renews for labour.

Such are the delights of the habitation that has been assigned to man! Without any one of these he must have been wretched; and none of these could his own industry have supplied. But while many of his wants are thus kindly furnished on the one hand, there are numberless inconveniences to excite his industry on the other. This habitation, though provided with all the conveniences of air, pasturage, and water, is but a desert place without human cultivation. The lowest animal finds more conveniences in the wilds of Nature than he who boasts himself their lord. The whirlwind, the inundation, and all the asperities of the air, are peculiarly terrible to man, who knows their consequences, and, at a distance, dreads their approach. The earth itself where human art has not pervaded puts on a frightful gloomy appearance. The forests are dark and tangled; the meadows overgrown with rank weeds; and the brooks stray without a determined channel. Nature, that has been kind to every lower order of beings, has been quite neglectful with regard to him; to the savage, uncontriving man, the earth is an abode of desolation, where his shelter is insufficient and his food precarious.

A world thus furnished with advantages on one side and inconveniences on the other is the proper abode of Reason—is the fittest to exercise the industry of a free and a thinking creature. These evils, which Art can remedy and Prescience guard against, are a proper call for the exertion of his faculties; and they tend still more to assimilate him to his Creator. God beholds with pleasure that being whom He hath made converting the wretchedness of his natural situation into a theatre of triumph; bringing all the headlong tribes of Nature into subjection to his will; and producing that order and uniformity upon earth of which His own heavenly fabric is so bright an example.



PART II.

OF ANIMALS.

CHAP. I.

A COMPARISON OF ANIMALS WITH THE INFERIOR RANKS OF CREATION.

HAVING given an account of the earth in general, and the advantages and inconveniences with which it abounds, we now come to consider it more minutely. Having described the habitation, we are naturally led to inquire after the inhabitants. Amidst the infinitely different productions which the earth offers, and with which it is everywhere covered, animals hold the first rank—as well because of the finer formation of their parts as of their superior power. The vegetable—which is fixed to one spot, and obliged to wait for its accidental supplies of nourishment—may be considered as the prisoner of Nature. Unable to correct the disadvantages of its situation, or to shield itself from the dangers that surround it, every object that has motion may be its destroyer.

But animals are endowed with powers of motion and defence. The greatest part are capable, by changing place, of commanding Nature, and of thus obliging her to furnish that nourishment which is most agreeable to their state. Those few that are fixed on one spot, even in this seemingly helpless situation, are nevertheless protected from external injury by a hard shelly covering, which they often can close at pleasure, and thus defend themselves from every assault. And here, I think, we may draw the line between the animal and vegetable kingdoms. Every animal, by some means or other, finds protection from injury—either from its force or courage, its swiftness or cunning. Some are protected by hiding in convenient places, and others by taking refuge in a hard shell. But vegetables are totally unprotected; they are exposed to every assailant, and are patiently submissive in every attack. In a word, an animal is an organized being that is in some measure provided for its own security; a vegetable is destitute of every protection.

But though it is very easy without the help of definitions to distinguish a plant from an animal, yet both possess many properties so much alike, that the two kingdoms, as they are called, seem mixed with each other. Hence, it frequently puzzles the naturalist to tell exactly where animal life begins and vegetative terminates; nor indeed is it easy to resolve whether some objects offered to view be of the lowest of the animal or the highest of the vegetable race. The sensitive plant, which moves at the touch, seems to have as much perception as the fresh-water polypus, which is possessed of a still lower share of motion. Besides, the sensitive plant will not reproduce upon cutting in pieces, which

the polypus is known to do; so that the vegetable production seems to have the superiority. But, notwithstanding this, the polypus hunts for its food as most other animals do. It changes its situation; and therefore possesses a power of choosing its food or retreating from danger. Still, therefore, the animal kingdom is far above the vegetable; and its lowest denizen is possessed of very great privileges when compared with the plants with which it is often surrounded.

However, both classes have many resemblances, by which they are raised above the unorganized and inert masses of Nature. Minerals are mere inactive, insensible bodies, entirely motionless of themselves, and waiting some external force to alter their forms or their properties. But it is otherwise with animals and vegetables; these are endued with life and vigour; they have their state of improvement and decay; they are capable of reproducing their kinds; they grow from seeds in some, and from cuttings in others; they seem all possessed of sensation, in a greater or less degree; they both have their enmities and affections; and as some animals are, by nature, impelled to violence, so some plants are found to exterminate all others, and make a wilderness of the places around them. As the lion makes a desert of the forest where it resides, thus no other plant will grow under the shade of the machinel-tree. Thus, also, that plant, in the West-Indies called "caraguata," clings round whatever tree it happens to approach: there it quickly gains the ascendant; and, loading the tree with a verdure not its own, keeps away that nourishment designed to feed the trunk, and at last entirely destroys its supporter. As all animals are ultimately supported upon vegetables, so vegetables are greatly propagated by being made a part of animal food. Birds distribute the seeds wherever they fly, and quadrupeds prune them into greater luxuriance. By these means the quantity of food in a state of nature is kept equal to the number of the consumers; and—lest some of the weaker ranks of animals should find nothing for their support, but all the provisions be devoured by the strong—different vegetables are appropriated to different appetites. If, transgressing this rule, the stronger ranks should invade the rights of the weak, and, breaking through all regard to appetite, should make an indiscriminate use of every vegetable, Nature then punishes the transgression, and poison marks the crime as capital.

If again we compare vegetables and animals with respect to the places where they are found, we shall find them bearing a still stronger similitude. The vegetables that grow in a dry and sunny soil are strong and vigorous, though not luxuriant; so also are the animals of such a climate. Those, on the contrary, that are the joint product of heat and moisture are luxuriant and

tender: and the animals assimilating to the vegetable food, on which they ultimately subsist, are much larger in such places than in others. Thus, in the internal parts of South America and Africa, where the sun usually scorches all above, while inundations cover all below, the insects, reptiles, and other animals grow to a prodigious size: the earth-worm of America is often a yard in length, and as thick as a walking-cane; the boiguacu, which is the largest of the serpent kind, is sometimes forty feet in length; the bats in those countries are as big as a rabbit; the toads are bigger than a duck, and their spiders are as large as a sparrow. On the contrary, in the cold frozen regions of the north, where vegetable nature is stinted of its growth, the few animals in those climates partake of the diminution; all the wild animals, except the bear, are much smaller than in milder countries; and such of the domestic kinds as are carried thither quickly degenerate, and grow less. Their very insects are of the minute kinds, their bees and spiders being not half so large as those in the temperate zone.

The similitude between vegetables and animals is no where more obvious than in those that belong to the ocean, where the nature of one is admirably adapted to the necessities of the other. This element it is well known has its vegetables, and its insects that feed upon them in great abundance. Over many tracts of the sea a weed is seen floating, which covers the surface, and gives the resemblance of a green and extensive meadow. On the under side of these unstable plants millions of little animals are found, adapted to their situation. For as their ground, if I may so express it, lies over their heads, their feet are placed upon their backs; and as land animals have their legs below their bodies, these have them above. On land, also, most animals are furnished with eyes to see their food; but at sea, almost all the reptile kinds are without eyes, which might only give them prospects of danger at a time when unprovided with the means of escaping it.

Thus, in all places we perceive an obvious similitude between the animals and the vegetables of every region. In general, however, the most perfect races have the least similitude to the vegetable productions on which they are ultimately fed; while, on the contrary, the meaner the animal the more local it is found to be, and the more it is influenced by the varieties of the soil where it resides. Many of the more humble reptile kinds are not only confined to one country, but also to a plant—nay, even to a leaf. Upon that they subsist—increase with its vegetation, and seem to decay as it declines. They are merely the circumscribed inhabitants of a single vegetable; take them from that and they instantly die—being entirely assimilated to the plant they feed on, assuming its colour, and even its medicinal properties. For this reason there are infinite numbers of the meaner animals that we have never an opportunity of seeing in this part of the world; they are incapable of living separate from their kindred vegetables, which grow only in a certain climate.

Such animals as are formed more perfect lead a life of less dependence; and some kinds are found to subsist in many parts of the world at the same time. But of all the races of Animated Nature, man is the least affected by the soil where he resides, and least influenced by the variations of vegetable sustenance; equally unaffected by the luxuriance of the warm climates, or the sterility of the poles, he has spread his habitations over the whole earth, and finds subsistence as well amidst the ice of the north as the burning deserts under the line. All creatures of an inferior nature, as has been said, have peculiar propensities to peculiar climates; they are circumscribed to zones, and confined to territories where their proper food is found in the greatest abundance; but man may be called the animal of every climate, and suffers but very gradual alterations from the nature of any situation.

As to animals of a meaner rank, whom man compels to attend him in the migrations, these being obliged to live in a kind of constraint and upon vegetable food, often different from that of their native soil, they very soon alter their natures with the nature of their nourishment, assimilate to the vegetables upon which they are fed, and thus assume very different habits as well as appearances. Thus, man, unaffected himself, alters and directs the nature of other animals at his pleasure, increases their strength for his delight, or their patience for his necessities.

This power of altering the appearance of things seems to have been given him for very wise purposes. The Deity, when He made the earth, was willing to give His favoured creature many opponents, that might at once exercise his virtues, and call forth his latent abilities. Hence we find, in those wide uncultivated wildernesses—where man, in his savage state, owns inferior strength, and the beasts claim divided dominion—that the whole forest swarms with noxious animals and vegetables; animals, as yet undescribed, and vegetables which want a name. In those recesses Nature seems rather lavish than magnificent in bestowing life. The trees are usually of the largest kinds, covered round with parasitic plants, and interwoven at the tops with each other. The boughs, both above and below, are peopled with various generations, some of which have never been upon the ground, and others have never stirred from the branches on which they were produced. In this manner millions of minute and loathsome creatures pursue a round of uninterrupted existence, and enjoy a life scarce superior to vegetation. At the same time, the vegetables in those places are of the larger kinds, while the animal race is of the smaller: but man has altered this disposition of Nature—having, in a great measure, levelled the extensive forests, cultivated the softer and finer vegetables, destroyed the numberless tribes of minute and noxious animals, and taken every method to increase a numerous breed of the larger kinds. He thus has exercised a severe control; unpeopled Nature, to embellish it; and diminished the size of the vegetable in order to improve that of the animal kingdom.

To subdue the earth to his own use was, and ought to be, the aim of man; which was only to be done by increasing the number of plants and diminishing that of animals: to multiply existence was that alone of the Deity. For this reason, we find in a state of nature that animal life is increased to the greatest quantity possible; and we can scarce form a system that could add to its numbers. First, plants or trees are provided by Nature of the largest kinds; and consequently the nourishing surface is thus extended. In the second place, there are animals peculiar to every part of the vegetable, so that no part of it is lost. But the greatest possible increase of life would still be deficient were there not other animals that lived upon animals; and these are themselves in turn food for some other greater and stronger set of creatures. Were all animals to live upon vegetables alone, thousands would be extinct that now have existence, as the quantity of their provision would shortly fail. But, as things are wisely constituted, one animal now supports another; and thus all take up less room than they would by living on the same food; as, to make use of a similar instance, a greater number of people may be crowded into the same space if each is made to bear his fellow upon his shoulders.

To diminish the number of animals and increase that of vegetables has been the general scope of human industry; and if we compare the utility of the kinds, with respect to man, we shall find, that of the vast variety in the animal kingdom but very few are serviceable to him; and in the vegetable but very few are entirely noxious. How small a part of the insect tribes, for instance, are beneficial to mankind and what numbers are injurious! In some countries they almost darken the air: a candle

cannot be lighted without their instantly flying upon it, and putting out the flame. The closest recesses are no safeguard from their annoyance; and the most beautiful landscapes of Nature only serve to invite their rapacity. As these are injurious from their multitudes, so most of the larger kinds are equally dreadful to him from their courage and ferocity. In the most uncultivated parts of the forest these maintain an undisputed empire; and man invades their retreats with fear and dread. These are terrible; and there are still more that are utterly useless to him which serve to take up the room that more beneficial creatures might possess, and incommode him rather with their numbers than their enmities. Thus, in a catalogue of land animals that amounts to more than twenty thousand, we can scarcely reckon up a hundred that are any way useful to him—the rest being either all his open or his secret enemies, immediately attacking him in person, or intruding upon that food he has appropriated to himself. Vegetables, on the contrary, though existing in great variety, are but few of them noxious. The most deadly poisons are often of great use in medicine; and even those plants that only seem to cumber the ground serve for food to that race of animals which he has taken into friendship or protection. The smaller tribes of vegetables, in particular, are cultivated as contributing either to his necessities or amusement; so that vegetable life is as much promoted by human industry as animal life is controlled and diminished.

Hence, it was not without a long struggle and various combinations of experience and art that man acquired his present dominion. Almost every good that he possesses was the result of the contest; for every day he was contending he was growing more wise; and patience and fortitude were the fruits of his industry.

From hence, also, we see the necessity of some animals living upon each other, to fill up the plan of Providence, and we may consequently infer the expediency of man's living upon all. Both animals and vegetables seem equally fitted to his appetites; and, were any religious or moral motives to restrain him from taking away life, upon any account, he would only thus give existence to a variety of beings made to prey upon each other, and, instead of preventing, multiply mutual destruction.

CHAP. II.

OF THE GENERATION OF ANIMALS.

Before we survey animals in their state of maturity, and performing the functions adapted to their respective natures, method requires that we should consider them in the more early periods of their existence. There has been a time when the proudest and the noblest animal was a partaker of the same imbecility with the meanest reptile; and, while yet a candidate for existence, equally helpless and contemptible. In their incipient state all are upon a footing—the insect and the philosopher being equally insensible, clogged with matter, and unconscious of existence. Where, then, are we to begin with the history of those beings that make such a distinguished figure in the creation? Or, where lie those peculiar characters in the parts that go to make up Animated Nature—that mark one animal as destined to creep in the dust, and another to glitter on the throne?

This has been a subject that has employed the curiosity of all ages, and the philosophers of every age have attempted the solution. In tracing Nature to her most hidden recesses, she becomes too minute or obscure for our inspection; so that we find it impossible to mark her first differences, to discover the point where animal life begins, or the cause that conduces to set it in motion.

We know little more than that the greatest number of animals require the concurrence of a male and female to reproduce their kind; and that these, distinctly and invariably, are found to beget creatures of their own species. Curiosity has, therefore, been active in trying to discover the immediate result of this union; how far either sex contributes to the bestowing animal life, and whether it be to the male or female that we are most indebted for the privilege of our existence.

Hippocrates has supposed that fecundity proceeded from the mixture of the seminal liquor of both sexes, each of which equally contributes to the formation of the incipient animal. Aristotle, on the other hand, would have the seminal liquor in the male alone to contribute to this purpose, while the female supplied the proper nourishment for its support. Such were the opinions of these Fathers of Philosophers; and these continued to be adopted by the naturalists and schoolmen of succeeding ages with blind veneration. At length Steno and Harvey, taking anatomy for their guide, gave mankind a nearer view of Nature just advancing into animation. These perceived, in all such animals as produced their young alive, two glandular bodies near the womb, resembling that ovary or cluster of small eggs which is found in fowls; and, from the analogy between both, they gave these also the name of ovaria. These, as they resembled eggs, they naturally concluded had the same offices; and therefore they were induced to think that all animals, of what kind soever, were produced from eggs. At first, however, there was some alterations raised against this system; for, as these ovaria were separated from the womb, it was objected that they could not be any way instrumental in replenishing that organ, with which they did not communicate. But upon more minute inspection, Fallopius, the anatomist, perceived two tubular vessels depending from the womb, which, like the horns of a snail, had a power of erecting themselves, of embracing the ovaria, and of receiving the eggs, in order to be fecundated by the seminal liquor. This discovery seemed for a long time after to fix the opinions of philosophers. The doctrine of Hippocrates was re-established, and the chief business of generation was ascribed to the female. This was for a long time the established opinion of the schools; but Leuwenhoeek once more shook the whole system, and produced a new schism among the lovers of speculation. Upon examining the seminal liquor of a great variety of male animals with microscopes, which helped his sight more than that of any of his successors, he perceived therein infinite numbers of little living creatures, like tadpoles, very brisk, and floating in the fluid with a seeming voluntary motion. Each of these, therefore, was thought to be the rudiments of an animal similar to that from which it was produced; and this only required a reception from the female, together with proper nourishment, to complete its growth. The business of generation was now, therefore, given back to the male a second time by many; while others suspended their assent, and chose rather to confess ignorance than to embrace error.

In this manner has the dispute continued for several ages, some accidental discovery serving at intervals to renew the debate and revive curiosity. It was a subject where speculation could find much room to display itself; and Mr. Buffon, who loved to speculate, would not omit such an opportunity of giving scope to his propensity. According to this most pleasing of all naturalists, the microscope discovers that the seminal liquor, not only of males but of females also, abounds in these moving little animals, which have been mentioned above, and that they appear equally brisk in either fluid. These he takes not to be real animals, but organical particles, which, being simple, cannot be said to be organized themselves, but go to the composition of all organized bodies whatsoever. In the same manner as a

tooth in the wheel of a watch cannot be called either the wheel or the watch, and yet contributes to the sum of the machine. These organical particles are, according to him, diffused throughout all Nature, and to be found not only in the seminal liquor, but in most other fluids in the parts of vegetables, and all parts of Animated Nature. As they happen, therefore, to be differently applied, they serve to constitute a part of the animal or the vegetable whose growth they serve to increase, while the superfluity is thrown off in the seminal liquor of both sexes for the reproduction of other animals or vegetables of the same species. These particles assume different figures, according to the receptacle into which they enter; falling into the womb they unite into a foetus; beneath the bark of a tree they pullulate into branches; and, in short, the same particles that first formed the animal into the womb contribute to increase its growth when brought forth.

To this system it has been objected, that it is impossible to conceive organical substances without being organized; and that, if divested of organization themselves, they could never make an organized body, as an infinity of circles could never make a triangle. It has also been objected, that it is more difficult to conceive the transformation of these organical particles than even that of the animal whose growth we are inquiring after; and this system, therefore, attempts to explain one obscure thing by another still more obscure.

But an objection still stronger than these has been advanced by an ingenious countryman of our own, who asserts that these little animals, which thus appear swimming and sporting in almost every fluid we examine with a microscope, are not real living particles, but some of the more opaque parts of the fluid, that are thus increased in size, and seem to have a much greater motion than they have in reality—for, the motion being magnified with the object, the smallest degree of it will seem very considerable; and a being almost at rest may, by these means, be apparently put into violent action. Thus, for instance, if we look upon the sails of a wind-mill moving at a distance, they appear to go very slow; but if we approach them, and thus magnify their bulk to our eye, they go round with great rapidity. A microscope in the same manner serves to bring our eye close to the object, and thus to enlarge it; and not only increase the magnitude of its parts, but of its motion. Hence, therefore, it would follow, that these organical particles that are said to constitute the bulk of living nature are but mere optical illusions; and the system founded on them must, like them, be illusive.

These and many other objections have been made to this system, which, instead of enlightening the mind, serve only to show that too close a pursuit of Nature very often leads to uncertainty. Happily, however, for mankind, the most intricate inquiries are generally the most useless. Instead, therefore, of balancing accounts between the sexes, and attempting to ascertain to which the business of generation most properly belongs, it will be more instructive as well as amusing to begin with Animal Nature, from its earliest retirements and evanescent outlines, and pursue the incipient creature through all its changes in the womb till it arrives into open day.

The usual distinction of animals, with respect to their manner of generation, has been into the Oviparous and Viviparous kinds; or, in other words, into those that bring an egg which is afterwards hatched into life, and those that bring forth their young alive and perfect. In one of these two ways all animals were supposed to have been produced, and all other kinds of generation were supposed to be imaginary or erroneous. But later discoveries have taught us to be more cautious in making general conclusions, and even induced many to doubt whether animal life may not be produced merely from putrefaction.

Indeed, the infinite number of creatures that putrid substances seem to give birth to, and the variety of little insects seen floating in liquors by the microscope, appear to favour this opinion. But, however this may be, the former method of classing animals can now by no means be admitted, as we find many animals that are produced neither from the womb nor from the shell, but merely from cuttings; so that to multiply life in some creatures it is sufficient only to multiply the dissolution. This being the simplest method of generation, and that in which life seems to require the smallest preparation for its existence, I will begin with it, and so proceed to the two other kinds, from the meanest to the most elaborate.

The earth-worm, the millipede, the sea-worm, and many marine insects, may be multiplied by being cut in pieces; but the polypus is noted for its amazing fertility; and from hence it will be proper to take the description. The structure of the polypus may be compared to the finger of a glove, open at one end and closed at the other. The closed end represents the tale of the polypus, with which it serves to fix itself to any substance it happens to be upon; the open end may be compared to the mouth; and, if we conceive six or eight small strings issuing from this end, we shall have a tolerable idea of its arms, which it can erect, lengthen, and contract at pleasure, like the horns of a snail. This creature is exceedingly voracious, and makes use of its arms as a fisherman does of his net, to catch and entangle such little animals as happen to come within its reach. It lengthens these arms several inches, keeps them separated from each other, and thus occupies a large space in the water in which it resides. These arms when extended are as fine as threads of silk, and have a most exquisite degree of feeling. If a small worm happens to get within the sphere of their activity, it is quickly entangled by one of these arms, and soon after the other arms come to its aid; these altogether shortening, the worm is drawn into the animal's mouth and quickly devoured, colouring the body as it is swallowed. Thus much is necessary to be observed of this animal's method of living to show that it is not of the vegetable tribe, but a real animal, performing the functions which other animals are found to perform, and endowed with powers that many of them are destitute of. But what is most extraordinary remains yet to be told; for, if examined with a microscope, there are seen several little specks, like buds, which seem to pollulate from different parts of its body; and these soon after appear to be young polypi, and, like the large polypus, begin to cast their little arms about for prey in the same manner. Whatever they happen to ensnare is devoured, and gives a colour not only to their own bodies but to that of the parent—so that the same food is digested and serves for the nourishment of both. The food of the little one passes into the large polypus, and colours its body; and this in its turn digests, and swallows its food to pass into theirs. In this manner every polypus has a new colony sprouting from its body; and these new ones, even while attached to the parent animal, become parents themselves, having a smaller colony also budding from them—all at the same time busily employed seeking for their prey, and the food of any one of them serving for the nourishment and circulating through the bodies of all the rest. This society, however, is every hour dissolving; those newly produced are seen at intervals to leave the body of the large polypus, and become shortly after the head of a beginning colony themselves.

In this manner the polypus multiplies naturally; but one may take a much readier and shorter way to increase them, and this only by cutting them in pieces. Though cut into thousands of parts, each part still retains its vivacious quality, and each shortly becomes a distinct and complete polypus; whether cut lengthwise or crosswise it is all the same—this extraordinary creature seems a gainer by our endeavours, and multiplies by

apparent destruction. The experiment had been tried times without number, and still attended with the same success. Here, therefore, naturalists who have been blamed for the cruelty of their experiments upon living animals may now boast of their increasing animal life instead of destroying it. The production of the polypus is a kind of philosophical generation. The famous Sir Thomas Brown hoped one day to be able to produce children by the same method as trees are produced; the polypus is multiplied in this manner; and every philosopher may thus, if he pleases, boast of a numerous, though I should suppose a very useless, progeny.

This method of generation from cuttings may be considered as the most simple kind, and is a strong instance of the little pains Nature takes in the formation of her lower and humbler productions. As the removal of these from inanimate to animal existence is but small, there are but few preparations made for their journey. No organs of generation seem provided—no womb to receive—no shell to protect them in their state of transition. The little repule is quickly fitted for all the offices of its humble sphere, and in a very short time arrives at the height of its contemptible perfection.

The next generation is of those animals that we see produced from the egg. In this manner all birds, most fishes, and many of the insect tribes, are brought forth. An egg may be considered as a womb detached from the body of the parent animal, in which the embryo is but just beginning to be formed. It may be regarded as a kind of incomplete delivery, in which the animal is disburthened of its young before its perfect formation. Fishes and insects, indeed, most usually commit the management of their eggs to hazard; but birds, which are more perfectly formed, are found to hatch them into maturity by the warmth of their bodies. However, any other heat of the same temperature would answer the end as well; for either the warmth of the sun or of a stove is equally efficacious in bringing the animal in the egg to perfection. In this respect, therefore, we may consider generation from the egg as inferior to that in which the animal is brought forth alive. Nature has taken care of the viviparous animal in every stage of its existence. That force which separates it from the parent separates it from life; and the embryo is shielded with unceasing protection till it arrives at exclusion. But it is different with the little animal in the egg; often totally neglected by the parent, and always separable from it, every accident may retard its growth, or even destroy its existence. Besides, art or accident may also bring this animal to a state of perfection; so that it can never be considered as a complete work of Nature in which so much is left for accident to finish or destroy.

But however inferior this kind of generation may be, the observation of it will afford great insight into that of nobler animals, as we can here watch the progress of the growing embryo in every period of its existence, and catch it in those very moments when it first seems stealing into motion. Malpighi and Haller have been particularly industrious on this subject; and, with a patience almost equalling that of the sitting hen, have attended incubation in all its stages. From them, therefore, we have an amazing history of the chicken in the egg, and of its advances into complete formation.

It would be methodically tedious to describe those parts of the egg which are well known and obvious—such as its shell, its white, and its yolk; but the disposition of these is not so apparent. Immediately under the shell lies that common membrane or skin which lines it on the inside, adhering closely to it everywhere, except at the broad end, where a little cavity is left filled with air, which increases as the animal within grows larger. Under this membrane are contained two whites, though seeming to us to be only one, each wrapped up in a membrane of its own—one white within the other—in the midst of all is the yolk, wrapped

round, likewise, in its own membrane. At each end of this are two ligaments, called "chalazæ," which are, as it were, the poles of this microcosm, being white dense substances made from the membranes, and serving to keep the white and the yolk in their places. It was the opinion of Mr. Derham that they served also for another purpose; for a line being drawn from one ligament to the other would not pass directly through the middle of the yolk, but rather towards one side, and would divide the yolk into two unequal parts, by which means these ligaments served to keep the smallest side of the yolk always uppermost; and in this part he supposed the cicatricula or first speck of life to reside—which, by being uppermost, and consequently next the hen, would be thus in the warmest situation. But this is rather fanciful than true—the incipient animal being found in all situations, and not particularly influenced by any. This cicatricula, which is the part where the animal first begins to show signs of life, is not unlike a vetch or a lentil, lying on one side of the yolk, and within its membrane. All these contribute to the little animal's convenience or support; the outer membranes and ligaments preserve the fluids in their proper places; the white serves as nourishment; and the yolk, with its membranes, after a time becomes a part of the animal's body. This is the description of a hen's egg, and answers to that of all others, how large or how small soever.

Previous to putting the eggs to the hen, our philosophers first examined the cicatricula, or little spot already mentioned, and which may be considered as the most important part of the egg. This was found in those that were impregnated by the cock to be large; but in those laid without the cock very small. It was found by the microscope to be a kind of bag, containing a transparent liquor, in the midst of which the embryo was seen to reside. The embryo resembled a composition of little threads, which the warmth of future incubation tended to enlarge, by varying and liquifying the other fluids contained within the shell, and thus pressing them either into the pores or tubes of their substance.

Upon placing the eggs in a proper warmth, either under the sun or in a stove, after six hours the vital speck begins to dilate like the pupil of the eye. The head of the chicken is distinctly seen, with the back-bone, somewhat resembling a tadpole, floating in its ambient fluid, but as yet seeming to assume none of the functions of animal life. In about six hours more the little animal is seen more distinctly; the head becomes more plainly visible, and the vertebrae of the back more easily perceivable. All these signs of preparation for life are increased in six hours more; and at the end of twenty-four hours the ribs begin to take their places, the neck begins to lengthen, and the head to turn to one side.

At this time, also, the fluids in the egg seem to have changed place; the yolk, which was before in the centre of the shell, approaches nearer to the broad end. The watery part of the white is in some measure evaporated through the shell, and the grosser part sinks to the small end. The little animal appears to turn towards the part of the broad end in which a cavity has been described, and with its yolk seems to adhere to the membrane there. At the end of forty hours the great work of life seems fairly begun, and the animal appears plainly to move; the back-bone, which is of a whitish colour, thickens; the head is turned still more on one side; the first rudiments of the eyes begin to appear; the heart beats, and the blood begins to circulate. The parts, however, as yet are fluid, but by degrees become more and more tenacious, and harden into a kind of jelly. At the end of two days, the liquor in which the chicken swims seems to increase; the head appears with two bladders in the place of eyes; the heart beats in the manner of every embryo where the blood does not circulate through the lungs. In about fourteen hours after this the chicken is grown more strong; its head, how-

ever, is still bent downwards; the veins and arteries begin to branch, in order to form the brain; and the spinal marrow is seen stretching along the back-bone. In three days the whole body of the chicken appears bent; the head, with its two eye-balls with their different humours, now distinctly appear; and five other vesicles are seen, which soon unite to form the rudiments of the brain. The outlines, also, of the thighs and wings begin to be seen, and the body begins to gather flesh. At the end of the fourth day the vesicles that form the brain approach each other; the wings and thighs appear more solid; the whole body is covered with a jelly-like flesh; the heart, that was hitherto exposed, is now covered up within the body by a very thin, transparent membrane; and, at the same time, the umbilical vessels that unite the animal to the yolk now appear to come forth from the abdomen. After the fifth and sixth days the vessels of the brain begin to be covered over; the wings and thighs lengthen; the belly is closed up and tumid; the liver is seen within it very distinctly, not yet grown red, but of a dusky white; both the ventricles of the heart are discerned, as if they were two separate hearts, beating distinctly; the whole body of the animal is covered over; and the traces of the incipient feathers are to be seen. The seventh day the head appears very large; the brain is covered entirely over; the bill begins to appear between the eyes; and the wings, the thighs, and the legs have acquired their perfect figure. Hitherto, however, the animal appears as if it had two bodies; the yolk is joined to it by the umbilical vessels that come from the belly, and is furnished with its vessels, through which the blood circulates as through the rest of the body of the chicken, making a bulk greater than that of the animal itself. But towards the end of incubation the umbilical vessels shorten the yolk, and with it the intestines are thrust up into the body of the chicken by the action of the muscles of the belly; and the two bodies are thus formed into one. During this state all the organs are found to perform their secretions; the bile is found to be separated as in grown animals; but it is a fluid, transparent, and without bitterness; and the chicken then also appears to have lungs. On the tenth the muscles of the wings appear, and the feathers begin to push out. On the eleventh, the heart, which hitherto had appeared divided, begins to unite; the arteries which belong to it join into it, like the fingers into the palm of the hand. All these appearances only come more into view because the fluids the vessels had hitherto secreted were more transparent; but as the colour of the fluids deepen their operations and circulations are more distinctly seen. As the animal thus, by the eleventh day completely formed, begins to gather strength, it becomes more uneasy in its situation, and exerts its animal powers with increasing force. For some time before it is able to break the shell in which it is imprisoned it is heard to chirrup, receiving a sufficient quantity of air for this purpose from that cavity which lies between the membrane and the shell, and which must contain air to resist the external pressure.

At length, upon the twentieth day (in some birds sooner and later in others), the enclosed animal breaks the shell within which it has been confined with its beak; and, by repeated efforts, at last procures its enlargement.

From this little history we perceive that those parts which are most conducive to life are the first that are begun: the head and the back-bone, which no doubt enclose the brain, and the spinal marrow, though both are too limpid to be discerned, are the first that are seen to exist; the beating of the heart is perceived soon after: the less noble parts seem to spring from these—the wings, the thighs, the feet, and, lastly, the bill. Whatever, therefore, the animal has double, or whatever it can live without the use of, these are latest in production—Nature first sedulously applying to the formation of the

nobler organs, without which life would be of short continuance, and begun in vain.

The resemblance between the beginning animal in the egg and the embryo in the womb is very striking; and this similitude has induced many to assert that all animals are produced from eggs in the same manner. They consider an egg excluded from the body by some, and separated into the womb by others, to be actions merely of one kind—with this only difference, that the nourishment of the one is kept within the body of the parent, and increases as the embryo happens to want the supply; the nourishment of the other is prepared all at once, and sent out with the beginning animal as entirely sufficient for its future support. But leaving this to the discussion of anatomists, let us proceed rather with facts than dissertations; and, as we have seen the progress of an oviparous animal, or one produced from the shell, let us likewise trace that of a viviparous animal, which is brought forth alive. In the investigation, Graaf has, with a degree of patience characteristic of his nation, attended the progress and increase of various animals in the womb, and minutely marked the changes they undergo. Having dissected a rabbit half an hour after impregnation, he perceived the horns of the womb that go to embrace and communicate with the ovary to be more red than before; but no other change in the rest of the parts. Having dissected another, six hours after, he perceived the follicles, or the membrane covering the eggs contained in the ovary to become reddish. In a rabbit dissected after twenty-four hours, he perceived in one of the ovaries three follicles, and in the other five, that were changed—being become from transparent dark and reddish. In one dissected after three days he perceived the horns of the womb very strictly to embrace the ovaries; and he observed three of the follicles in one of them much longer and harder than before; pursuing his inquiry, he also found two of the eggs actually separated into the horns of the womb, and each about the size of a grain of mustard-seed; these little eggs were each of them enclosed in a double membrane, the inner parts being filled with a very limpid liquor. After four days, he found in one of the ovaries four, and in the other five, follicles emptied of their eggs; and in the horns correspondent to these he found an equal number of eggs thus separated; these eggs were now grown larger than before, and somewhat of the size of duck-shot, and could be blown from the part of the womb where they were by the breath. In seven days the eggs were found of the size of a pistol-bullet, each covered with its double membrane, and these much more distinct than before. In nine days, having examined the liquor contained in one of these eggs, he found it from a limpid colour less fluid to have got a light cloud floating upon it. In ten days this cloud began to thicken, and to form an oblong body of the figure of a little worm; and in twelve days the figure of the embryo was distinctly to be perceived, and even its parts came into view. In the region of the breast he perceived two bloody specks, and two more that appeared of a whitish colour. Fourteen days after impregnation the head of the embryo was become large and transparent, the eyes prominent, the mouth open, and the rudiments of the ears beginning to appear; the back-bone, of a whitish colour, was bent towards the breast; the two bloody specks, being now considerably increased, appeared to be nothing less than the outlines of the two ventricles of the heart; and the two whitish specks on each side now appeared to be the rudiments of the lungs. Towards the region of the belly the liver began to be seen, of a reddish colour, and a little intricate mass like ravelled thread discerned, which soon appeared to be the stomach and the intestines; the legs soon after began to be seen, and to assume their natural position; and from that time forth, all the parts being formed, every day only served to develop

them still more until the thirty-first day, when the rabbit brought forth her young completely fitted for the purposes of their humble happiness.

Having thus seen the stages of generation in the meaner animals, let us take a view of its progress in Man, and trace the feeble beginnings of our own existence. An account of the lowliness of our own origin, if it cannot amuse, will at least serve to humble us; and it may take from our pride though it fail to gratify our curiosity. We cannot here trace the variations of the beginning animal as in the former instances, for the opportunities of inspection are but few and accidental; for this reason we must be content often to fill up the blanks of our history with conjecture. And, first, we are entirely ignorant of the state of the infant in the womb immediately after conception; but we have good reason to believe that it proceeds, as in most other animals, from the egg. Anatomists inform us, that four days after conception there is found in the womb an oval substance about the size of a small pea, but longer one way than the other; this little body is formed by an extremely fine membrane enclosing a liquor a good deal resembling the white of an egg; in this may, even then, be perceived several small fibres united together, which form the first rudiments of the embryo. Besides these, another set of fibres are seen, which soon after become the placenta, or that body by which the animal is supplied with nourishment.

Seven days after conception, we can readily distinguish by the eye the first lineaments of the child in the womb. However, they are as yet without form—showing at the end of seven days pretty much such an appearance as that of the chicken after twenty-four hours, being a small jelly-like mass, yet exhibiting the rudiments of the head; the trunk is barely visible; there is likewise to be discerned a small assemblage of fibres issuing from the body of the infant, which afterwards become the blood-vessels that convey nourishment from the placenta to the child while enclosed in the womb.

Fifteen days after conception the head becomes distinctly visible, and even the most prominent features of the visage begin to appear. The nose is a little elevated; there are two black specks in the place of eyes; and two little holes where the ears are afterwards seen. The body of the embryo is also grown larger; and both above and below are seen two little protuberances, which mark the places from whence the arms and thighs are to proceed. The length of the whole body at this time is less than half an inch.

At the end of three weeks the body has received very little increase; but the legs and feet, with the hands and arms, are become apparent. The growth of the arms is more speedy than that of the legs; and the fingers are sooner separated than the toes. About this time, the internal parts are found upon dissection to become distinguishable. The places of the bones are marked by small thread-like substances, that are yet more fluid even than a jelly. Among them the ribs are perceptible, like threads also, disposed on each side of the spine; and even the fingers and toes exceed hairs in thickness.

In a month the embryo is an inch long; the body is bent forward—a situation which it almost always assumes in the womb, either because a posture of this kind is the most easy, or because it takes up the least room. The human figure is now no longer doubtful; every part of the face is distinguishable; the body is sketched out; the bowels are to be distinguished as threads; the bones are still quite soft, but in some places beginning to assume a greater rigidity; the blood-vessels that go to the placenta (which, as was said, contribute to the child's nourishment) are plainly seen issuing from the navel (being therefore called the "umbilical vessels") and going to spread themselves upon the placenta. According to Hippocrates, the male embryo develops sooner

than the female: he adds, that at the end of thirty days the parts of the body of the male are distinguishable; while those of the female are not equally so till ten days after.

In six weeks the embryo is grown two inches long; the human figure begins to grow every day more perfect—the head being still much larger in proportion to the rest of the body; and the motion of the heart is perceived almost by the eye. It has been seen to beat in an embryo of fifty days old a long time after it had been taken out of the womb.

In two months the embryo is more than two inches in length. The ossification is perceivable in the arms and thighs and in the point of the chin, the under-jaw being greatly advanced before the upper. These parts, however, may as yet be considered as bony points rather than as bones. The umbilical vessels, which before went side by side, are now begun to be twisted like a rope one over the other, and go to join with the placenta, which as yet is but small.

In three months the embryo is above three inches long, and weighs about three ounces. Hippocrates observes, that not till then the mother perceives the child's motion; and he adds, that in female children the motion is not observable till the end of four months. However, this is no general rule, as there are women who assert that they perceived themselves to be quick with child, as their expression is, at the end of two months; so that this quickness seems rather to arise from the proportion between the child's strength and the mother's sensibility than from any determinate period of time. At all times, however, the child is equally alive; and consequently those juries of matrons that are to determine upon the pregnancy of criminals should not inquire whether the woman be quick, but whether she be with child; if the latter be perceivable, the former follows of course.

Four months and a half after conception the embryo is from six to seven inches long. All the parts are so augmented, that even their proportions are now distinguishable. The very nails begin to appear upon the fingers and toes; and the stomach and intestines already begin to perform their functions of receiving and digesting. In the stomach is found a liquor similar to that in which the embryo floats—in one part of the intestines a milky substance, and in the other an excrementitious one. There is also found a small quantity of bile in the gall-bladder, and some urine in its own proper receptacle. By this time, also, the posture of the embryo seems to be determined. The head is bent forward, so that the chin seems to rest upon its breast; the knees are raised up towards the head, and the legs bent backward, somewhat resembling the posture of those who sit upon their haunches. Sometimes the knees are raised so high as to touch the cheeks, and the feet are crossed over each other; the arms are laid upon the breast, while one of the hands, and often both, touch the visage; sometimes the hands are shut, and sometimes, also, the arms are found hanging down by the body. These are the most usual postures which the embryo assumes; but these it is frequently known to change; and it is owing to these alterations that the mother so frequently feels those twitches which are usually attended with pain.

The embryo thus situated is furnished by Nature with all things proper for its support; and as it increases in size its nourishment also is found to increase with it. As soon as it first begins to grow in the womb, that receptacle, from being very small, grows larger and (what is more surprising) thicker every day. The sides of a bladder, as we know, the more they are distended the more they become thin; but here, the larger the womb grows the more it appears to thicken. Within this the embryo is still farther involved, in two membranes called the "chorion" and "amnion," and

floats in a thin transparent fluid, upon which it seems in some measure to subsist. However, the great storehouse from whence its chief nourishment is supplied is called the "placenta"—a red substance somewhat resembling a sponge, that adheres to the inside of the womb, and communicates to the umbilical vessels with the embryo. These umbilical vessels, which consist of a vein and two arteries, issue from the navel of the child, and are branched out upon the placenta, where they, in fact, seem to form its substance, and, if I may so express it, seem to suck up their nourishment from the womb and the fluids contained therein. The blood thus received from the womb by the placenta, and communicated by the umbilical vein to the body of the embryo, is conveyed to the heart; where, without ever passing into the lungs as in the born infant, it takes a shorter course; for, entering the right auricle of the heart, instead of passing up into the pulmonary artery, it seems to break this partition, and goes directly through the body of the heart by an opening called the "foramen ovale," and from thence to the aorta, or great artery; by which it is driven into all parts of the body. Thus we see the placenta in some measure supplying the place of lungs; for as the little animal can receive no air by inspiration, the lungs are therefore useless. But we see the placenta converting the fluid of the womb into blood, and sending it by the umbilical vein to the heart, from whence it is despatched by a quicker and shorter circulation through the whole frame.

In this manner the embryo reposes in the womb, supplied with that nourishment which is fitted to its necessities, and furnished with those organs that are adapted to its situation. As its sensations are but few, its wants are in the same proportion; and it is probable that a sleep, with scarce any intervals, marks the earliest period of animal life. As the little creature, however, gathers strength and size, it seems to become more wakeful and uneasy; even in the womb it begins to feel the want of something it does not possess—a sensation that seems coeval with man's nature, and never leaves him till he dies. The embryo even then begins to struggle for a state more marked by pleasure and pain, and, from about the sixth month, begins to give the mother warning of the greater pain she is yet to endure. The continuation of pregnancy in woman is usually nine months; but there have been many instances when the child has lived that was born at seven; and some are found to continue pregnant a month above the usual time. When the appointed time approaches, the infant, which has for some months been giving painful proofs of its existence, now begins to increase its efforts for liberty. The head is applied downward to the aperture of the womb, and by reiterated efforts it endeavours to extend the same: these endeavours produce the pain which all women in labour feel in some degree—those of strong constitutions the least, those most weakly the most severely; since we learn that the women of Africa always deliver themselves, and are well a few hours after; while those of Europe require assistance, and recover more slowly. Thus the infant, still continuing to push with its head forward, by the repetition of its endeavours at last succeeds, and thus issues into life. The blood, which has hitherto passed through the heart, now takes a wider circuit; and the foramen ovale closes; the lungs, which had till this time been inactive, now first begin their functions; the air rushes in to distend them; and this produces the first sensation of pain, which the infant expresses by a shriek—so that the beginning of our lives as well as the end is marked with anguish.

From comparing these accounts, we perceive that the most laboured generation is the most perfect; and that the animal which, in proportion to its bulk, takes the longest time for production is always the most complete when finished. Of all others man seems the slowest in coming into life, as he is the slowest in coming to per-

fection; other animals of the same bulk seldom remain in the womb above six months, while he continues nine; and even after his birth appears more than any other to have his state of imbecility prolonged.

We may observe, also, that that generation is the most complete in which the fewest animals are produced. Nature, by attending to the production of one at a time, seems to exert all her efforts in bringing it to perfection; out where this attention is divided, the animals so produced come into the world with partial advantages. In this manner twins are never, at least while infants, so large or so strong as those that come singly into the world—each having in some measure robbed the other of its right, as that support which Nature meant for one has been prodigally divided.

In this manner, as those animals are the best that are produced singly, so we find that the noblest animals are ever the least fruitful. These are seen usually to bring forth but one at a time, and to place all their attention upon that alone. On the other hand, all the oviparous kinds produce an amazing plenty; and even the lower tribes of viviparous animals increase in a seeming proportion to their minuteness and imperfection. Nature seems lavish of life in the lower orders of the creation; and, as if she meant them entirely for the use of the nobler races, she appears to have bestowed greater pains in multiplying the number than in completing the kind. In this manner, while the elephant and the horse bring forth but one at a time, the spider and the beetle are seen to produce a thousand: and even among the smaller quadrupeds all the inferior kinds are extremely fertile—any one of these being found in a very few months to become the parent of a numerous progeny.

In this manner, therefore, the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion; and we have reason to thank Providence that the most formidable animals are the least fruitful. Had the lion and the tiger the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit or the rat, all the arts of man would be unable to oppose these fierce invaders; and we should soon perceive them become the tyrants of those who claim the lordship of the creation. But Heaven in this respect has wisely consulted the advantage of all: it has opposed to man only such enemies as he has art and strength to conquer; and as large animals require proportional supplies, Nature was unwilling to give new life where, in some measure, it denied the necessary means of subsistence.

In consequence of this pre-established order, the animals that are endowed with the most perfect methods of generation, and bring forth but one at a time, seldom begin to procreate till they have almost acquired their full growth. On the other hand, those which bring forth many engender before they have arrived at half their natural size. The horse and the bull come almost to perfection before they begin to generate; the hog and the rabbit scarce leave the teat before they become parents themselves. In whatever light, therefore, we consider this subject, we shall find that all creatures approach most to perfection whose generation most nearly resembles that of man. The reptile produced from cutting is but one degree above the vegetable; the animal produced from the egg is a step higher in the scale of existence; that class of animals which are brought forth alive are still more exalted. Of these, such as bring forth one at a time are the more complete; and amongst the foremost of these stands Man, the great master of all, who seems to have united the perfections of all the rest in his formation.



CHAP. III.

THE INFANCY OF MAN.

When we take a survey of the various classes of animals, and examine their strength, their beauty, or their structure, we shall find man to possess most of those advantages united which the rest enjoy partially. Infinitely superior to all others in the powers of the understanding, he is also superior to them in the fitness and proportions of his form. He would, indeed, have been one of the most miserable beings upon earth if, with a sentient mind, he was so formed as to be incapable of obeying its impulse; but Nature has otherwise provided—as, with the most extensive intellects to command, she has furnished him with a body the best fitted for obedience.

In infancy, however, that mind and this body form the most helpless union in all Animated Nature; and if anything can give us a picture of complete imbecility, it is a man when just come into the world. The infant just born stands in need of all things without the power of procuring any. The low races of animals upon being produced are active, vigorous, and capable of self-support; but the infant is obliged to wait in helpless expectation, and its cries are its only aid to procure subsistence.

An infant just born may be said to come from one element into another; for, from the watery fluid in which it was surrounded, it now immerses into air; and its first cries seem to imply how greatly it regrets the change. How much longer it could have continued in a state of almost total insensibility in the womb is impossible to tell; but it is very probable that it could remain there some hours more. In order to throw some light upon this subject, Mr. Buffon so placed a pregnant bitch as that her puppies were brought forth in warm water, in which he kept them above half an hour at a time. However, he saw no change in the animals thus newly brought forth; they continued the whole time vigorous; and, during the whole time, it is very probable that the blood circulated through the same channels through which it passed while they continued in the womb.

Almost all animals have their eyes closed for some days after being brought into the world. The infant opens them the instant of its birth. However, it seems to keep them fixed and idle; they want that lustre which they acquire by degrees; and if they happen to move, it is rather an accidental gaze than an exertion of the act of seeing. The light alone seems to make the greatest impression upon them. The eyes of infants are sometimes found turned to the place where it is strongest; and the pupil is seen to dilate and diminish, as in grown persons, in proportion to the quantity it receives. But still the infant is incapable of distinguishing objects; the sense of seeing, like the rest of the senses, requires habit before it becomes any way serviceable. All the senses must be compared with each other, and must be made to correct the defects of one another, before they can give just information. It is probable, therefore, that if the infant could express its own sensations, it would give a very extraordinary description of the illusions which it suffers from them. The sight might, perhaps, be represented as inverting objects or multiplying them; the hearing, instead of conveying one uniform tone, might be said to bring up an interrupted succession of noises; and the touch apparently would divide one body into as many as there are fingers that grasped it. But all these errors are lost in one confused idea of existence; and it is happy for the infant that it then can make but very little use of its senses, when they could serve only to bring it false information.

If there be any distinct sensations, those of pain seem to be much more frequent and stronger than those of pleasure. The infant's cries are sufficient indications of

the uneasinesses it must at every interval endure; while, in the beginning, it has got no external marks to testify its satisfactions. It is not till after forty days that it is seen to smile; and not till that time also that the tears begin to appear, its former expressions of uneasiness being always without them. As to any other marks of the passions, the infant being as yet almost without them, it can express none of them in its visage—which, except in the act of crying and laughing, is fixed in a settled serenity. All the other parts of the body seem equally relaxed and feeble; its motions are uncertain, and its postures without choice; it is unable to stand upright; its limbs are yet bent, from the habit which it received from its position in the womb; it has not strength enough in its arms to stretch them forward, much less to grasp anything with its hands; it rests just in the posture it is laid; and, if abandoned, must continue in the same position.

Nevertheless, though this be the description of infancy among mankind in general, there are countries and races among whom infancy does not seem marked with such utter imbecility, but where the children, not long after they are born, appear possessed of a greater share of self-support. The children of Negroes have a surprising degree of this premature industry; they are able to walk at two months—or, at least, to move from one place to another, they also hang to the mother's back without any assistance, and seize the breast over the shoulder—continuing in this posture till she thinks proper to lay them down. This is very different in the children of our countries, who are seldom able to walk under a twelve-month.

The skin of children newly brought forth is always red, proceeding from its transparency, by which the blood beneath appears more conspicuous. Some say that this redness is greatest in those children that are afterwards about to have the finest complexions; and it appears reasonable that it should be so, since the thinnest skins are always the fairest. The size of a new-born infant is generally about twenty inches, and its weight about twelve pounds. The head is large, and all the members delicate, soft, and puffy. These appearances alter with its age; as it grows older, the head becomes less in proportion to the rest of the body; the flesh hardens: the bones, that before birth grew very thick in proportion, now lengthen by degrees, and the human figure more and more acquires its due dimensions. In such children, however, as are but feeble or sickly, the head always continues too big for the body—the heads of dwarfs being extremely large in proportion.

Infants, when newly born, pass most of their time in sleeping, and awake with crying—excited either by sensations of pain or of hunger. Man, when come to maturity, but rarely feels the want of food, as eating twice or thrice in the twenty-four hours is known to suffice the most voracious: but the infant may be considered as a little glutton, whose only pleasure consists in its appetite—and this, except when it sleeps, it is never easy without satisfying. Thus Nature has adapted different desires to the different periods of life—each as it seems most necessary for human support or succession. While the animal is yet forming, hunger excites it to that supply which is necessary for its growth; when it is completely formed a different appetite takes place, which incites it to communicate existence. These two desires take up the whole attention at different periods, but are very seldom found to prevail strongly together in the same age—one pleasure ever serving to repress the other; and if we find a person of full age placing a principal part of his happiness in the nature and quantity of his food, we have strong reasons to suspect that, with respect to his other appetites, he still retains a part of the imbecility of his childhood.

It is extraordinary, however, that infants, who are thus more voracious than grown persons, are neverthe-

less more capable of sustaining hunger. We have several instances, in accidental cases of famine, in which the child has been known to survive the parent, and been seen clinging to the breast of its dead mother. Their little bodies, also, are more patient of cold; and we have similar instances of the mother's perishing in the snow, while the infant has been found alive beside her. However, if we examine the internal structure of infants, we shall find an obvious reason for both these advantages. Their blood-vessels are known to be much larger than in adults, and their nerves much thicker and softer; thus, being furnished with a more copious quantity of juices, both of the nervous and sanguinary kinds, the infant finds a temporary sustenance in this superfluity, and does not expire till both are exhausted. The circulation, also, being larger and quicker, supplies it with proportionable warmth, so that it is more capable of resisting the accidental rigours of the weather.

The first nourishment of infants is well known to be the mother's milk; and, what is remarkable, the infant has milk in its own breasts, which may be squeezed out by compression; this nourishment becomes less grateful as the child gathers strength, and perhaps, also, more unwholesome. However, in cold countries, which are unfavourable to propagation, and where the female has seldom above three or four children at the most during her life, she continues to suckle the child for four or five years together. In this manner the mothers of Canada and Greenland are often seen suckling two or three children of different ages at a time.

The life of infants is very precarious till the ages of three or four, from which time it becomes more secure; and when a child arrives at its seventh year it is then considered as a more certain life, as Mr. Buffon asserts, than at any other age whatever. It appears, from Simpson's Tables, that of a certain number of children born at the same time, a fourth part are found dead at the end of the first year; more than two thirds at the end of the second; and at least half at the end of the third: so that those who live to be above three years old are indulged a longer term than half the rest of their fellow-creatures. Nevertheless, life at that period may be considered as mere animal existence, and rather a preparation for than an enjoyment of those satisfactions, both of mind and body, that make life of real value; and hence it is more natural for mankind to deplore a fellow creature cut off in the bloom of life than one dying in early infancy. The one, by living up to youth, and thus wading through the disadvantageous parts of existence, seems to have earned a short continuance of its enjoyments; the infant, on the contrary, has served but a short apprenticeship to pain; and, when taken away, may be considered as rescued from a long continuance of misery.

There is something very remarkable in the growth of the human body. The embryo in the womb continues to increase still more and more till it is born. On the other hand, the child's growth is less every year till the time of puberty, when it seems to start up of a sudden. Thus, for instance, the embryo, which is an inch long in the first month, grows but one inch and a quarter in the second; it then grows one and a half in the third, two and a half in the fourth; and in this manner it keeps increasing, till in the last month of its continuance it is actually found to grow four inches, and, in the whole, about eighteen inches long. But it is otherwise with the child when born; if we suppose it eighteen inches at that time, it grows in the first year six or seven inches; in the second year it grows but four inches; in the third year about three; and so on, at the rate of about an inch and a half or two inches each year till the time of puberty, when Nature seems to make one last effort to complete her work, and unfold the whole animal machine.

The growth of the mind in children seems to correspond with that of the body. The comparative progress

of the understanding is greater in infants than in children of four years old. If we only reflect a moment on the amazing acquisitions that an infant makes in the first and second years of life, we shall have much cause for wonder. Being sent into a world where everything is new and unknown, the first months of life are spent in a kind of torpid amazement—an attention distracted by the multiplicity of objects that press to be known. The first labour, therefore, of the little learner is to correct the illusions of the senses, to distinguish one object from another, and to exert the memory so as to know them again. In this manner a child of a year old has made a thousand experiments—all which it has properly ranged and distinctly remembers. Light, heat, fire, sweets and bitters, sounds soft or terrible, are all distinguished at the end of a very few months. Besides this, every person the child knows, every individual object it becomes fond of—its rattles or its bells—may be all considered as so many new lessons to the young mind, with which it has not become acquainted without considerable exertions of the understanding. At this period of life the knowledge of every individual object cannot be acquired without the same effort which, when grown up, is employed upon the most abstract idea; everything the child sees or hears—all the marks and characters of Nature—are as much unknown, and require the same attention to attain, as if the reader were set to understand the characters of an *Æthiopic* manuscript; and yet we see in how short a time the little student begins to understand them all, and to give evident marks of early industry.

It is very amusing to pursue the young mind while employed in its first attainments. At about a year old the same necessities that first engaged its faculties increase as its acquaintance with Nature enlarges. Its studies, therefore, if I may use the expression, are no way relaxed; for having experienced what gave pleasure at one time, it desires a repetition of it from the same object; and, in order to obtain this, that object must be pointed out; here, therefore, a new necessity arises, which very often neither its little arts nor importunities can remove—so that the child is at last obliged to set about naming the objects it desires to possess or avoid. In beginning to speak, which is usually about a year old, children find a thousand difficulties. It is not without repeated trials that they come to pronounce any one of the letters, nor without an effort of the memory that they can retain them. For this reason, we frequently see them attempting a sound which they had learned, but forgot; and when they have failed, I have often seen their attempt attended with apparent confusion. The letters soonest learned are those which are most easily formed; thus A and B require an obvious disposition of the organs, and their pronunciation is consequently soon attained. Z and R, which require a more complicated position, are learned with greater difficulty. And this may, perhaps, be the reason why the children in some countries speak sooner than in others; for the letters mostly occurring in the language of one country being such as are of easy pronunciation, that language is of course more easily attained. In this manner the children of the Italians are said to speak sooner than those of the Germans—the language of the one being smooth and open, that of the other crowded with consonants, and extremely guttural.

But be this as it will, in all countries children are found able to express the greatest part of their wants by the time they arrive at two years old; and from the moment the necessity of learning new words ceases they relax their industry. It is then that the mind, like the body, seems every year to make slow advances; and, in order to spur up attention, many systems of education have been contrived.

Almost every philosopher who has written on the education of children has been willing to point out a method

of his own, chiefly professing to advance the health and improve the intellects at the same time. These are usually found to begin with finding nothing right in the common practice, and by urging a total reformation. In consequence of this nothing can be more wild or imaginary than their various systems of improvement. Some will have the children every day plunged in cold water, in order to strengthen their bodies; they will have them converse with the servants in nothing but the Latin language, in order to strengthen their minds; every hour of the day must be appointed for its own studies, and the child must learn to make these very studies an amusement; till about the age of ten or eleven it becomes a prodigy of premature improvement. Quite opposite to this, we have orders whom the courtesy of mankind also calls "philosophers:" and they will have the child learn nothing till the age of ten or eleven, at which the former has attained so much perfection; with them the mind is to be kept empty, until it has a proper distinction of some metaphysical ideas about truth; and the promising pupil is debarred the use of even his own faculties, lest they should conduct him into prejudice and error. In this manner, some men, whom fashion has celebrated for profound and fine thinkers, have given their hazarded and untried conjectures upon one of the most important subjects in the world, and the most interesting to humanity. When men speculate at liberty upon innate ideas, or the abstracted distinctions between will and power, they may be permitted to enjoy their systems at pleasure: they are harmless, although they may be wrong; but when they allege that children are to be every day plunged in cold water, and, whatever be their constitution, indiscriminately inured to cold and moisture—that they are to be kept wet in the feet to prevent their catching cold, and never to be corrected when young for fear of breaking their spirits when old; these are such noxious errors, that all reasonable men should endeavour to oppose them. Many have been the children whom these opinions, begun in speculation, have injured or destroyed in practice; and I have seen many a little philosophical martyr whom I wished, but was unable, to relieve.

If any system, therefore, be necessary, it is one that would serve to show a very plain point—that very little system is necessary. The natural and common course of education is in every respect the best—I mean that in which the child is permitted to play among its little equals, from whose similar instructions it often gains the most useful stores of knowledge. A child is not idle because it is playing about the fields or pursuing a butterfly; it is all this time storing its mind with objects upon the nature, the properties, and the relations of which future curiosity may speculate.

I have ever found it a vain task to try to make a child's learning its amusement; nor do I see what good end it would answer were it actually attained. The child, as was said, ought to have its share of play, and it will be benefited thereby; and for every reason, also, it ought to have its share of labour. The mind by early labour will be thus accustomed to fatigues and subordination; and whatever the person's future employment in life he will be better fitted to endure it: he will be thus enabled to support the drudgeries of office with content, or to fill up the vacancies of life with variety. The child, therefore, should by times be put to its duty, and be taught to know that the task is to be done or the punishment to be endured. I do not object against alluring it to duty by reward; but we well know that the mind will be more strongly stimulated by pain—and both may, upon some occasions, take their turn to operate. In this manner a child, by playing with its equals abroad and labouring with them at school, will acquire more health and knowledge than by being bred up under the wing of any speculative system-maker, and will be thus qualified for a life of activity and obedience. It

is true, indeed, that when educated in this manner the boy may not be so seemingly sensible and forward as one bred up under solitary instruction; and, perhaps, this early forwardness is more engaging than useful. It is well known that many of those children who have been such prodigies of literature before ten have not made an adequate progress to twenty. It would seem that they only began learning manly things before their time; and while others were busied in picking up that knowledge adapted to their age and curiosity, these were forced upon subjects unsuited to their years, and, upon that account alone, appearing extraordinary. The stock of knowledge in both may be equal; but with this difference—that each is yet to learn what the other knows.

But whatever may have been the acquisitions of children at ten or twelve, their greatest and most rapid progress is made when they arrive near the age of puberty. It is then that all the powers of Nature seem at work in strengthening the mind and completing the body. The youth acquires courage, and the virgin modesty; the mind with new sensations assumes new powers—it conceives with greater force, and remembers with great tenacity. About this time, therefore (which is various in different countries), more is learned in one year than in any two of the preceding; and on this age in particular the greatest weight of instruction ought to be thrown.

CHAP. IV.

OF PUBERTY.

It has been often said that the season of youth is the season of pleasures; but this can only be true in savage countries, where but little preparation is made for the perfection of human nature, and where the mind has but a very small part in the enjoyment. It is otherwise in those places where Nature is carried to the highest pitch of refinement, in which this season of the greatest sensual delight is wisely made subservient to the succeeding and more rational one of manhood. Youth with us is but a scene of preparation—a drama, upon the right conduct of which all future happiness is to depend. The youth who follows his appetites too soon seizes the cup before it has received its best ingredients, and, by anticipating his pleasures, robs the remaining parts of life of their share; so that his eagerness only produces a manhood of imbecility and an age of pain.

The time of puberty is different in various countries, and always more late in men than in women. In the warm countries of India the women are marriageable at nine or ten, and the men at twelve or thirteen. It is also different in cities (where the inhabitants lead a more soft, luxurious life) from the country, where they work harder and fare less delicately. Its symptoms are seldom alike in different persons; but it is usually known by a swelling of the breasts in one sex, and a roughness of the voice in the other. At this season, also, the women seem to acquire new beauty; while the men lose all that delicate effeminacy of countenance which they had when boys.

All countries, in proportion as they are civilised or barbarous, improve or degrade the nuptial satisfaction. In those miserable regions where strength makes the only law the stronger sex exerts its power, and becomes the tyrant over the weaker: while the inhabitant of Negroland is indolently taking his pleasure in the fields, his wife is obliged to till the grounds that serve for their mutual support. It is thus in all barbarous countries, where the men throw all the laborious duties upon the women, and, regardless of beauty, put the softer sex to those employments that must effectually destroy it.

But in countries that are half-barbarous, particularly wherever Mahometanism prevails, the men run into the very opposite extreme. Equally brutal with the former, they exert their tyranny over the weaker sex, and consider that half of the human creation as merely made to be subservient to the depraved desires of the other. The chief (and, indeed, the only) aim of an Asiatic is to be possessed of many women; and to be able to furnish a seraglio is the only tendency of his ambition. As the savage is totally regardless of beauty, he on the contrary prizes it too highly: he excludes the person who is possessed of such personal attractions from any share in the duties or employments of life; and, as if willing to engross all beauty to himself, increases the number of his captives in proportion to the progress of his fortune. In this manner he vainly expects to augment his satisfactions, by seeking from many that happiness which he ought to look for in the society of one alone. He lives a gloomy tyrant amidst wretches of his own making; he feels none of those endearments which spring from affection—none of those delicacies which arise from knowledge. His mistresses, being shut out from the world, and totally ignorant of all that passes there, have no arts to entertain his mind or calm his anxieties; the day passes with them in sullen silence or languid repose; appetite can furnish but few opportunities of varying the scene; and all that falls beyond it must be irksome expectation.

From this avarice of women (if I may be allowed to express it so) has proceeded that jealousy and suspicion which ever attends the miser: hence those low and barbarous methods of keeping the women of those countries guarded, and of making and procuring eunuchs to attend them. These unhappy creatures are of two kinds—the white and the black. The white are generally made in the country where they reside, being but partly deprived of the marks of virility; the black are generally brought from the interior parts of Africa, and are made entirely bare. These are chiefly chosen for their deformity; the thicker the lips, the flatter the nose, and the more black the teeth, the more valuable the eunuch—so that the vile jealousy of mankind here inverts the order of Nature, and the poor wretch finds himself valued in proportion to his deficiencies. In Italy—where this barbarous custom is still retained, and eunuchs are made in order to improve the voice—the laws are severely aimed against such practice; so that, being entirely prohibited, none but the poorest and most abandoned of the people still practise it upon their children. Of those served in this manner not one in ten is found to become a singer; but such is the luxurious folly of the times, that the success of one amply compensates for the failure of the rest. It is very difficult to account for the alterations which castration makes in the voice and the other parts of the body. The eunuch is shaped differently from others. His legs are of an equal thickness above and below; his knees weak—his shoulders narrow—and his beard thin and downy. In this manner his person is rendered more deformed; but his desires, as I am told, still continue the same: in Asia, some of them are actually found to have their seraglios as well as their masters. Even in our own country, we have an instance of a very fine woman being married to one of them, whose appearance was the most unpromising; and what is more extraordinary still, I am told that this couple continue perfectly happy in each other's society.

The mere necessities of life seem the only aim of the savage—the sensual pleasures are the only study of the semi-barbarian; but the refinement of sensuality by reason is the boast of real politeness. Among the merely barbarous nations, such as the natives of Madagascar or the inhabitants of Congou, nothing is desired so ardently as to prostitute their wives or daughters to strangers for the most trifling advantages: they would account it a dishonour not to be among the foremost

who are thus received into favour. On the other hand, the Mahometan keeps his wife faithful by confining her person, and would instantly put her to death if he but suspected her chastity. With the politer inhabitants of Europe both these barbarous extremes are avoided; the woman's person is left free, and no constraint is imposed but upon her affections. The passion of love—which may be considered as the nice conduct of ruder desire—is only known and practised in this part of the world; so that what other nations guard as their right the more delicate European is contented to ask as a favour. In this manner, the concurrence of mental appetite contributes to increase mutual satisfaction; and the power on one side of refusing makes every blessing more grateful when obtained by the other. In barbarous countries woman is considered merely as an useful slave; in such as are somewhat more refined she is regarded as a desirable toy; in countries entirely polished she enjoys juster privileges—the wife being considered as an useful friend and an agreeable mistress. Her mind is still more prized than her person; and without the improvement of both she can never expect to become truly agreeable—for her good sense alone can preserve what she has gained by her beauty.

Female beauty, as was said, is always seen to improve about the age of puberty; but if we should attempt to define in what this beauty consists, or what constitutes its perfection, we should find nothing more difficult to determine. Every country has its peculiar way of thinking in this respect; and even the same country thinks differently at different times. The ancients had a very different taste from what prevails at present. The eye-brows joining in the middle was considered as a peculiar grace by Tibullus, in the enumeration of the charms of his mistress. Narrow foreheads were approved of; and scarce any of the Roman ladies that are celebrated for their other perfections but are also praised for the redness of their hair. The nose, also, of the Grecian Venus was such as would appear at present an actual deformity—as it fell in a straight line from the forehead without the smallest sinking between the eyes, without which we never see a face at present.

Among the moderns, every country seems to have a peculiar idea of beauty. The Persians admire large eye-brows, joining in the middle; the edges and corners of the eyes are tintured with black, and the size of the head is increased by a great variety of bandages formed into a turban. In some parts of India black teeth and white hair are desired with ardour; and one of the principal employments of the women of Thibet is to redden the teeth with herbs, and to make their hair white by a certain preparation. The passion for coloured teeth also obtains in China and Japan—where, to complete their idea of beauty, the object of desire must have little eyes, nearly closed, feet extremely small, and a waist far from being shapely. There are some nations of the American Indians that flatten the heads of their children, by keeping them while young squeezed between two boards, so as to make the visage much larger than it would naturally be. Others flatten the head at the top; and others still make it as round as they possibly can. The inhabitants along the western coasts of Africa have a very extraordinary taste for beauty—a flat nose, thick lips, and a jet-black complexion, are there the most indulgent gifts of Nature; such, indeed, they are all in some degree found to possess. However, they take care by art to increase these natural deformities, as they seem to us; and they have many additional methods of rendering their persons still more frightfully-pleasing. The whole body and visage is often scarred with a variety of monstrous figures, which is not done without great pain and repeated incisions—sometimes even parts of the body being cut away. But it would be endless to remark the various arts which caprice or custom has employed to distort and disfigure the body in order to render it more

pleasing; in fact, every nation, how barbarous soever, seems unsatisfied with the human figure as Nature has left it, and has its peculiar arts of heightening beauty. Painting, powdering, and cutting, boring the nose and the ears (lengthening the one and depressing the other), are arts practised in many countries—and in some degree admired in all. These arts might have been at first introduced to hide epidemic deformities; custom by degrees reconciles them to the view, till, from looking upon them with indifference, the eye at length begins to gaze with pleasure.

CHAP. V.

OF THE AGE OF MANHOOD.

The human body attains to its full height during the age of puberty—or at least a short time after. Some young people are found to cease growing at fourteen or fifteen; others continue their growth till two or three and twenty. During this period they are all of a slender make—their thighs and legs small, and the muscular parts as yet unfilled; but by degrees the fleshy fibres augment—the muscles swell, and assume their figure—the limbs become proportioned and rounder—and before the age of thirty the body in man has assumed the most perfect symmetry. In women the body arrives at perfection much sooner, as they arrive at the age of maturity more early; the muscles and all the other parts being weaker and less compact and solid than those of man, they require less time in coming to perfection; and as they are less in size, that size is sooner completed. Hence the persons of women are found to be as complete at twenty as those of men are found to be at thirty.

The body of a well-shaped man ought to be square; the muscles should be expressed with boldness, and the lines of the face strongly marked. In the woman, all the limbs should be rounder, the lines softer, and the features more delicate. Strength and majesty belong to the man; grace and softness are the peculiar embellishments of the other sex. In both, every part of their form declares their sovereignty over other creatures. Man supports his body erect; his attitude is that of command; and his face, which is turned towards the heavens, displays the dignity of his station. The image of his soul is painted in his visage; and the excellence of his nature penetrates through the material form in which it is enclosed. His majestic port, his sedate and resolute step, announce the nobleness of his rank. He touches the earth only with his extremity, and beholds it as if at a disdainful distance. His arms are not given him, as to other creatures, for pillars of support; nor does he lose, by rendering them callous against the ground, that delicacy of touch which furnishes him with so many of his enjoyments. His hands are made for very different purposes—to second every intention of his will, and to perfect the gifts of Nature.

When the soul is at rest, all the features of the visage seem settled in a state of profound tranquillity. Their proportion, their union, and their harmony seem to mark the sweet serenity of the mind, and give a true information of what passes within; but when the soul is excited the human visage becomes a living picture, where the passions are expressed with as much delicacy as energy—where every motion is designed by some correspondent feature—where every impression anticipates the will, and betrays those hidden agitations that he would often wish to conceal.

It is particularly in the eyes that the passions are painted, and in which we may most readily discover their beginning. The eye seems to belong to the soul more than any other organ; it seems to participate in all its motions, as well the most soft and tender as

the most tumultuous and forceful. It not only receives but transmits them by sympathy; the observing eye of one catches the secret fire from another, and the passion thus often becomes general.

Such persons as are short-sighted labour under a particular disadvantage in this respect. They are, in a manner, entirely cut off from the language of the eyes; and this gives an air of stupidity to the face which often produces very unfavourable prepossessions. However, intelligent we find such persons to be, we can scarcely be brought back from our first prejudice, and often continue in the first erroneous opinion. In this manner we are too much induced to judge of men by their physiognomy; and having, perhaps, at first caught up our judgments prematurely, they mechanically influence us all our lives after. This extends even to the very colour or the cut of people's clothes; and we should for this reason be careful even in such trifling particulars, since they go to make up a part of the total judgment which those we converse with may form to our advantage.

The vivacity or the languid motion of the eyes gives the strongest marks to physiognomy; and their colour contributes still more to enforce the expression. The different colours of the eye are the dark hazle, the light hazle, the green, the blue and grey, the whitish grey, and also the red. These different colours arise from the colours of the little muscles that serve to contract the pupil; and they are very often found to change colour with disorder, and with age.

The most ordinary colours are the hazle and the blue, and very often both these colours are found in the eyes of the same person. Those eyes which are called black are only of the dark hazle, which may be easily seen upon closer inspection; however, those eyes are reckoned the most beautiful where the shade is the deepest: and either in these or the blue eyes, the fire, which gives its finest expression to the eye, is more distinguishable in proportion to the darkness of the tint. For this reason, the black eyes, as they are called, have the greatest vivacity; but, probably, the blue have the most powerful effect in beauty, as they reflect a greater variety of lights, being composed of more various colours.

This variety which is found in the colour of the eyes is peculiar to man, and one or two other kinds of animals; but in general the colour in any one individual is the same in all the rest. The eyes of oxen are brown; those of sheep of a water colour; those of goats are grey; and it may also be in general remarked, that the eyes of most white animals are red; thus the rabbit, the ferret—and, even in the human race, the white Moor—all have their eyes of a red colour.

Although the eye when put into motion seems to be drawn on one side, yet it only moves round its centre; by which its coloured parts move nearer or farther from the angle of the eye-lids, or are elevated or depressed. The distance between the eyes is less in man than in any other animal; and in some of them it is so great that it is impossible that they should ever view the same object with both eyes at once, unless it be very far off. This, however, in them is rather an advantage than an inconvenience; as they are thus able to watch round them, and guard against the dangers of their precarious situation.

Next to the eyes, the features which most give a character to the face are the eye-brows—which being in some measure more apparent than the other features, are most readily distinguished at a distance. Le Brun, in giving a painter directions with regard to the passions, places the principal expression of the face in the eye-brows. From their elevation and depression, most of the furious passions are characterized; and such as have this feature extremely moveable are usually known to have an expressive face. By means of these we can imitate all the other passions, as they are raised and depressed, at command; the rest of the features are generally fixed, or,

when put into motion, they do not obey the will; the mouth and eyes in an actor, for instance, may, by being violently distorted, give a very different expression from what he would intend; but the eye-brows can scarcely be exerted improperly; their being raised denotes all those passions which pride or pleasure inspire; and their depression marks those which are the effects of contemplation and pain; and such who have this feature most at command are therefore often found to excel as actors.

The eye-lashes have an effect in giving expression to the eye, particularly when long and close; they soften its glances and improve its sweetness. Man and apes are the only animals that have eye-lashes both upon the upper and lower lids; all other animals want them on the lid below.

The eye-lids serve to guard the ball of the eye, and to furnish it with a proper moisture. The upper lid rises and falls; the lower has scarce any motion; and although their being moved depends on the will, yet it often happens that the will is unable to keep them open when sleep or fatigue oppresses the mind. In birds and amphibious quadrupeds the lower lid alone has motion; fishes and insects have no eye-lids whatever.

The forehead forms a large part of the face, and a part which chiefly contributes to its beauty. It ought to be justly proportioned—neither too round nor too flat, too narrow nor too low; and the hair should come thick and abundantly upon its extremities. It is known to everyone how much the hair tends to improve the face, and how much the being bald serves to take away from beauty. The highest part of the head is that which becomes bald the soonest, as well as that part which lies immediately above the temples. The hair under the temples and at the back of the head is seldom known to fall; and women are less apt to become bald than men. Mr. Buffon seems to think they never become bald at all; but we have too many instances of the contrary among us not to easily contradict the assertion. Of all parts or appendages of the body, the hair is that which is found to differ most in different climates; and often not only contributes to mark the country, but also the disposition, of the man. It is in general thickest where the constitution is strongest; and more glossy and beautiful where the health is most permanent. The ancients held the hair to be a sort of excrement produced like the nails—the part next the root pushing out that immediately contiguous. But the moderns have found that every hair may be truly said to live, to receive nutriment, and to fill and distend itself like the other parts of the body. The roots, they observe, do not turn grey sooner than the extremities, but the whole hair changes colour at once; and we have many instances of persons who have grown grey in one night's time. Each hair, if viewed with a microscope, is found to consist of five or six lesser ones, all wrapped up in one common covering; it appears knotted, like some sorts of grass, and sends forth branches at the joints. It is bulbous at the root, by which it imbibes its moisture from the body, and it is split at the points—so that a single hair at its end resembles a brush. Whatever be the size or the shape of the pore through which the hair issues, it accommodates itself to the same—being either quick as they are large, small as they are less, or round, triangular, and variously formed as the pores happen to be various. The hair takes its colour from the juices flowing through it; and it is found that this colour differs in different tribes and races of people. The Americans and the Asiatics have their hair black, thick, straight, and shining; the inhabitants of the torrid climates of Africa have it black, short, and woolly; the people of Scandinavia have it red, long, and curled; and those of our own and the neighbouring countries are found with hair of various colours. However, it is supposed by many that every man resembles in his disposition the

inhabitants of those countries whom he resembles in the colour and the nature of his hair; so that the black are said, like the Asiatics, to be grave and acute—the red, like the Gothic nations, to be choleric and bold. However this may be, the length and strength of the hair is a general mark of a good constitution; and as that hair which is strongest is most commonly curled, so curled hair is generally accounted among us a token of beauty. The Greeks, however, had a very different idea of beauty in this respect, and seem to have taken one of their peculiar national distinctions from the length and straightness of the hair.

The nose is the most prominent feature in the face; but as it has scarce any motion, and that only in the strongest passions, it rather adds to the beauty than to the expression of the countenance. However, I am told by the skilful in this branch of knowledge that wide nostrils add a great deal to the bold and resolute air of the countenance; and where they are narrow, though it may constitute beauty, it seldom improves expression. The form of the nose and its advanced position are peculiar to the human visage alone. Other animals for the most part have nostrils with a partition between them; but none have an elevated nose. Apes themselves have scarce anything else of this feature but the nostrils—the rest of the feature lying flat upon the visage, and scarce higher than the cheek-bones. Among all the tribes of savage men, also, the nose is very flat; and I have seen a Tartar who had scarce anything else but two holes through which to breathe.

The mouth and lips, next to the eyes, are found to have the greatest expression. The passions have great power over this part of the face; and the mouth marks its different degrees by its different forms. The organ of speech still more animates this part, and gives it more life than any other feature in the countenance. The ruby colour of the lips, and the white enamel of the teeth, give it such a superiority over every other feature that it seems to make the principal object of our regard. In fact, the whole attention is fixed upon the lips of the speaker; however rapid his discourse—however various the subject, the mouth takes correspondent situations; and deaf men have been often found to see the force of those reasonings which they could not hear, understanding every word as it was spoken.

The under jaw in man possesses a greater variety of motions; while the upper has been thought by many to be quite immoveable. However, that it moves in man, a very easy experiment will suffice to convince us. If we keep the head fixed with anything between our teeth, the edge of a table for instance, and then open our mouths, we shall find that both jaws recede from it at the same time; the upper jaw rises and the lower falls, and the table remains untouched between them. The upper jaw has motion as well as the under; and, what is remarkable, it has its proper muscles behind the head for thus raising and depressing it. Whenever, therefore, we eat, both jaws move at the same time, though very unequally; for the whole head moving with the upper jaw, of which it makes a part, its motions are thus less observable. In the human embryo the under jaw is very much advanced before the upper. In the adult it hangs a good deal more backward; and those whose upper and under row of teeth are equally prominent, and strike directly against each other, are what the painters call under-bung; and they consider this as a great defect in beauty. The under jaw in a Chinese face falls much more backward than with us; I am told the difference is half an inch when the mouth is shut naturally. In instances of the most violent passion the under jaw has often an involuntary quivering motion; often, also, a state of languor produces another, which is that of yawning. Everyone knows how very sympathetic this kind of languid motion is; and that for one person to yawn is sufficient to set all the rest of the

company a yawning. A ridiculous instance of this was commonly practised upon the famous M'Laurin, one of the professors at Edinburgh. He was very subject to have his jaw dislocated; so that when he opened his mouth wider than ordinary, or when he yawned, he could not shut it again. In the midst of his harangues, therefore, if any of his pupils began to be tired of his lecture, he had only to gape or yawn, and the professor instantly caught the sympathetic affection; so that he thus continued to stand speechless, with his mouth wide open, till his servant from the next room was called in to set his jaw again.

When the mind reflects with regret upon some good unattained, or lost it feels an internal emotion, which, acting upon the diaphragm, and that upon the lungs, produces a sigh; this, when the mind is strongly affected, is repeated; sorrow succeeds these first emotions; and tears are often seen to follow: sobbing is the sigh still more invigorated; and lamentation or crying proceeds from the continuance of the plaintive tone of the voice, which seems to implore pity. There is yet a silent agony in which the mind appears to disdain all external help, and broods over its distresses with gloomy reserve. This is the most dangerous state of mind; accidents or friendship may lessen the louder kinds of grief; but all remedies for this must be had from within: and there, despair, too, often finds the most deadly enemy.

Laughter is a sound of the voice interrupted and pursued for some continuance. The muscles of the belly and the diaphragm are employed in its slightest exertions, but those of the ribs are strongly agitated in the louder; and the head sometimes is thrown backward in order to raise them with greater ease. The smile is often an indication of kindness and good will; it is also often used as a mark of contempt and ridicule.

Blushing proceeds from different passions, being produced by shame, anger, pride, and joy. Paleness is often also the effect of anger, and almost ever attendant on fright and fear. These alterations in the colour of the countenance are entirely involuntary; all the other expressions of the passions are in some small degree under control; but blushing and paleness betray our secret purposes; and we might as well attempt to stop them as the circulation of the blood by which they are caused.

The whole head, as well as the features of the face, takes peculiar attitudes from its passions: it bends forward to express humility, shame, or sorrow; it is turned to one side in languor or in pity; it is thrown with the chin forward in arrogance and pride; erect in self-conceit and obstinacy; it is thrown backwards in astonishment; and combines its motions to the one side and the other to express contempt, ridicule, anger, and resentment. Painters, whose study leads to the contemplation of external forms, are much more adequate judges of these than any naturalist can be; and it is with these a general remark, that no one passion is regularly expressed on different countenances in the same manner; that grief often sits upon the face like joy; and pride assumes the air of passion. It would be vain, therefore, in words to express their general effect, since they are often as various as the countenances they sit upon; and in making this distinction nicely lies all the skill of the physiognomist. It being able to distinguish what parts of the face is marked by Nature, and what by the mind—what part has been originally formed and what made by habit, constitutes this science; upon which the ancients so much valued themselves, and which we at present so little regard. Some, however, of the most acute men among us have paid great attention to this art; and by long practice have been able to give some character of every person whose face they examined. Montaigne is well known to have disliked those men who shut one eye in looking upon any object; and Fielding asserts, that he never knew a person with a steady glowering smile but he found him a rogue. However, most of these

observations, tending to a discovery of the mind by the face, are merely capricious, and Nature has kindly hidden our hearts from each other to keep us in good humour with our fellow-creatures.

The parts of the head which give the least expression to the face are the ears; and they are generally found hidden under the hair. These, which are immoveable, and make so small an appearance in man, are very distinguishing features in quadrupeds. They serve in them as the principal marks of the passion; the ears discover their joys or their terrors with tolerable precision, and denote all their internal agitations. The smallest ears in men are said to be the most beautiful; but the largest are found to be the best for hearing. There are some savage nations who bore their ears, and so draw that part down, that the tips of the ears are seen to rest upon their shoulders.

The strange variety in the different customs of men appears still more extravagant in their manner of wearing their beards. Some, and among others the Turks, cut the hair off their heads and let their beards grow. The Europeans, on the contrary, shave their beards and wear their hair. The Negroes shave their heads in figures at one time, in stars at another, in the manner of friars; and still more commonly in alternate stripes; and their little boys are shaved in the same manner. The Talapoins of Siam shave the heads and eye-brows of such children as are committed to their care. Every nation seems to have entertained different prejudices at different times in favour of one part or another of the beard. Some have admired the hair upon the cheeks on each side, as we see with some low-bred men among ourselves who want to be fine. Some like the hair lower down; some choose it curled; and others like it straight. Some have cut it into a peak; and others shave all but the whisker. This particular part of the beard was highly prized among the Spaniards; till of late a man without whiskers was considered as unfit for company; and where Nature had denied them, Art took care to supply the deficiency. We are told of a Spanish general who, when he borrowed a large sum of money from the Venetians, pawned his whisker, which he afterwards took proper care to release. Kingdon assures us that a considerable part of the religion of the Tartars consists in the management of their whiskers; that they waged a long and bloody war with the Persians, declaring them infidels, merely because they would not give their whiskers the orthodox cut. The kings of Persia carried the care of their beards to a ridiculous excess when they chose to wear them matted with gold-thread; and even the kings of France of the first races had them knotted and buttoned with gold. But of all nations, the Americans take the greatest pains in cutting their hair and plucking their beards. The under part of the beard and all but the whisker they take care to pluck up by the roots; so that many have supposed them to have no hair naturally growing on that part; and even Linnæus has fallen into that mistake. Their hair is also cut into bands, and no small care employed in adjusting the whisker. In fact, we have a very wrong idea of savage finery, and are apt to suppose that, like the beasts of the forest, they rise and are dressed with a shake; but the reverse is true—for no birth-night beauty takes more time or pains in adorning her person than they. When the Cherokee kings were over here, I remember having to wait three hours during the time they were dressing. They never would venture to make their appearance till they had gone through the tedious ceremonies of the toilet; they had their boxes of oil or ochre, their fat and their perfumes, like the most effeminate beau, and generally took up four hours in dressing before they considered themselves as fit to be seen. We must not, therefore, consider a delicacy in point of dress as a mark of refinement, since savages are much more difficult in this particular than the most fashionable or tawdry European.

The more barbarous the people the fonder of finery. In Europe, the lustre of jewels and the splendour of the most brilliant colours are generally given up to women, or to the weakest part of the other sex who are willing to be contemptibly fine; but in Asia these trifling fineries are eagerly sought after by every condition of men; and, as the proverb has it, we find the richest jewels in an *Ethiop's* ear. The passion for glittering ornaments is still stronger among the absolute barbarians, who often exchange their whole stock of provisions, and whatever else they happen to be possessed of, with our seamen for a glass bead or a looking-glass.

Although fashions have arisen in different countries from fancy and caprice, these when they become general deserve examination. Mankind have always considered it is a matter of moment; and they will ever continue desirous of drawing the attention of each other by such ornaments as mark the riches, the power, or the courage of the wearer. The value of these shining stones, which have at all times been considered as precious ornaments, is entirely founded upon their scarceness or their brilliancy. It is the same, likewise, with respect to those shining metals the weight of which is so little regarded when spread over our clothes. These ornaments are rather designed to draw the attention of others than to add to any enjoyments of our own; and few there are that these ornaments will not serve to dazzle, and who can coolly distinguish between the metal and the man.

All things rare and brilliant will therefore ever continue to be fashionable while men derive greater advantage from opulence than virtue—while the means of appearing considerable are more easily acquired than the title to be considered. The first impression we generally make arises from our dress; and this varies in conformity to our inclinations and the manner in which we desire to be considered. The modest man, or he who would wish to be thought so, desires to show the simplicity of his mind by the plainness of his dress; the vain man, on the contrary, takes a pleasure in displaying his superiority, and is willing to incur the spectator's dislike so he but excite his attention.

Another point of view which men have in dressing is to increase the size of their figure, and to take up more room in the world than Nature seems to have allotted them. We desire to swell out our clothes by the stiffness of art, and raise our heels while we add to the largeness of our heads. How bulky soever our dress may be, our vanities are still more bulky. The largeness of the doctor's wig arises from the same pride with the smallness of the beau's queue: both want to have the size of their understanding measured by the size of their heads.

There are some modes that seem to have a more reasonable origin, which is to hide or lessen the defects of Nature. To take men altogether, there are many more deformed and plain than beautiful and shapely. The former, as being the most numerous, give law to fashion; and their laws are generally such as are made in their own favour. The women begin to colour their cheeks with red when the natural roses are faded; and the younger are obliged to submit, though not compelled by the same necessity. In all parts of the world this custom prevails more or less; and powdering and frizzing the hair, though not so general, seem to have arisen from a similar control.

But leaving the draperies of the human picture, let us return to the figure unadorned by Art. Man's head, whether considered externally or internally, is differently formed from that of all other animals—the monkey-kind only excepted, in which there is a striking similitude. There are some differences, however, which we shall take notice of in another place. The bodies of all quadruped animals are covered with hair; but the head of man seems the part most adorned, and that more abundantly than in any other animal.

There is a very great variety in the teeth of animals: some have them above and below; others have them in the under jaw only: in some they stand separate from each other; while in some they are continued and united. The palate of some fishes is nothing else but a bony plate studded with points, which perform the offices of teeth. All these substances in every animal derive their origin from the nerves; the substance of the nerves hardens by being exposed to the air; and the nerves that terminate in the mouth being thus exposed acquire a bony solidity. In this manner the teeth and nails are formed in man; and in this manner, also, the beak, the hoofs, the horns, and the talons of other animals are found to be produced.

The neck supports the head and unites it to the body. This part is much more considerable in the generality of quadrupeds than in man. But fishes and other animals that want lungs similar to ours have no neck whatsoever. Birds in general have the neck longer than any other kind of animals: those of them which have short claws have also short necks; those, on the contrary, that have them long are found to have the neck in proportion. In men, there is a lump upon the wind-pipe, formed by the thyroid cartilage, which is not to be seen in women; an Arabian fable says that this is a part of the original apple, which has stuck in the man's throat by the way, but that the woman swallowed her part of it down.

The human breast is outwardly formed in a very different manner from that of other animals. It is larger in proportion to the size of the body; and none but man, and such animals as make use of their fore-feet as hands—such as monkeys, bats, and squirrels—are found to have those bones called the "claviclea," or, as we usually term them, the "collar-bones." The breasts in women are larger than in men; however, they seem formed in the same manner; and sometimes milk is found in the breasts of man as well as in those of women. Among animals there is a great variety in this part of the body. The teats of some, as in the ape and the elephant, are like those of men, being but two, and placed on each side of the breast. The teats of the bear amount to four. The sheep has but two, placed between the hinder legs. Other animals, such as the bitch and the sow, have them all along the belly; and, as they produce many young, they have a great many teats for their support. The form, also, of the teats varies in different animals; and in the same animal at different ages. The bosom in females seems to unite all our ideas of beauty, where the outline is continually changing, and the gradations are soft and regular.

The graceful fall of the shoulders, both in man and woman, constitute no small part of beauty. In apes, though otherwise made like us, the shoulders are high, and drawn up on each side towards the ears. In man they fall by a gentle declivity; and the more so in proportion to the beauty of his form. In fact, being high-shouldered is not without reason considered as a deformity, for we find very sickly persons are always so; and people when dying are ever seen with their shoulders drawn up in a surprising manner. The muscles that serve to raise the ribs mostly rise near the shoulders; and the higher we raise the shoulders we the more easily raise the ribs likewise. It happens, therefore, in the sickly and the dying, who do not breathe without labour, that to raise the ribs they are obliged to call in the assistance of the shoulders; and thus their bodies assume from habit that from which they are so frequently obliged to assume. Women with child, also, are usually seen to be high-shouldered; for the weight of the inferior parts drawing down the ribs, they are obliged to use every effort to elevate them, and thus they raise the shoulders of course. During pregnancy, also, the shape, not only of the shoulders but also of the breast, and even the features of the face, are greatly altered; for the whole upper fore-part of the body is covered with a broad thin skin, called the *myoides*;

which being at that time drawn down, it also draws down with it the skin, and, consequently, the features of the face. By these means the visage takes a particular form; the lower eye-lids and the corners of the mouth are drawn downwards; so that the eyes are enlarged and the mouth lengthened; and women in these circumstances are said by the midwives to be "all mouth and eyes."

The arms of men but very little resemble the fore-feet of quadrupeds, and much less the wings of birds. The ape is the only animal that is possessed of hands and arms; but these are much more rudely fashioned, and with less exact proportion, than in men—the thumb not being so well opposed to the rest of the fingers in their hands as in ours.

The form of the back is not much different in man from that of other quadrupeds, only that the reins are muscular in him, and stronger. The buttock, however, in man is different from that of all other animals whatsoever. What goes by that name in other creatures is only the upper part of the thigh; man being the only animal that supports himself perfectly erect, the largeness of this part is owing to this peculiarity of his position.

Man's feet, also, are different from those of all other animals, those even of apes not excepted. The foot of the ape is rather a kind of awkward hand; its toes, or rather fingers, are long, and that of the middle longest of all. This foot also wants the heel, as in man; the sole is narrower, and less adapted to maintain the equilibrium of the body in walking, dancing, or running.

The nails are less in man than in any other animals: if they were longer than the extremities of the fingers they would rather be prejudicial than serviceable, and obstruct the management of the hand. Such savages as let them grow long make use of them in fleecing animals, in tearing their flesh, and such like purposes; however, though their nails are considerably larger than ours, they are by no means to be compared to the hoofs or the claws of other animals. They may sometimes be seen longer, indeed, than the claws of any animal whatsoever; as we learn that the nails of some of the learned men in China are longer than their fingers. But these want that solidity which might give force to their exertions; and could never, in a state of nature, have served them for annoyance or defence.

There is little known exactly with regard to the proportion of the human figure; and the beauty of the best statues is better conceived by observing than by measuring them. The statues of antiquity, which were at first copied after the human form, are now become the models of it; nor is there one man found whose person approaches to those inimitable performances that have thus in one figure united the perfections of many. It is sufficient to say, that, from being at first models, they are now become originals; and are used to correct the deviations in that form from whence they were taken. I will not, however, pretend to give the proportions of the human body as taken from these, there being nothing more arbitrary, and which good painters themselves so much condemn. Some, for instance, who have studied after these, divide the body into ten times the length of the face, and others into eight. Some pretend to tell us that there is a similitude of proportion in different parts of the body. Thus, that the hand is the length of the face; the thumb the length of the nose; the space between the eyes is the breadth of an eye; that the breadth of the thigh at the thickest part is double that of the thickest part of the leg, and treble the smallest; that the arms extended are as long as the figure is high; that the legs and thighs are half the length of the figure. All this, however, is extremely arbitrary; and the excellence of a shape or the beauty of a statue results from the attitude and position of the whole, rather than any established measurements, begun without experience

and adopted by caprice. In general it may be remarked that the proportions alter in every age, and are obviously different in the two sexes. In woman the shoulders are narrower, and the neck proportionably longer than in men. These proportions, however, vary greatly at different ages. In infancy the upper parts of the body are much larger than the lower; the legs and thighs do not constitute anything like half the height of the whole figure; in proportion as the child increases in age the inferior parts are found to lengthen—so that the body is not equally divided until it has acquired its full growth.

The size of men varies considerably. Men are said to be tall who are from five feet eight inches to six feet high. The middle stature is from five feet five to five feet eight; and those are said to be of small stature who fall under these measures. However, it ought to be remarked that the same person is always taller in the morning than upon going to bed at night; sometimes there is more than an inch difference. Few persons are sensible of this remarkable variation; and I am told it was first perceived in England by a recruiting-officer. He often found that those men whom he had enlisted for soldiers, and answered to the appointed standard at one time, fell short of it when they came to be measured before the colonel at head-quarters. This diminution in their size proceeded from the different times of the day and the different states of the body when they happened to be measured. If, as was said, they were measured in the morning after the night's refreshment, they were found to be commonly half an inch, and very often a whole inch, taller than if measured after the fatigues of the day; if they were measured when fresh in the country, and before a long fatiguing march to the regiment, they were found to be an inch taller than when they arrived at their journey's end. All this is now well known among those who recruit for the army; and the reason of this difference of stature is obvious. Between all the joints of the back-bone, which is composed of several pieces, there is a glutinous liquor deposited, which serves, like oil in a machine, to give the parts an easy play upon each other. This lubricating liquor, or synovia, as the anatomists call it, is poured in during the season of repose, and is consumed by exercise and employment; so that in a body after hard labour there is scarce any of it remaining—all the joints growing stiff, and their motion becomes hard and painful. It is from hence, therefore, that the body diminishes in stature; for this moisture being drained away from between the numerous joints of the back bone, they lie closer upon each other, and their whole length is thus sensibly diminished; but sleep, by restoring the fluid, again swells the spaces between the joints, and the whole is extended to its former dimensions.

As the human body is thus often found to differ from itself in size, so it is found to differ in its weight also; and the same person, without any apparent cause, is found to be heavier at one time than another. If, after having eaten a hearty dinner, or having drank hard, the person should find himself thus heavier, it would appear no way extraordinary; but the fact is, the body is very often found heavier some hours after eating a hearty meal than immediately succeeding it. If, for instance, a person fatigued by a hard day's labour should eat a plentiful supper, and then get himself weighed upon going to bed, after sleeping soundly, if he is again weighed, he will find himself considerably heavier than before; and this difference is often found to amount to a pound, or sometimes to a pound and a half. From whence this adventitious weight is derived is not easy to conceive; the body during the whole night appears rather plentifully perspiring than imbibing any fluid—rather losing than gaining moisture; however, we have no reason to doubt but that, either by the lungs or, perhaps, by a peculiar set of pores, it is all this time inhal-

ing a quantity of fluid, which thus increases the weight of the whole body upon being weighed the following morning.

Although the human body is externally more delicate than any of the quadruped kind, it is, notwithstanding, extremely muscular, and, perhaps, for its size stronger than that of any other animal. If we should offer to compare the strength of the lion with that of man, we should consider that the claws of this animal give us a false idea of its power; we ascribe to its force what is only the effects of its arms. Those which man has received from Nature are not offensive; happy had Art never furnished him with any more terrible than those which arm the paws of the lion.

But there is another manner of comparing the strength of man with that of other animals; namely, by the weights which either can carry. We are assured that the porters of Constantinople carry burdens of nine hundred pounds weight. Mr. Desaguliers tells us of a man, who, by distributing weights in such a manner as that every part of his body bore its share, he was thus able to raise a weight of two thousand pounds. A horse, which is about seven times our bulk, would be thus able to raise a weight of fourteen thousand pounds, if its strength were in the same proportion to its size. But the truth is, a horse will not carry upon its back more than a weight of two or three hundred pounds; while a man of confessedly inferior strength is thus able to support two thousand. Whence comes this seeming superiority? The answer is obvious. Because the load upon a man's shoulders is placed to the greatest advantage; while, upon the horse's back, it is placed at the greatest disadvantage. Let us suppose, for a moment, the man standing as upright as possible under the great load above mentioned. It is obvious that all the bones of his body may be compared to a pillar supporting a building, and that his muscles have scarce any share in this dangerous duty. However, they are not entirely inactive; as man, let him stand never so upright, will have some bending in the different parts of his body. The muscles, therefore, give the bones some assistance, and that with the greatest possible advantage. In this manner, a man has been found to support two thousand pounds weight; but may be capable of supporting a still greater. The manner in which this is done is by strapping the load round the shoulders of the person who is to bear it by a machine something like that by which milk-vessels or water-buckets are carried. The load being thus placed on a scaffold on each side, contrived for that purpose, and the man standing erect in the midst, all parts of the scaffold except where the man stands are made to sink; and thus the man maintaining his position, the load, whatever it is, becomes suspended, and the column of his bones may be fairly said to support it. If, however, he should but ever so little give way, he must inevitably drop; and no power of his can raise the weights again. But the case is very different with regard to a load laid upon a horse. The column of the bones there lies a different way; and a weight of five hundred pounds, as I am told, would break the back of the strongest horse that could be found. The great force of a horse and other quadrupeds is exerted when the load is in such a position as that the column of the bones can be properly applied, which is lengthwise. When, therefore, we are to estimate the comparative strength of a horse, we are not to try what he can carry but what he can draw; and, in this case, his amazing superiority over man is easily discerned; for one horse can draw a load that ten men cannot move. And in some cases it happens that a draught-horse draws the better for being somewhat loaded; for, as the peasants say, the load upon the back keeps him the better to the ground.

There is still another way of estimating human strength by the perseverance and agility of our motions. Men

who are exercised in running outstrip horses—or, at least, hold their speed for a longer continuance. In a journey, also, a man will walk down a horse; and, after they have both continued to proceed for several days, the horse will be quite tired, and the man will be fresher than in the beginning. The king's messengers of Ispahan, who are runners by profession, go thirty-six leagues in fourteen hours. Travellers assure us that the Hottentots outstrip lions in the chase; and that the savages who hunt the elk pursue with such speed, that they at last tire down and take it. We are told many very surprising things of the great swiftness of the savages, and of the long journeys they undertake on foot through the most craggy mountains, where there are no paths to direct nor houses to entertain them. They are said to perform a journey of twelve hundred leagues in less than six weeks. But notwithstanding what travellers report of this matter, I have been assured from many of our officers and soldiers, who compared their own swiftness with that of the native Americans during the last war, that although the savages held out, and, as the phrase is, had better bottoms, yet, for a spurt, the Englishmen were more nimble and speedy.

Nevertheless, in general civilized man is ignorant of his own powers; he is ignorant how much he loses by effeminacy, and what might be acquired by habit and exercise. Here and there, indeed, men are found among us of extraordinary strength; but that strength, for want of opportunity, is seldom called into exertion. Among the ancients it was a quality of much greater use than at present; as in war the same man that had strength sufficient to carry the heaviest armour had strength sufficient also to strike the most fatal blow. In this case his strength was at once his protection and his power. We ought not to be surprised, therefore, when we hear of one man terrible to an army and irresistible in his career, as we find some generals represented in ancient history. But we may be very certain that this prowess was exaggerated by flattery and exalted by terror. An age of ignorance is ever an age of wonder. At such times, mankind, having no just ideas of the human powers, are willing rather to represent what they wish than what they know, and exalt human strength to fill up the whole sphere of their limited conceptions. Great strength is an accidental thing; two or three in a country may possess it, and may have a claim to heroism. But what may lead us to doubt of the veracity of these accounts is, that the heroes of antiquity are represented as the sons of heroes; their amazing strength is delivered down from father to son; and this we know to be contrary to the course of Nature. Strength is not hereditary, although titles are; and I am induced to believe that this great tribe of heroes, who were all represented as the descendants of heroes, are more obligated to their titles than to their strength for their characters. With regard to the shining characters in Homer, they are all represented as princes and as the sons of princes; while we are told of scarce any share of prowess in the meaner men of the army, who are only brought into the field for these to protect or to slaughter. But nothing can be more unlikely than that those men, who were bred in the luxury of courts, should be strong; while the whole body of the people, who received a plainer and more simple education, should be comparatively weak. Nothing can be more contrary to the general laws of Nature than that all the sons of heroes should thus inherit not only the kingdoms, but the strength, of their forefathers; and we may conclude that they owe the greatest share of their imputed strength rather to the dignity of their stations than the force of their arms; and, like all fortunate princes, their flatterers happened to be believed. In later ages, indeed, we have some accounts of amazing strength which we can have no reason to doubt of; but in these, Nature is found to pursue her ordinary course—and we find their strength

accidental. We find these strong men among the lowest of the people, and gradually rising into notice as this superiority had opportunity of being seen. Of this number was the Roman tribune, who went by the name of the second Achilles, who, with his own hand, is said to have killed at different times three hundred of the enemy; and when treacherously set upon by twenty-five of his own countrymen, although then past his sixtieth year, he killed fourteen of them before he was slain. Of this number was Milo, who when he stood upright could not be forced out of his place. Pliny also tells us of one Athanatus, who walked across the stage at Rome loaded with a breast-plate weighing five hundred pounds, and buskins of the same weight. But of all the prodigies of strength of whom we have any accounts in Roman history, Maximin, the emperor, is decidedly the foremost. Whatever we are told relative to him is well attested; his character was too exalted not to be thoroughly known; and that very strength for which he was celebrated at last procured him no less a reward than the empire of the whole world. Maximin was above nine feet in height, and the best proportioned man in the whole empire. He was a Thracian by birth; and, from being a simple herdsman, rose through the gradations of office until he came to be Emperor of Rome. The first opportunity he had of exerting his strength was in the presence of all the citizens, in the theatre, where he overthrew twelve of the strongest men in wrestling, and outstript two of the fleetest horses in running, all in one day. He could draw a chariot so heavily laden that two strong horses could not move; he could break a horse's jaw with his fist, and its thigh with a kick. In war he was always foremost and invincible; happy had it been for him and his subjects if, from being formidable to his enemies, he had not become still more so to his subjects; he reigned for some time with all the world his enemy—all mankind wishing him dead, yet none daring to strike the blow. As if fortune had resolved that through life he should continue unconquerable, he was killed at last by his own soldiers while he was sleeping. We have many other instances in later ages of very great strength, and not fewer of amazing swiftness; but these merely corporeal perfections are now considered as of small advantage, either in war or in peace. The invention of gunpowder has in some measure levelled all force to one standard, and has wrought a total change in martial education through all parts of the world. In peace, also, the invention of new machines every day, and the application of the strength of the lower animals to the purposes of life, have rendered human strength less valuable. The boast of corporeal force is therefore confined to savage nations—where, those arts not being introduced, it may still be needful; but in more civilised countries few will boast of that strength which other animals can be taught to exert to as useful purposes as they.

If we compare the largeness and thickness of our muscles with those of any other animal, we shall find that in this respect we have the advantage; and if strength or swiftness depended upon the quantity of muscular flesh alone, I believe that in this respect we should be more active and powerful than any other. But this is not the case; a great deal more than the size of the muscles goes to constitute activity or force; and it is not he who has the thickest legs that can make the best use of them. Those, therefore, who have written elaborate treatises on muscular force, and have estimated the strength of animals by the thickness of their muscles, have been employed to very little purpose. It is in general observed that thin and raw-boned men are always stronger and more powerful than such as are seemingly more muscular—as in the former all the parts have better room for their exertions.

Women want much of the strength of men; and in some countries the stronger sex have availed themselves

of this superiority in cruelty and tyrannically enslaving those who were made with equal pretensions to a share in all the advantages life can bestow. Savage nations confine their women to a life of continual labour: upon them rest all the drudgeries of domestic duty; while the husband, indolently reclined in his hammock, is served from the fruits of her industry. From this negligent situation he is seldom roused except by the calls of appetite—when it is necessary, either by fishing or hunting, to make a variety in his entertainments. A savage has no idea of taking pleasure in exercise; he is surprised to see a European walk forward for his amusement, and then return back again. As for his part, he could be contented to remain for ever in the same situation, perfectly satisfied with sensual pleasures and undisturbed repose. The women of these countries are the greatest slaves upon earth; sensible of their weakness, and unable to resist, they are obliged to suffer those hardships which are naturally inflicted by such as have been taught that nothing but corporeal force ought to give pre-eminence. It is not, therefore, till after some degree of refinement that women are treated leniently, and not till the highest degree of politeness that they are permitted to share in all the privileges of man. The first impulse of savage nature is to confirm their slavery—the next of half-barbarous nations is to appropriate their beauty, and that of the perfectly polite to engage their affections. In civilised countries, therefore, women have united the force of modesty to the power of their natural charms; and thus they have obtained that superiority over the mind which they are unable to extort by their strength.

CHAP. VI.

OF SLEEP AND HUNGER.

As man, in all the privileges he enjoys and the powers he is invested with, has a superiority over all other animals, so in his necessities he seems inferior to the meanest of them all. Nature has brought him into life with a greater variety of wants and infirmities than the rest of her creatures—unarmed in the midst of enemies. The lion has natural arms—the bear natural clothing, but man is destitute of all such advantages; and from the superiority of his mind alone he is to supply the deficiency. The number of his wants, however, were merely given in order to multiply the number of his enjoyments; since the possibility of being deprived of any good teaches him the value of its possession. Were man born with those advantages which he learns to possess by industry, he would very probably enjoy them with a blunter relish: it is by being naked that he knows the value of a covering; it is by being exposed to the weather that he learns the comforts of a habitation. Every want thus becomes a means of pleasure in the redressing; and the animal that has most desires may be said to be capable of the greatest variety of happiness.

Beside the thousand imaginary wants peculiar to man, there are two which he has in common with all other animals, and which he feels in a more necessary manner than they. These are the wants of sleep and hunger. Every animal that we are acquainted with seems to endure the want of these with much less injury to health than man; and some are most surprisingly patient in sustaining both. The little domestic animals that we keep about us may often set a lesson of calm resignation in supporting want and watchfulness to the boasted philosopher. They receive their pittance at uncertain intervals, and wait its coming with cheerful expectation. We have instances of the dog and the cat living in this manner, without food, for several days, and yet still preserving their attachment to the tyrant that oppresses

them—still ready to exert their little services for his amusement or defence. But the patience of these is nothing to what the animals of the forest endure. As these mostly live upon accidental carnage, so they are often known to remain without food for several weeks together. Nature, kindly solicitous for their support, has also contracted their stomachs to suit them for their precarious way of living, and kindly, while it abridges the banquet, lessens the necessity of providing for it. But the meaner tribes of animals are made still more capable of sustaining life without food, many of them remaining in a state of torpid indifference till their prey approaches, when they jump upon and seize it. In this manner, the snake or the spider continue for several months together to subsist upon a single meal; and some of the butterfly kinds live upon little or nothing. But it is very different with man: his wants daily make their demands; and it is known that he cannot live many days without eating, drinking, and sleeping.

Hunger is a much more powerful enemy to man than watchfulness, and kills him much sooner. It may be considered as a disorder that food removes, and would quickly be fatal without its proper antidote. In fact, it is so terrible to man, that to avoid it he even encounters certain death; and, rather than endure its tortures, exchanges them for immediate destruction. However, by what I have been told, it is much more dreadful in its approaches than in its continuance; and the pains of a famishing wretch decrease as his strength diminishes. In the beginning, the desire of food is dreadful indeed, as we know by experience; for there are few who have not in some degree felt its approaches. But, after the first or second day, its tortures become less terrible, and a total insensibility at length comes kindly in to the poor wretch's assistance. I have talked with the captain of a ship, who was one of six that endured it in its extremities, and who was the only person that had not lost his senses when they received accidental relief. He assured me his pains at first were so great as to be often tempted to eat a part of one of the men who died, and which the rest of the crew actually for some time lived upon: he said that during the continuance of this paroxysm he found his pains insupportable, and was desirous at one time of anticipating that death which he thought inevitable; but his pains, he said, gradually decreased after the sixth day (for they had water in the ship, which kept them alive so long), and then he was in a state rather of languor than desire; nor did he much wish for food, except when he saw others eating; and that for a while revived his appetite, though with diminished importunity. The latter part of the time, when his health was almost destroyed, a thousand strange images rose upon his mind; and every one of his senses began to bring him wrong information. The most fragrant perfumes appeared to him to have a foetid smell; and everything he looked at took a greenish hue, and sometimes a yellow. When he was presented with food by the ship's company that took him and his men up, four of whom died shortly after, he could not help looking upon it with loathing instead of desire; and it was not till after four days that his stomach was brought to its natural tone, when the violence of his appetite returned with a sort of canine eagerness.

Thus dreadful are the effects of hunger; and yet, when we come to assign the cause that produces them, we find the subject involved in doubt and intricacy. This longing eagerness is, no doubt, given for a very obvious purpose—that of replenishing the body wasted by fatigue and perspiration. Were not men stimulated by such a pressing monitor, they might be apt to pursue other amusements with a perseverance beyond their power, and forget the useful hours of refreshment in those more tempting ones of pleasure. But hunger makes a demand that will not be refused; and indeed the generality of mankind seldom await the call.

Hunger has been supposed by some to arise from the rubbing of the coats of the stomach against each other, without having any intervening substance to prevent their painful attrition. Others have imagined that its juices, wanting their necessary supply, turn acrid, or, as some say, pungent, and thus fret its internal coats so as to produce a train of the most uneasy sensations. Boerhaave, who established his reputation in physic by uniting the conjectures of all those that preceded him, ascribes hunger to the united effect of both these causes, and asserts that the pungency of the gastric juices and the attrition of its coats against each other cause these pains, which nothing but food can remove. These juices, continuing still to be separated in the stomach, and every moment becoming more acrid, mix with the blood and infect the circulation: the circulation, being thus contaminated, becomes weaker and more contracted; and the whole nervous frame sympathising, a hectic fever, and sometimes madness, is produced; in which state the faint wretch expires. In this manner, the man who dies of hunger may be said to be poisoned by the juices of his own body; and is destroyed less by the want of nourishment than by the vitiated qualities of that which he had already taken.

However this may be, we have but few instances of men dying, except at sea, of absolute hunger—the decline of those unhappy creatures who are destitute of food on land being more slow and unperceived. These, from often being in need and as often receiving an accidental supply, pass their lives between surfeiting and repining; and their constitution is impaired by insensible degrees. Man is unfit for a state of precarious expectation. The share of provident precaution which incites him to lay up stores for a distant day becomes his torment, when totally unprovided against an immediate call. The lower race of animals, when satisfied for the instant moment, are perfectly happy; but it is otherwise with man; his mind anticipates distress, and feels the pangs of want even before it arrests him. Thus, the mind being continually harassed by the situation, it at length influences the constitution, and unfits it for all its functions. Some cruel disorder, but no way like hunger, seizes the unhappy sufferer; so that almost all those men who have thus long lived by chance, and whose every day may be considered as a happy escape from famine, are known at last to die in reality of a disorder caused by hunger; but which, in common language, is often called a "broken heart." Some of these I have known myself, when very little able to relieve them: and I have been told by a very active and worthy magistrate, that the number of such as die in London for want is much greater than one would imagine—I think he talked of two thousand in a year!

But how numerous soever those who die of hunger may be, many times greater, on the other hand, are the number of those who die by repletion. It is not the province of the present page to speculate with the physician upon the danger of surfeits, or with the moralist upon the nauseousness of gluttony; it will only be proper to observe, that as nothing is so prejudicial to health as hunger by constraint, so nothing is more beneficial to the constitution than voluntary abstinence. It was not without reason that religion enjoined this duty; since it answered the double purpose of restoring the health oppressed by luxury, and diminished the consumption of provisions, so that a part might come to the poor. It should be the business of the legislature, therefore, to enforce this divine precept; and thus, by restraining one part of mankind in the use of their superfluities, to consult for the benefit of those who want the necessities of life. The injunctions for abstinence are strict over the whole continent, and were rigorously observed, even among ourselves, for a long time after the Reformation. Queen Elizabeth, by giving her commands upon this

head the air of a political injunction, lessened in a great measure (in my opinion very unwisely) the religious force of the obligation. She enjoined that her subjects should fast from flesh on Fridays and Saturdays; but at the same time declared that this was not commanded from motives of religion, as if there were any differences in meats, but merely to favour the consumption of fish, and thus to multiply the number of mariners; and also to spare the stock of sheep, which might be more beneficial in another way. In this manner the injunction defeated its own force; and this most salutary law became no longer binding when it was supposed to come purely from man. How far it may be enjoined in the Scriptures I will not take upon me to say; but this may be asserted, that if the utmost benefit to the individual and the most extensive advantage to society serve to mark any institution as of Heaven, this of abstinence may be reckoned among the foremost.

Were we to give a history of the various benefits that have arisen from this command, and how conducive it has been to long life, the instances would fatigue with their multiplicity. It is surprising to what a great age the primitive Christians of the East who retired from persecution in the deserts of Arabia continued to live in all the bloom of health, and yet in all the rigours of abstemious discipline. Their common allowance, as we are told, for twenty-four hours was twelve ounces of bread, and nothing but water. On this simple beverage St. Anthony is said to have lived a hundred and five years; James, the hermit, a hundred and four; Arsenius, tutor to the Emperor Arcadius, a hundred and twenty; St. Epiphanius, a hundred and fifteen; Simeon, a hundred and twelve; and Rombold, a hundred and twenty. In this manner did these holy temperate men live to an extreme old age, kept cheerful by strong hopes, and healthful by moderate labour.

Abstinence which is thus voluntary may be much more easily supported than constrained hunger. Man is said to live without food for seven days—which is the usual limit assigned him; and, perhaps, in a state of constraint, this is the longest time he can survive the want of it. But in cases of voluntary abstinence, of sickness, or sleeping, he has been known to live much longer.

In the records of the tower, there is an account of a Scotchman, imprisoned for felony, who for the space of six weeks took not the least sustenance, being carefully watched during the whole time; and for this he received the king's pardon.

When the American Indians undertake long journeys, and when, consequently, a stock of provisions sufficient to support them the whole way would be more than they could carry, in order to obviate this inconvenience, instead of carrying the necessary quantity, they contrive a method of palliating their hunger by swallowing pills made of calcined shells and tobacco. These pills take away all appetite by producing a temporary disorder in the stomach; and, no doubt, the frequent repetition of this wretched expedient must at last be fatal. By this means, however, they continue several days without eating, cheerfully bearing such extremes of fatigue and watchings as would quickly destroy men bred up in a greater state of delicacy—for those arts by which we learn to obviate our necessities do not fail to unfit us for their accidental encounter.

Upon the whole, therefore, man is less able to support hunger than any other animal; and he is not better qualified to support a state of watchfulness. Indeed, sleep seems much more necessary to him than to any other creature—as, when awake, he may be said to exhaust a greater proportion of the nervous fluid, and consequently to stand in need of an adequate supply. Other animals when most awake are but little removed from a state of slumber; their feeble faculties—imprisoned in matter, and rather exerted by impulse than

deliberation—require sleep rather as a cessation from thinking. But it is otherwise with man: his ideas, fatigued with their various excursions, demand a cessation not less than the body from toil; and he is the only creature that seems to require sleep from double motives—not less for the refreshment of the mental than of the bodily frame.

There are some lower animals, indeed, that seem to spend the greater part of their lives in sleep; but, properly speaking, the sleep of such may be considered as a kind of death, and their waking a resurrection. Flies and insects are said to be asleep at a time that all the vital motions have ceased; without respiration, without any circulation of their juices, if cut in pieces they do not awake, nor does any fluid ooze out of the wound. These may be considered rather as congealed than as sleeping animals, and their rest during winter rather as a cessation from life than a necessary refreshment; but in the higher races of animals, whose blood is not thus congealed and thawed by heat, these all bear the want of sleep much better than man; and some of them continue a long time without seeming to take any refreshment from it whatsoever.

But man is more feeble—he requires its due return; and if it fails to pay the accustomed visit, his whole frame is in a short time thrown into disorder—his appetite ceases—his spirits are dejected—his pulse becomes quicker and harder—and his mind, abridged of its slumbering visions, begins to adopt waking dreams. A thousand strange phantoms arise, which come and go without his will; these, which are transient in the beginning, at last take firm possession of the mind, which yields to their dominion, and, after a long struggle, runs into confirmed madness. In that horrid state, the mind may be considered as a city without walls—open to every insult, and paying homage to every invader; every idea that then starts with any force becomes a reality; and the reason, over fatigued with its former importunities, makes no head against the tyrannical invasion, but submits to it from mere imbecility.

But it is happy for man that this state of inquietude is seldom driven to an extreme, and that there are medicines which seldom fail to give relief. However, man finds it more difficult than any other animal to procure sleep; and some are obliged to court its approaches for several hours together before they incline to rest. It is in vain that all light is excluded—that all sounds are removed—that warmth and softness conspire to invite it; the restless and busy mind still retains its former activity; and Reason, that wishes to lay down the reins, in spite of herself is obliged to maintain them. In this disagreeable state the mind passes from thought to thought, willing to lose the distinctness of perception by increasing the multitude of the images. At last, when the approaches of sleep are near, every object of the imagination begins to mix with that next it; their outlines become in a manner rounder, a part of their distinctions fades away, and sleep, that ensues, fashions out a dream from the remainder.

If, then, it should be asked from what cause this state of repose proceeds, or in what manner this binds us for several hours together, I must fairly confess my ignorance—although it is easy to tell what philosophers say upon the subject. Sleep (says Rohault) consists in a scarcity of spirits, by which the orifices or pores of the nerves in the brain, through which the spirits used to flow into the nerves, being no longer kept open by the frequency of the spirits, shut of themselves; thus the nerves, wanting a new supply of spirits, become lax, and unfit to convey any impression to the brain. All this, however, is explaining a very great obscurity by a definition somewhat more obscure; leaving, therefore, those spirits to open and shut the entrances to the brain, let us be contented with simply enumerating the effects of sleep upon the human constitution.

In sleep the whole nervous frame is relaxed, while the heart and the lungs seem more forcibly exerted. This fuller circulation produces also a swelling of the muscles—as they always find who sleep with ligatures on any part of their body. This increased circulation may also be considered as a kind of exercise, which is continued through the frame; and by this the perspiration becomes more copious, although the appetite for food is entirely taken away. Too much sleep dulls the apprehension, weakens the memory, and unfits the body for labour. On the contrary, sleep too much abridged emaciates the frame, produces melancholy, and consumes the constitution. It requires some care, therefore, to regulate the quantity of sleep, and just to take as much as will completely restore Nature without oppressing it. The poor, as Otway says, sleep little; forced by their situation to lengthen out their labour to their necessities, they have but a short interval for this pleasing and enervating refreshment. I have ever been of opinion that bodily labour demands a less quantity of sleep than mental. Labourers and artizans are generally satisfied with about seven hours; but I have known some scholars who usually slept nine, and perceived their faculties no way impaired by oversleeping.

The famous Philip Barrettiere—who was considered as a prodigy of learning at the age of fourteen—was known to sleep regularly twelve hours in the twenty-four; the extreme activity of his mind when awake in some measure called for an adequate alternation of repose; and I am apt to think that when students stint themselves in this particular they lessen the waking powers of the imagination, and weaken its most strenuous exertions. Animals that seldom think, as was said, can very easily dispense with sleep; and of men, such as think least will probably be satisfied with the smallest share. A life of study, it is well known, unfits the body for receiving this gentle refreshment; the approaches of sleep are driven off by thinking: when, therefore, it comes at last, we should not be too ready to interrupt its continuance.

Sleep is, indeed, to some a very agreeable period of their existence: and it has been a question frequently asked in schools—Which is most happy, the man who was a beggar by night and a king by day, or he who is a beggar by day and a king by night? It is given in favour of the nightly monarch by him who first started the question: "For the dream," says he, "gives the full enjoyment of the dignity without its attendant inconveniences; while, on the other hand, the king, who supposes himself degraded, feels all the misery of his fallen fortune without trying to find the comforts of his humble situation. Thus, by day, both states have their peculiar distresses; but by night the exalted beggar is perfectly blessed, and the king completely miserable." All this, however, is rather fanciful than just; the pleasure dreams can give us seldom reaches to our waking pitch of happiness: the mind often, in the midst of its highest visionary satisfactions, demands of itself whether it does not owe them to a dream, and frequently awakes with the reply.

But it is seldom—except in cases of the highest delight or the most extreme uneasiness—that the mind has power thus to disengage itself from the dominion of fancy. In the ordinary course of its operations it submits to those numberless phantastic images that succeed each other, and which, like many of our waking thoughts, are generally forgotten. Of these, however, if any, by their continuance, affect us strongly, they are then remembered; and there have been some who felt their impressions so strongly as to mistake them for realities, and to rank them among the past actions of their lives.

There are others upon whom dreams seem to have a very different effect; and who, without seeming to remember their impressions the next morning, have yet shown by their actions during sleep that they were very

powerfully impelled by their dominion. We have numberless instances of such persons who, while asleep, have performed many of the ordinary duties to which they have been accustomed when waking, and, with a ridiculous industry, have completed by night what they failed doing by day. We are told in the German Ephemerides of a young student who, being enjoined a severe exercise by his tutor, went to bed despairing of accomplishing it. The next morning awaking, to his great surprise he found the task fairly written out, and finished in his own hand-writing. He was at first, as the account has it, induced to ascribe this strange production to the operation of an infernal agent; but his tutor, willing to examine the affair to the bottom, set him another exercise still more severe than the former, and took precautions to observe his conduct the whole night. The young gentleman, upon being so severely tasked, felt the same inquietude that he had done on the former occasion; went to bed gloomy and pensive, pondering on the next day's duty, and, after some time, fell asleep. But shortly after, his tutor, who continued to observe him from a place that was concealed, was surprised to see him get up, and very deliberately go to the table, where he took out pen, ink, and paper, drew himself a chair, and sat very methodically to thinking: it seems that his being asleep only served to strengthen the powers of his imagination; for he very quickly and easily went through the task assigned him, put his chair aside, and then returned to bed to take out the rest of his nap. What credit we are to give to this account I will not pretend to determine; but this may be said, that the book from whence it is taken has some good marks of veracity—for it is very learned and very dull, and is written in a country noted, if not for truth, at least for want of invention.

The ridiculous history of Arlotto is well known, who has had a volume written containing a narrative of the actions of his life, not one of which was performed while he was awake. He was an Italian Franciscan friar, extremely rigid in his manners, and remarkably devout and learned in his daily conversation. By night, however, and during his sleep, he played a very different character from what he did by day, and was often detected in very atrocious crimes. He was at one time detected in actually attempting a rape, and did not awake till the next morning, when he was surprised to find himself in the hands of justice. His brothers of the convent often watched him while he went very deliberately into the chapel, and there attempted to commit sacrilege. They sometimes permitted him to carry the chalice and the vestments away into his own chamber, and the next morning amused themselves at the poor man's consternation for what he had done. But of all his sleeping transgressions, that was the most ridiculous in which he was called to pray for the soul of a person departed. Arlotto, after having devoutly performed his duty, retired to a chamber which was shown him to rest; but there he had no sooner fallen asleep, than he began to reflect that the dead body had got a ring upon one of the fingers, which might be useful to him; accordingly, with a pious resolution of stealing it, he went down, undressed as he was, into a room full of women, and, with great composure, endeavoured to seize the ring. The consequence was that he was taken before the Inquisition for witchcraft; and the poor creature had like to have been condemned, till his peculiar character accidentally came to be known; however, he was ordered to remain for the rest of life in his own convent, and upon no account whatsoever to stir abroad.

What are we to say of such actions as these, or how account for this operation of the mind in dreaming? It would seem that the imagination by day as well as by night is always employed, and that often against our wills it intrudes where it is least commanded or desired. While awake and in health this busy principle

cannot much delude us; it may build castles in the air, and raise a thousand phantoms before us; but we have every one of the senses alive to bear testimony to its falsehood. Our eyes show us that the prospect is not present; our hearing and our touch depose against its reality; and our taste and smelling are equally vigilant in detecting the impostor. Reason, therefore, at once gives judgment upon the cause; and the vagrant intruder, Imagination, is imprisoned or banished from the mind. But in sleep it is otherwise; having, as much as possible, put our senses from their duty—having closed the eyes from seeing, and the ears, taste, and smelling from their peculiar functions, and having diminished even the touch itself by all the arts of softness—the imagination is then left to riot at large, and to lead the understanding without an opposer. Every incursive idea then becomes a reality; and the mind, not having one power that can prove the illusion, takes them for truths. As in madness, the senses, from struggling with the imagination, are at length forced to submit, so in sleep they seem for a while soothed into the like submission; the smallest violence exerted upon any one of them, however, rouses all the rest in their mutual defence; and the imagination, that had for a while told its thousand falsehoods, is totally driven away, or only permitted to pass under the custody of such as are every moment ready to detect its imposition.

CHAP. VII.

OF SEEING.

Having mentioned the senses as correcting the errors of the imagination, and as forcing it in some measure to bring us just information, it will naturally follow that we should examine the nature of those senses themselves; we shall thus be enabled to see how far they also impose on us, and how far they contribute to correct each other. Let it be observed, however, that in this we are neither giving a treatise of optics or phonics, but a history of our own perceptions; and to those we chiefly confine ourselves.

The eyes very soon begin to be formed in the human embryo, and in the chicken also. Of all the parts which the animal has double the eyes are produced the soonest, and appear the most prominent. It is true, indeed, that in viviparous animals, and particularly in man, they are not so large in proportion at first as in the oviparous kinds; nevertheless, they are more speedily developed when they begin to appear than any other parts of the body. It is the same with the organ of hearing; the little bones that compose the internal parts of the ear are entirely formed before the other bones, though much larger, have acquired any part of their growth or solidity—hence it appears that those parts of the body which are furnished with the greatest quantity of the nerves are the first in forming. Thus the brain and the spinal-marrow are the first seen begun in the embryo; and in general it may be said, that wherever the nerves go or send their branches in great numbers, there the parts are soonest begun, and the most completely finished.

If we examine the eyes of a child some hours, or even some days, after its birth, it will be easily discerned that it as yet makes no use of them. The humours of the organ not having acquired a sufficient consistence, the rays of light strike but confusedly upon the retina, or expansions of the nerves at the back of the eye. It is not till about a month after they are born that children fix them upon subjects, for before that time they turn them indiscriminately everywhere, without appearing to be affected by any. At six or seven weeks old they plainly discover a choice in the objects of their attention;

they fix their eyes upon the most brilliant colours, and seem peculiarly desirous of turning them towards the light. Hitherto, however, they only seem to fortify the organ for seeing distinctly; but they have still many illusions to correct.

The first great error in vision is that the eye inverts every object; and it in reality appears to the child, until the touch has served to undeceive it, turned upside down. A second error in vision is, that every object appears double. The same object forms itself distinctly upon each eye, and is consequently seen twice. This error, also, can only be corrected by the touch; and although in reality every object we see appears inverted and double, yet the judgment and habit have so often corrected the sense that we no longer submit to its imposition, but see every object in its just position the very instant it appears. Were we, therefore, deprived of feeling, our eyes would not only misrepresent the situation, but also the number of all things round us.

To convince us that we see objects inverted, we have only to observe the manner in which images are represented coming through a small hole in a dark room. If such a small hole be made in a dark room, so that no light can come in but through it, all the objects without will be painted on the wall behind, but in an inverted position, and their heads downwards; for as all the rays which pass from the different parts of the objects without cannot enter the hole in the same extent which they had in leaving the object, since, if so, they would require the aperture to be as large as the object; and as each part and every point of the object sends forth the image of itself on every side, and the rays which form these images pass from all points of the object as from so many centres, so such only can pass through the small aperture as come in opposite directions. Thus the little aperture becomes a centre for the entire object, through which the rays from the upper parts as well as from the lower parts of it pass in converging directions; and consequently they must cross each other in the central point, and thus paint the objects behind upon the wall in an inverted position.

It is in like manner easy to conceive that we see all objects double, whatever our present sensations may tell us to the contrary; for, to convince us of this, we have only to compare the situation of any one object on shutting one eye, and then compare the same situation by shutting the other. If, for instance, we hold up a finger and shut the right eye, we shall find it hide a certain part of the room; if again reshutting the other eye, we shall find that part of the room visible, and the finger seeming to cover a part of the room that had been visible before. If we open both eyes, however, the part covered will appear to lie between the two extremes. But the truth is, we see the object our finger had covered, one image of it to the right and the other to the left, but from habit suppose that we see but one image placed upon both—our sense of feeling having corrected the errors of sight. And thus, also, if instead of two eyes we had two hundred, we should fancy the objects increased in proportion, until one sense had corrected the errors of another.

The having two eyes might thus be said to be rather an inconvenience than a benefit, since one eye would answer the purposes of sight as well, and be less liable to illusion. But it is otherwise; two eyes greatly contribute, if not to distinct, at least to extensive vision. When an object is placed at a moderate distance, by the means of both eyes we see a larger share of it than we possibly could with one—the right eye seeing a greater portion of its right side, and the left eye of its correspondent side. Thus both eyes in some measure see round the object; and it is this that gives it in nature that bold relieve or swelling with which they appear, and which no painting, how exquisite soever, can attain to. The painter must be contented with shading on a flat surface,

but the eyes in observing Nature do not behold the shading only, but a part of the figure also lies behind these very shadings, which gives it that swelling which painters so ardently desire, but can never fully imitate.

There is another defect which either of the eyes, taken singly, would have, but which is corrected by having the organ double. In either eye there is a point which has no vision whatsoever; so that if one of them only is employed in seeing, there is a part of the object to which it is always totally blind. This is that part of the optic nerve where its vein and artery run; which being insensible, that point of the object that is painted there must continue unseen. To be convinced of this, we have only to try a very easy experiment. If we take three black patches and stick them upon a white wall, about a foot distant from each other, each about as high as the eye that is to observe them; then retiring six or seven feet back, and shutting one eye, by trying for some time, we shall find that while we distinctly behold the black spots that are to the right and left, that which is in the middle remains totally unseen; or, in other words, when we bring that part of the eye where the optic artery runs to fall upon the object, it will then become invisible. This defect, however, in either eye is always corrected by both, since the part of the object that is unseen by one will be very distinctly perceived by the other.

Besides the former defects, we can have no idea of distances from the sight without the help of touch. Naturally every object we see appears to be within our eyes; and a child who has as yet made but little use of the sense of feeling must suppose that everything it sees makes a part of itself. Such objects are only seen more or less bulky as they approach or recede from its eyes; so that a fly that is near will appear larger than an ox at a distance. It is experience alone that can rectify this mistake; and a long acquaintance with the real size of every object quickly assures us of the distance at which it is seen. The last man in a file of soldiers appears in reality much less, perhaps ten times more diminutive, than the man next to us; however, we do not perceive this difference, but continue to think him of equal stature; for the numbers we have seen thus lessened by distance, and have found by repeated experience to be of the natural size, when we come closer instantly corrects the sense, and every object is perceived with nearly its natural proportion. But it is otherwise if we observe objects in such situations as we have not had sufficient experience to correct the errors of the eye; if, for instance, we look at men from the top of a high steeple, they in that case appear very much diminished, as we have not had a habit of correcting the sense in that position.

Although a small degree of reflection will serve to convince us of the truth of these positions, it may not be amiss to strengthen them by an authority which cannot be disputed. Mr. Cheselden having couched a boy of thirteen of a cataract who had hitherto been blind, and thus at once having restored him to sight, curiously marked the progress of his mind upon that occasion. This youth, though he had been till then incapable of seeing, yet was not totally blind, but could tell day from night, as persons in his situation always may. He could also, with a strong light, distinguish black from white, and either from the vivid colour of scarlet; however, he saw nothing of the form of bodies; and without a bright light not even colours themselves. He was at first couched only in one of his eyes; and when he saw for the first time, he was so far from judging of distances, that he supposed his eyes touched every object that he saw, in the same manner as his hands might be said to feel them. The objects that were most agreeable to him were such as were of plain surfaces and regular figures; though he could as yet make no judgment whatever of their different forms, nor give a rea-

son why one pleased him more than another. Although he could form some idea of colours during his state of blindness, yet that was not sufficient to direct him at present; and he could scarcely be persuaded that the colours he now saw were the same with those he had formerly conceived such erroneous ideas of. He delighted most in green; but black objects, as if giving him an idea of his former blindness, he regarded with horror. He had, as was said, no idea of forms, and was unable to distinguish one object from another, though never so different. When those things were shown him which he had been formerly familiarized to by his feelings, he beheld them with earnestness, in order to remember them a second time; but, as he had too many to recollect at once, he forgot the greatest number; and for one he could tell after seeing, there was a thousand he was totally unacquainted with. He was very much surprised to find that those things and persons he loved best were not the most beautiful to be seen; and even testified displeasure in not finding his parents so handsome as he conceived them to be. It was near two months before he could find that a picture resembled a solid body. Till then he only considered it as a flat surface, variously shadowed; but when he began to perceive that these kind of shadings actually represented human beings, he then began to examine by his touch whether they had not the usual qualities of such bodies, and was greatly surprised to find what he expected a very unequal surface to be smooth and even. He was then shown a miniature picture of his father, which was contained in his mother's watch-case, and he readily perceived the resemblance; but asked with great astonishment how so large a face could be contained in so small a compass. It seemed as strange to him as if a bushel was contained in a pint vessel. At first he could bear but a very small quantity of light, and he saw every object much greater than the life; but, in proportion as he saw objects that were really large, he seemed to think the former were diminished; and although he knew the chamber where he was contained in the house, yet until he saw the latter he could not be brought to conceive how a house could be larger than a chamber. Before the operation he had no great expectations from the pleasure he should receive from a new sense; he was only excited by the hopes of being able to read and write; he said, for instance, that he could have no greater pleasure in walking in the garden with his sight than he had without it, for he walked there at his ease, and was acquainted with all the walks. He remarked, also with great justice, that his former blindness gave him one advantage over the rest of mankind, which was that of being able to walk in the night with confidence and security. But when he began to make use of his new sense he seemed transported beyond measure. He said that every new object was a new source of delight, and that his pleasure was so great as to be past expression. About a year after this he was brought to Epsom, where there is a very fine prospect, with which he seemed greatly charmed; and he called the landscape before him a new method of seeing. He was couched in the other eye a year after the former, and the operation succeeded remarkably well. When he saw with both eyes, he said that objects appeared to him twice as large as when he saw but with one; however, he did not see them doubled, or at least he showed no signs as if he saw them so. Mr. Cheselden mentions instances of many more that were restored to sight in this manner; they all seemed to concur in their perceptions with this youth, and they all seemed particularly embarrassed in learning how to direct their eyes to the objects they wished to observe.

In this manner it is that our feeling corrects the senses of seeing, and that objects which appear of very different sizes at different distances are all reduced by experience to their natural standard. But not the feeling only, but

also the colour and brightness of the object, contribute in some measure to assist us in forming an idea of the distance at which it appears. Those which we see most strongly marked with light and shade we readily know to be nearer than those on which the colours are more faintly spread, and that in some measure take a part of their hue from the air between us and them. Bright objects, also, are seen at a greater distance than such as are obscure, and most probably for this reason—that, being less similar in colour to the air that interposes, their impressions are less effaced by it, and they continue more distinctly visible. Thus a black and distant object is not seen so far off as a bright and glittering one, and a fire by night is seen much farther off than by day.

The power of seeing objects at a distance is seldom equal in both eyes. When this inequality is in any great degree, the person so circumstanced then makes use only of one eye, shutting that which sees the least, and employing the other with all its power. And hence proceeds that awkward look which is known by the name of "strabismus."

There are many reasons to induce us to think that such as are near-sighted see objects larger than other persons; and yet the contrary is most certainly true, for they see them less. Mr. Buffon informs us that he himself was short-sighted, and that his left eye was stronger than his right. He has very frequently experienced upon looking at an object, such as the letters of a book, that they appear less to the weakest eye; and that when he placed the book so as that the letters appeared double, the images of the left eye, which was strongest, were larger than those of the right, which was more feeble. He has examined several others who were in similar circumstances, and has always found that the best eye saw every object the largest. This he ascribes to habit; for near-sighted people being accustomed to come close to the object, and view but a small part of it at a time, the habit ensues, when the whole of an object is seen, and it appears less to them than to others.

Infants, having their eyes less than adults, must see objects also smaller in proportion; for the image formed on the back of the eye will be large as the eye is capacious; and infants, having it not so great, cannot have so large a picture of the object. This may be a reason also why they are unable to see so distinctly or at such distances as persons arrived at maturity.

Old men, on the contrary, see bodies close to them very indistinctly, but bodies at a great distance from them with more precision; and this may happen from an alteration in the coats or humours of the eye, and not, as is supposed, from their diminution. The cornea, for instance, may become too rigid to adapt itself, and take a proper convexity for seeing minute objects; and its very flatness will be sufficient to fit it for distant vision.

When we cast our eyes upon an object extremely brilliant, or when we fix and detain them too long upon the same object, the organ is hurt and fatigued, its vision becomes indistinct, and the image of the body, which has thus too violently or too perseveringly employed us, is painted upon everything we look at, and mixes with every object that occurs. And this is an obvious consequence of the eye taking in too much light, either immediately or by reflection. Every body exposed to the light for a time drinks in a quantity of its rays, which, being brought into darkness, it cannot instantly discharge. Thus the hand, if it be exposed to broad day-light for some time, and then immediately snatched into a dark room, will appear still luminous; and it will be some time before it is totally darkened. It is thus with the eye, which, either by an instant gaze at the meridian sun or a steady continuance upon some less brilliant object, has taken in too much light; its humours are for a while unfit for vision, until that be discharged and room made for rays of a milder nature.

How dangerous the looking upon bright and luminous objects is to the sight, may be easily seen from such as live in countries covered for most part of the year with snow, who become generally blind before their time. Travellers who cross these countries are obliged to wear a crape to save their eyes, which would otherwise be rendered totally unserviceable; and it is equally dangerous in the sandy plains of Africa. The reflection of the light is there so strong, that it is impossible to sustain the effect without incurring the danger of losing one's sight entirely. Such persons, therefore, as read or write for any continuance should choose a moderate light, in order to save their eyes; and although it may seem sufficient at first, the eye will accustom itself to the shade by degrees, and be less hurt by the want of light than the excess.

It is indeed surprising how far the eye can accommodate itself to darkness, and make the best of a gloomy situation. When first taken from the light and brought into a dark room, all things disappear; or, if anything is seen, it is only the remaining radiations that still continue in the eye. But after a very little time, when these are spent, the eye takes advantage of the smallest ray that happens to enter; and this alone would in time serve for many of the purposes of life. There was a gentleman of great courage and understanding, who was a major under King Charles I. This unfortunate man, sharing in his master's misfortunes, and being forced abroad, ventured at Madrid to do his king a signal service, but unluckily failed in the attempt. In consequence of this he was instantly ordered to a dark and dismal dungeon, into which the light never entered, and into which there was no opening but by a hole at the top, down which the keeper put his provisions, and presently closed it again on the other side. In this manner the unfortunate loyalist continued for some weeks, distressed and disconsolate; but at last he began to think he saw some little glimmering of light. This internal dawn seemed to increase from time to time, so that he could not only discover the parts of his bed and such other large objects, but at length he even began to perceive the mice that frequented his cell, and saw them as they ran about the floor eating the crumbs of bread that happened to fall. After some months' confinement he was at last set free; but such was the effect of the darkness upon him that he could not for some days venture to leave his dungeon, but was obliged to accustom himself by degrees to the light of the day.

CHAP. VIII.

OF HEARING.

As the sense of hearing as well as of sight gives us notice of remote objects, so like that it is subject to similar errors, being capable of imposing on us upon all occasions where he cannot rectify it by the sense of feeling. We can have from it no distinct intelligence of the distance from whence a sounding body is heard; a great noise far off and a small one very near produce the same sensation; and, unless we receive information from some other sense, we can never distinctly tell whether the sound be a great or a small one. It is not till we have learned by experience that the particular sound which is heard is of a peculiar kind; then we can judge of the distance from whence we hear it. When we know the tone of the bell, we can then judge how far it is from us.

Every body that strikes against another produces a sound, which is simple, and but one in bodies which are not elastic, but which is often repeated in such as are. If we strike a bell or a stretched string, for instance, which are both elastic, a single blow produces a sound,

which is repeated by the undulations of the sonorous body, and which is multiplied as often as it happens to undulate or vibrate. These undulations each strike their own peculiar blow; but they succeed so fast, one behind the other, that the ear supposes them one continued sound; whereas in reality they make many. A person who should for the first time hear the toll of a bell, would very probably be able to distinguish these breaks of sound; and, in fact, we ourselves can readily perceive an intension and remission in the sound.

In this manner, sounding bodies are of two kinds; those unelastic ones, which, being struck, return but a single sound; and those more elastic, returning a succession of sound, which, uniting together, form a tone. This tone may be considered as a great number of sounds all produced one after the other by the same body, as we find in a bell or the string of a harpsichord, which continues to sound for some time after it is struck. A continuing tone may be also produced from a nonelastic body by repeating the blow quick and often, as when we beat a drum, or when we draw a bow along the strings of a fiddle.

Considering the subject in this light, if we should multiply the number of blows, or repeat them at quicker intervals upon the sounding body, as upon the drum, for instance, it is evident that this will have no effect in altering the tone; it will only make it either more even or more distinct. But it is otherwise if we increase the force of the blow; if we strike the body with double weight this will produce a tone twice as loud as the former. If, for instance, I strike a table with a switch, this will be very different from the sound produced by striking it with a cudgel. Hence, therefore, we may infer that all bodies give a louder and graver tone, not in proportion to the number of times they are struck, but in proportion to the force that strikes them. And if this be so, those philosophers who make the tone of a sonorous body—of a bell or the string of a harpsichord, for instance—to depend upon the number only of its vibrations and not on the force, have mistaken what is only an effect for a cause. A bell or an elastic string can only be considered as a drum beaten; and the frequency of the blows can make no alteration whatever in the tone. The largest bells and the longest and thickest strings have the most forceful vibrations; and therefore their tones are the most loud and the most grave.

To know the manner in which sounds thus produced become pleasing, it must be observed, no one continuing tone, how loud or swelling soever, can give us satisfaction: we must have a succession of them, and those in the most pleasing proportion. The nature of this proportion may be thus conceived. If we strike a body incapable of vibration with a double force, or, what amounts to the same thing, with a double mass of matter, it will produce a sound that will be doubly grave. Music has been said by the ancients to have been first invented from the blows of different hammers on an anvil. Suppose, then, we strike on an anvil with a hammer of one pound weight, and again with a hammer of two pounds, it is plain that the two-pound hammer will produce a sound twice as grave as the former. But if we strike with a two-pound hammer and then with a three-pound, it is evident that the latter will produce a sound one-third more grave than the former. If we strike the anvil with a three-pound hammer and then with a four-pound, it will likewise follow that the latter will be a quarter part more grave than the former. Now, in the comparing between all these sounds, it is obvious that the difference between one and two is more easily perceived than between two and three, three and four, or any numbers succeeding in the same proportion. The succession of sounds will be therefore pleasing in proportion to the ease with which they may be distinguished. That sound which is double the former, or, in other words, the octave to the preceding tone, will of all others be the most

pleasing harmony. The next to that, which is as two to three, or, in other words, the third, will be most agreeable. And thus, universally, those sounds whose difference may be most easily compared are the most agreeable.

Musicians, therefore, have contented themselves with seven different proportions of sound, which are called "notes," and which sufficiently answer all the purposes of pleasure. Not but that they might adopt a greater diversity of proportions; and some have actually done so; but in these the differences of the proportion are so imperceptible, that the ear is more fatigued than pleased in making the distinction. In order, however, to give variety, they have admitted half-tones; but in all the countries where music is yet in its infancy they have rejected such; and they can find music in none but the obvious ones. The Chinese, for instance, have neither flats nor sharps in their music; but the intervals between their other notes are in the same proportion with ours.

Many more barbarous nations have their peculiar instruments of music; and what is remarkable, the proportion between their notes is in all the same as in ours. This is not the place for entering into the nature of these sounds, their effects upon the air, or their consonances with each other. We are not now giving a history of sound, but of human perception.

All countries are pleased with music; and if they have not skill enough to produce harmony, at least they seem willing to substitute noise. Without all question, noise alone is sufficient to operate powerfully on the spirits; and, if the mind be already predisposed to joy, I have seldom found noise fail of increasing it into rapture. The mind feels a kind of distracted pleasure in such powerful sounds, braces up every nerve, and riots in the excess. But, as in the eye an immediate gaze upon the sun will disturb the organ, so in the ear a loud, unexpected noise disorders the whole frame, and sometimes disturbs the sense ever after. The mind must have time to prepare for the expected shock, and to give its organs the proper tension for its arrival.

Musical sounds, however, seem of a different kind. Those are generally most pleasing which are most unexpected. It is not from bracing up the nerves, but from the grateful succession of the sounds, that these become so charming. There are few, how indifferent soever, but have at times felt their pleasing impression; and perhaps even those who have stood out against the powerful persuasion of sounds only wanted the proper tune or the proper instrument to allure them.

The ancients give us a thousand strange instances of the effects of music upon men and animals. The story of Arion's harp, that attracted the dolphins to the ship's side, is well known; and what is remarkable, Schottens assures us that he saw a similar instance of fishes being allured by music. They tell us of diseases that have been cured, unchastity corrected, seditions quelled, passions removed, and sometimes excited even to madness. Dr. Wallis has endeavoured to account for these surprising effects by ascribing them to the novelty of the art. For my own part, I can scarce hesitate to impute them to the exaggeration of their writers. They are as hyperbolic in the effects of their oratory; and yet we well know there is nothing in the orations they have left us capable of exciting madness, or of raising the mind to that ungovernable degree of fury which they describe. As they have exaggerated, therefore, in one instance, we may naturally suppose that they have done the same in the other; and, indeed, from the few remains we have of their music, collected by Meibomius, one might be apt to suppose there was nothing very powerful in what is lost. Nor does any one of the ancient instruments—such as we see them represented in statues—appear comparable to our fiddle.

However this be, we have many odd accounts, not only among them but also among the moderns, of the

power of music; and it must not be denied but that, on some particular occasions, musical sounds may have a very powerful effect. I have seen all the horses and cows in a field, amounting to more than a hundred, gather round a person that was blowing the French horn, and seemed to testify an awkward kind of satisfaction. Dogs are well known to be sensible of the different tones in music; and I have sometimes heard them sustain a very ridiculous part in a concert where their assistance was neither expected nor desired.

We are told of Henry IV. of Denmark, that, being one day desirous of trying in person whether a musician, who boasted that he could excite men to madness, was not an impostor, he submitted to the operations of his skill; but the consequence was much more terrible than the king expected—for, becoming actually mad, he killed four of his attendants in the midst of his transports. A contrary effect of music we have in the cure of a madman of Alsais, in France. This man, who was a dancing-master, after a fever of five days, grew furious, and so ungovernable that his hands were obliged to be tied to his sides: what at first was rage in a short time was converted into silent melancholy, which no arts could exhilarate nor no medicines remove. In this sullen and dejected state an old acquaintance accidentally came to inquire after his health; he found him sitting up in bed, tied, and totally regardless of every external object round him. Happening, however, to take up a fiddle that lay in the room, and playing a favourite air, the poor madman instantly seemed to brighten up at the sound; from a recumbent posture he began to sit up; and, as the musician continued playing, the patient seemed desirous of dancing to the sound; but he was tied, and incapable of leaving his bed, so that he could only humour the tune with his head, and that part of his arms which were at liberty. Thus the other continued playing, and the dancing-master practised his own art as far as he was able, for about a quarter of an hour, when suddenly falling into a deep sleep, in which his disorder came to a crisis, he awoke perfectly recovered.

A thousand other instances might be added, equally true; let it suffice to add one more, which is not true—I mean that of the tarantula. Every person who has been in Italy now well knows that the bite of this animal and its being cured by music is all a deception. When strangers come into that part of Italy the country people are ready enough to take money for dancing to the tarantula. A friend of mine had a servant who suffered himself to be bitten; the wound, which was little larger than the puncture of a pin, was uneasy for a few hours, and then became well without any further assistance. Some of the country people, however, still make a tolerable livelihood of the credulity of strangers, as the musician finds his account in it no less than the dancer.

Sounds, like light, are not only extensively diffused but are frequently reflected. The laws of this reflection, it is true, are not so well understood as those of light; all we know is, that sound is principally reflected by hard bodies—and their being hollow also sometimes increases the reverberation. No art, however, can make an echo; and some who have bestowed great labour and expense upon such a project have only erected shapeless buildings, whose silence was a mortifying lecture on their presumption.

The internal cavity of the ear seems to be fitted up for the purposes of echoing sound with the greatest precision. This part is fashioned out in the temporal bone like a cavern cut into a rock. In this the sound is repeated and articulated, and, as some anatomists tell us (for we have as yet but very little knowledge on the subject), is beaten against the tympanum or drum of the ear, which moves four little bones joined thereto; these move and agitate the internal air which lies on the other

side; and, lastly, this air strikes and affects the auditory nerves, which carry the sound to the brain.

One of the most common disorders in old age is deafness—which probably proceeds from the rigidity of the nerves in the labyrinth of the ear. This disorder also sometimes proceeds from a stoppage of the wax, which art may easily remedy. In order to know whether the defect be an internal or an external one, let the deaf person put a repeating watch into his mouth, and if he hears it strike, he may be sure that his disorder proceeds from an external cause, and is in some measure curable; for there is a passage from the ears into the mouth by what anatomists call the “eustachian tube,” and by this passage people often hear sounds when they are utterly without hearing through the larger channel; and this is also the reason that we often see persons who listen with great attention do so with their mouths open, in order to catch all the sound at every aperture.

It often happens that persons hear differently with one ear from the other; and it is generally found that these have what is called by musicians a “bad ear.” Mr. Buffon, who has made many trials upon persons of this kind, always found that their defect in judging properly of sounds proceeded from the inequality of their ears; and receiving by both at the same time unequal sensations, they form an unjust idea. In this manner, as those people hear false, they also, without knowing it, sing false. Those persons also frequently deceive themselves with regard to the side from whence the sound comes, generally supposing the noise to come on the part of the best ear.

Such as are hard of hearing find the same advantage in the trumpet made for this purpose that short-sighted persons do from glasses. These trumpets might be easily improved, so as to increase sounds in the same manner that the telescope does objects; however, they could be used to advantage only in a place of solitude and stillness, as the neighbouring sounds would mix with the more distant, and the whole would produce in the ear nothing but tumult and confusion.

Hearing is a much more necessary sense to man than to animals. With these it is only a warning against danger, or an encouragement to mutual assistance. In man it is the source of most of his pleasures; and without which the rest of his senses would be of little benefit. A man born deaf must necessarily be dumb, and his whole sphere of knowledge must be bounded only by sensual objects. We have an instance of a young man who, being born deaf, was restored at the age of twenty-four to perfect hearing.

A young man of the town of Chartres, between the age of twenty-three and twenty-four, the son of a tradesman, and deaf and dumb from his birth, began to speak all of a sudden to the great astonishment of the whole town. He gave them to understand that, about three or four months before, he had heard the sound of the bells for the first time, and was greatly surprised at this new and unknown sensation. After some time a kind of water issued from his left ear, and he then heard perfectly well with both. During these three months he was sedulously employed in listening without saying a word, and accustoming himself to speak softly (so as not to be heard) the words pronounced by others. He laboured hard, also, in perfecting himself in the pronunciation and in the ideas attached to every sound. At length, having supposed himself qualified to break silence, he declared that he could now speak, although as yet but imperfectly. Soon after, some able divines questioned him concerning his ideas of his past state; and principally with respect to God, his soul, and the morality or turpitude of actions. The young man, however, had not driven his solitary speculations into that channel. He had gone to mass, indeed, with his parents—had learned to sign himself with the cross—to kneel down, and assume all the grimaces of a man

that was praying; but he did all this without any manner of knowledge of the intention or the cause; he saw others do the like, and that was enough for him; he knew nothing even of death—the idea never entered into his head; he led a life of pure animal instinct; entirely taken up with sensible objects and such as were present, he did not seem even to make as many reflections upon these as might reasonably be expected from his improving situation: and yet the young man was not in want of understanding; but the understanding of a man deprived of all commerce with others is so very confined, that the mind is in some measure totally under the control of its immediate sensations.

Notwithstanding, it is very possible to communicate ideas to deaf men with which they were previously unacquainted, and even give them very precise notions of some abstract subjects, by means of signs and letters. A person born deaf may by time and sufficient pains be taught to read and write, to speak, and, by the motions of the lips, to understand what is said to him; however, it is probable that, as most of the motions of speech are made within the mouth by the tongue, the knowledge from the motion of the lips is but very confined: nevertheless, I have conversed with a gentleman thus taught, and in all the commonly-occurring questions and the usual salutations he was quite cognizant merely by watching the motion of the lips alone. When I ventured to speak for a short continuance he was totally at a loss, although he understood the subject when written extremely well. Persons taught in this manner were at first considered as prodigies; but there have been so many instances of success of late, and so many are skilful in the art of instructing in this way, that, though still a matter of some curiosity, it ceases to be an object of wonder.

CHAP. IX

OF SMELLING, FEELING, AND TASTING.

An animal may be said to fill up that sphere which he can reach by his senses, and is actually large in proportion to the sphere to which its organ extends. By sight, man's enjoyments are diffused into a wide circle; that of hearing, though less widely diffused, nevertheless extends his powers; the sense of smelling is more contracted still; and the taste and touch are the most confined of all. Thus man enjoys very distant objects, but with one sense only; more nearly he brings two senses at once to bear upon them; his sense of smelling assists the other two, at his own distance; and of such objects, as a man, he may be said to be in perfect possession.

Each sense, however, the more it acts at a distance the more capable it is of making combinations, and is consequently the more improveable. Refined imaginations and men of strong minds therefore take more pleasure in improving the delights of the distant senses than enjoying such as are scarce capable of improvement.

By combining the objects of the extensive senses, all the arts of poetry, painting, and harmony have been discovered; but the closer senses, if I may so call them, such as smelling, tasting, and touching, are in some measure as simple as they are limited, and admit of little variety. The man of imagination makes a great and artificial happiness by the pleasure of altering and combining; the sensualist just stops where he began, and cultivates only those pleasures which he cannot improve. The sensualist is contented with those enjoyments that are already made to his hand; but the man of pleasure is best pleased with growing happiness.

Of all the senses, perhaps, there is not one in which man is more inferior to other animals than in that of

smelling. With man, it is a sense that acts in a narrow sphere, and disgusts almost as frequently as it gives him pleasure. With many other animals it is diffused to a very great extent, and never seems to offend them. Dogs not only trace the steps of other animals, but also discover them by the scent at a very great distance; and while they are thus exquisitely sensible of all smells, they seem no way disgusted by any.

But although this sense is in general so very inferior in man, it is much stronger in those nations that abstain from animal food than it is among Europeans. The Brahmins of India have a power of smelling, as I am informed, equal to what it is in most other creatures. They can smell the water which they drink, which to us seems quite inodorous; and they have a word in their language which denotes a country of fine water. We are also told that the Negroes of the Antilles, by the smell alone, can distinguish between the footsteps of a Frenchman and a Negro. It is possible, therefore, that we may dull this organ by our luxurious way of living, and sacrifice to the pleasures of taste those which might be received from perfume.

However, it is a sense that we can in some measure dispense with; and I have known many that wanted it entirely but very little inconvenienced from its loss. In a state of nature it is said to be useful in guiding us to proper nourishment, and deterring us from that which is unwholesome; but in our present situation such information is but little attended to. In fact, the sense of smelling frequently gives us false intelligence. Many things that have a disagreeable odour are, nevertheless, wholesome and pleasant to the taste; and such as make eating an art seldom think a meal fit to please the appetite till it begins to offend the nose. On the other hand, there are many things that smell most gratefully and yet are noxious, and fatal to the constitution. Some physicians think that perfumes in general are unwholesome—that they relax the nerves, produce head-aches, and even retard digestion. The machinel apple, which is known to be deadly poison, is possessed of the most grateful odour. Some of those mineral vapours that are often found fatal to the stomach smell like the sweetest flowers, and continue thus to flatter till they destroy. This sense, therefore, as it would seem, was never meant to direct us in the choice of food, but appears rather as an attendant than a necessary pleasure.

Indeed, if we examine the natives of different countries, or even the different natives of the same, we shall find no pleasure in which they differ so widely as that of smelling. Some persons are pleased with the smell of a rose; while I have known others that could not abide to have it approach them. The savage nations are highly delighted with the smell of assafoetida, which is to us the most nauseous stink in nature. It would in a manner seem that our delight in perfumes was made by habit, and that a very little industry could bring us totally to invert the perception of odours.

Thus much is certain, that many bodies which at one distance are an agreeable perfume, when nearer are a most ungrateful odour. Musk and ambergris, in small quantities, are considered by most persons as highly fragrant; and yet, when in larger masses, their scent is insufferable. From a mixture of two bodies, each of which is of itself void of all smell, a very powerful smell may be drawn. Thus, by grinding quick-lime with sal-ammoniac may be produced a very foetid mixture. On the contrary, from a mixture of two bodies that are separately disagreeable a very pleasant aromatic odour may be gained. A mixture of aqua-fortis with spirits of wine produces this effect. But not only the alterations of bodies by each other, but the smallest change in us, makes a great alteration in this sense, and not unfrequently totally deprives us of it. A slight cold often prevents us from smelling, and as often changes the nature of odours. Some persons, from disorder, retain

an insurable aversion to those smells which pleased them most before; and many have been known to have an antipathy to some animals whose presence they instantly perceive by the smell. From all this, therefore, the sense of smelling appears to be an uncertain monitor—easily disordered, and not much missed when totally wanting.

The sense most nearly allied to smelling is that of tasting. This sense have been willing to consider merely as a nicer kind of touch, and have undertaken to account in a very mechanical manner for the difference of flavours. "Such bodies," say they, "as are pointed, happening to be applied to the papillæ of the tongue, excite a very powerful sensation, and give us the idea of saltiness. Such, on the contrary, as are of a rounder figure slide smoothly along the papillæ, and are perceived to be sweet." In this manner they have with minute labour gone through the variety of imagined forms in bodies, and have given them as imaginary effects. All we can precisely determine on the nature of tastes is, that the bodies to be tasted must be either somewhat moistened or in some measure dissolved by the saliva, before they can produce a proper sensation; when both the tongue itself and the body to be tasted are extremely dry no taste whatever ensues. The sensation is then changed; and the tongue, instead of tasting, can only be said, like any other part of the body, to feel the object.

It is for this reason that children have a stronger relish of tastes than those who are more advanced in life. This organ with them, from the greater moisture of their bodies, is kept in greater perfection, and is consequently better adapted to perform its functions. Every person remembers how great a pleasure he found in sweets while a child; but his taste growing more obtuse with age, he is obliged to use artificial means to excite it. It is then that he is found to call in the assistance of powerful sauces, and strong relishes of salts and aromatics—all which the delicacy of his tender organ in childhood was unable to endure. His taste grows callous to the natural relishes, and is artificially formed to others more unnatural; so that the highest epicure may be said to have the most depraved taste—as it is owing to the bluntness of his organs that he is obliged to have recourse to such a variety of expedients to gratify his appetite.

As smells are often rendered agreeable by habit, so also tastes may be. Tobacco and coffee, so pleasing to many, are yet at first very disagreeable to all. It is not without perseverance that we begin to have a relish for them; we force Nature so long, that what was constraint in the beginning at last becomes inclination.

The grossest and yet the most useful of all the senses is that of feeling. We are often seen to survive under the loss of the rest; but of this we can never be totally deprived excepting with life. Although this sense is diffused over all parts of the body, yet it most frequently happens that those parts which are most exercised in touching acquire the greatest degree of accuracy. Thus the fingers by long habit become greater masters in the art than any others, even where the sensation is more delicate and fine. It is from this habit, therefore, and their peculiar formation—and not, as is supposed, from their being furnished with a greater number of nerves—that the fingers are thus perfectly qualified to judge of forms. Blind men, who are obliged to use them much oftener, have this sense much finer; so that the delicacy of the touch arises rather from the habit of constantly employing the fingers than from any fancied nervousness in their conformation.

All animals that are furnished with hands seem to have more understanding than others. Monkeys have so many actions like those of men, that they appear to have similar ideas of the form of bodies. All other creatures deprived of hands can have no distinct ideas

of the shape of the objects by which they are surrounded, as they want this organ, which serves to examine and measure their forms, their risings, and their depressions. A quadruped, probably, conceives as erroneous an idea of anything near him as a child would of a rock or of a mountain that it beheld at a distance. It may be for this reason that we often see them frightened at things with which they ought to be better acquainted. Fishes, whose bodies are covered with scales, and who have no organs of feeling, must be the most stupid of all animals. Serpents, which are likewise destitute, are yet, by winding round several bodies, more capable of judging of their form. All these, however, can have but very imperfect ideas from feeling; and we have already seen, when deprived of this sense, how little the rest of the senses are to be relied on.

Feeling, therefore, is the guardian, the judge, and the examiner of all the rest of the senses. It establishes their information and detects their errors. All the other senses are altered by time, and contradict their former evidence; but the touch still continues the same; and, though extremely confined in its operations, yet it is never found to deceive. The universe, to a man who had only used the rest of his senses, would be but a scene of illusion—every object misrepresented, and all its properties unknown. Mr. Buffon has imagined a man just newly brought into existence describing the illusion of his first sensations, and pointing out the steps by which he arrived at reality. He considers him as just created, and awaking amidst the productions of Nature; and, to animate the narrative still more strongly, he has made his philosophical man a speaker. The reader will no doubt recollect Adam's speech in Milton as being similar. All that I can say to obviate the imputation of plagiarism is, that the one treats the subject more as a poet, the other more as a philosopher. The philosopher's man describes his first sensations in the following manner:—

I well remember that joyful, anxious moment when I first became acquainted with my own existence. I was quite ignorant of what I was, how I was produced, or from whence I came. I opened my eyes: what an addition to my surprise! The light of the day, the azure vault of heaven, the verdure of the earth, the crystal of the waters—all employed me at once, and animated and filled me with inexpressible delight. I at first imagined that all these objects were within me, and made a part of myself.

Impressed with this idea I turned my eyes to the sun; its splendour dazzled and overpowered me; I shut them once more, and, to my great concern, I supposed that during this short interval of darkness I was again returning to nothing.

Afflicted, seized with astonishment, I pondered a moment on this great change, when I heard a variety of unexpected sounds. The whistling of the wind and the melody of the grove formed a concert, the softer cadence of which sunk upon my soul. I listened for some time, and was persuaded that all this music was within me.

Quite occupied with this new kind of existence, I had already forgotten the light which was my first inlet into life; when I once more opened my eyes, and found myself again in possession of my former happiness, the gratification of the two senses at once was a pleasure too great for utterance.

I turned my eyes upon a thousand various objects; I soon found that I could lose them and restore them at will; and amused myself more at leisure with a repetition of this new-made power.

I now began to gaze without emotion, and to hearken with tranquillity, when a light breeze, the freshness of which charmed me, wafted its perfumes to my sense of smelling, and gave me such satisfaction as even increased my self-love.

Agitated, roused by the various pleasures of my new

existence, I instantly arose, and perceived myself moved along as if by some unknown and secret power.

I had scarce proceeded forward when the novelty of my situation once more rendered me immovable. My surprise returned; I supposed that every object around me had been in motion; I gave to them that agitation which I produced by changing place; and the whole creation seemed once more in disorder.

I lifted my hand to my head; I touched my forehead; I felt my whole frame; I then supposed that my hand was the principal of my existence; all its formations were distinct and perfect, and so superior to the senses I had yet experienced, that I employed myself for some time in repeating its enjoyments: every part of my person I touched seemed to touch my hand in turn, and gave back sensation for sensation.

I soon found that this faculty was expanded over the whole surface of my body; and I now first began to perceive the limits of my existence, which I had in the beginning supposed spread over all the objects I saw.

Upon casting my eyes upon my body, and surveying my own form, I thought it greater than all the objects that surrounded me. I gazed upon my person with pleasure; I examined the formation of my hand and all its motions; it seemed to me large or little in proportion as I approached it to my eyes; I brought it very near, and it then hid almost every other object from my sight. I began soon, however, to find that my sight gave me uncertain information, and resolved to depend upon my feeling for redress.

This precaution was of the utmost service; I renewed my motions, and walked forward with my face turned towards the heavens. I happened to strike lightly against a palm-tree, and this renewed my surprise: I laid my hand on this strange body; it seemed replete with new wonders, for it did not return me sensation for sensation, as my former feelings had done. I perceived that there was something external, and which did not make a part of my own existence.

I now, therefore, resolved to touch whatever I saw, and vainly attempted to touch the sun; I stretched forth my arm, and felt only yielding air; at every effort I fell from one surprise into another, for every object appeared equally near me; and it was not till after an infinity of trials that I found some objects farther removed than the rest.

Amazed with the illusions and the uncertainty of my state, I sat down beneath a tree; and the most beautiful fruits hung upon it within my reach; I stretched forth my hand, and they instantly separated from the branch. I was proud of being able to grasp a substance without me; I held them up, and their weight appeared to me like an animated power that endeavoured to draw them to the earth. I found a pleasure in conquering their resistance.

I held them near my eye; I considered their form and beauty; their fragrance still more allured me to bring them nearer; I approached them to my lips, and drank in their odours; the perfume invited my sense of tasting, and I soon tried a new sense—how new! how exquisite! Hitherto I had tasted only of pleasure; but now it was luxury. The power of tasting gave me the idea of possession.

Flattered with this new acquisition, I continued its exercise, till, an agreeable languor stealing upon my mind, I felt all my limbs become heavy, and all my desires suspended. My sensations were now no longer vivid and distinct, but seemed to lose every object, and presented only feeble images confusedly marked. At that instant I sunk upon the flowery bank, and slumber seized me. All now seemed once more lost to me. It was then as if I was returning into my former nothing. How long my sleep continued I cannot tell, as I yet had no perception of time. My awaking appeared like a second birth; and I then perceived that I had ceased

for a time to exist. This produced a new sensation of fear, and from this interruption in life I began to conclude that I was not formed to exist for ever.

In this state of doubt and perplexity I began to harbour new suspicions, and to fear that sleep had robbed me of some of my late powers; when, turning on one side to resolve my doubts, what was my amazement to behold another being like myself stretched by my side! New ideas now began to arise; new passions, as yet unperceived, with fears and pleasures, all took possession of my mind and prompted my curiosity: love served to complete that happiness which was begun in the individual, and every sense was gratified in all its varieties.

CHAP. X.

OF OLD AGE AND DEATH.

Everything in Nature has its improvement and its decay. The human form is no sooner arrived at its state of perfection than it begins to decline. The alteration is at first insensible; and often several years elapse before we find ourselves grown old. The news of this disagreeable change too generally comes from without; and we learn from others that we grow old before we are willing to believe the report.

When the body has come to its full height, and is extended into its just dimensions, it then also begins to receive an additional bulk, which rather loads than assists it. This is formed from fat, which generally, at the age of thirty-five or forty, covers all the muscles and interrupts their activity. Every action is then performed with greater labour, and the increase of size only serves as a forerunner of decay.

The bones, also, become every day more solid. In the embryo they are as soft almost as the muscles and the flesh; but by degrees they harden, and acquire their natural vigour; but still, however, the circulation is carried on through them, and how hard soever the bones may seem, yet the blood holds its current through them as through all other parts of the body. Of this we may be convinced by an experiment which was accidentally discovered by our ingenious countryman, Mr. Belcher. Perceiving at a friend's house that the bones of hogs which were fed upon madder were red, he tried it upon various animals by mixing this root with their usual food, and found that it tinted the bones in all—an evident demonstration that the juices of the body had a circulation through the bones. He fed some animals alternately upon madder and their common food for some time, and he found their bones tinted with alternate layers in conformity with their manner of living. From all this he naturally concluded that the blood circulated through the bones as it does through every other part of the body; and that, how solid soever they seemed, yet, like the softest parts, they were furnished through all their substances with their proper canals. Nevertheless, these canals are of very different capacities during the different stages of life. In infancy they are capacious, and the blood flows almost as freely through the bones as through any other part of the body. In manhood their size is greatly diminished; the vessels are almost imperceptible, and the circulation through them is proportionably slow. But in the decline of life, the blood which flows through the bones no longer contributing to their growth must necessarily serve to increase their hardness. The channels that everywhere run through the human frame may be compared to those pipes that we everywhere see crusted on the inside, by the water for a long continuance running through them. Both every day grow less and less, by the small rigid particles which are deposited within them. Thus as the vessels are by degrees diminished, the juices, also, which

were necessary for the circulation through them, are diminished in proportion; till at length, in old age, these props of the human frame are not only more solid but more brittle.

The cartilages or gristles, which may be considered as bones beginning to be formed, grow also more rigid. The juices circulating through them (for there is a circulation through all parts of the body) every day contribute to render them harder; so that these substances, which in youth are elastic and pliant in age, become pliant and bony. As these cartilages are generally placed near the joints, the motion of the joints also must of consequence become more difficult. Thus, in old age every action of the body is performed with labour; and the cartilages, formerly so supple, will now sooner break than bend.

As the cartilages acquire hardness and unfit the joints for motion, so also that mucous liquor which is always separated between the joints, and which serves, like oil to a hinge, to give them an easy and ready play, is now grown more scanty. It becomes thicker and more clammy—more unfit for answering the purposes of motion; and from thence, in old age every joint is not only stiff but awkward. At every motion this clammy liquor is heard to crack; and it is not without the greatest effort of the muscles that its resistance is overcome. I have seen an old person who never moved a single joint that did not thus give notice of the violence done it.

The membranes which cover the bones, the joints, and the rest of the body, become as we grow old more dense and more dry. Those which surround the bones soon cease to be ductile. The fibres, of which the muscles or flesh is composed, become every day more rigid; and, while to the touch the body seems as we advance in years to grow softer, it is in reality increasing in hardness. It is the skin and not the flesh that we feel upon such occasions. The fat and flabbiness of that seems to give an appearance of softness, which the flesh itself is very far from having. There are few can doubt this, after trying the difference between the flesh of young and old animals. The first is soft and tender—the last is hard and dry.

The skin is the only part of the body that age does not contribute to harden. That stretches to every degree of tension; and we have horrid instances of its pliancy in many disorders incident to humanity. In youth, therefore, while the body is vigorous and increasing, it still gives way to its growth. But although it thus adapts itself to our increase, it does not in the same manner conform to our decay. The skin, which in youth was filled and glossy, when the body begins to decline has not elasticity enough to shrink entirely with its diminution. It therefore hangs in wrinkles, which no art can remove. The wrinkles of the body in general proceed from this cause; but those of the face seem to proceed from another—namely, from the many varieties of positions into which it is put by the speech, the food, or the passions. Every grimace and every passion wrinkles up the visage into different forms. These are visible enough in young persons; but what at first was accidental or transitory becomes unalterably fixed in the visage as it grows older. From hence we may conclude that a freedom from passions not only adds to the happiness of the mind, but preserves the beauty of the face; and the person who has not felt their influence is less strongly marked by the decays of nature.

Hence, therefore, as we advance in age the bones, the cartilages, the membranes, the skin, and every fibre of the body become more solid, more brittle, and more dry. Every part shrinks—every motion becomes more slow; the circulation of the fluids is performed with less freedom—perspiration diminishes—the secretions alter—the digestion becomes slow and laborious—and the juices no longer serving to convey their accustomed nourishment, those parts may be said to live no longer

when the circulation ceases. Thus the body dies by little and little—all its functions are diminished by degrees—life is driven from one part of the frame to another—universal rigidity prevails—and death at last seizes upon the little that is left.

As the bones, the cartilages, the muscles, and all other parts of the body are softer in women than in men, these parts must consequently require a longer time to come to that hardness which hastens death. Women, therefore, ought to be a longer time in growing old than men; and this is actually the case. If we consult the tables which have been drawn up respecting human life, we shall find that, after a certain age, they are more long-lived than men, all other circumstances the same. A woman of sixty has a better chance than a man of the same age to live till eighty. Upon the whole, we may infer that such persons as have been slow in coming up to maturity will also be slow in growing old; and this holds as well with regard to other animals as to man.

The whole duration of the life of either vegetables or animals may be in some measure determined from their manner of coming to maturity. The tree or the animal which takes but a short time to increase to its utmost pitch perishes much sooner than such as are less premature. In both, the increase upwards is first accomplished; and not till they have acquired their greatest degree of height do they begin to spread in bulk. Man grows in stature till about the age of seventeen; but his body is not completely developed till about thirty. Dogs, on the other hand, are at their utmost size in a year, and in another year become as bulky as they usually are. However, man, who is so long in growing, continues to live for fourscore or a hundred years, but the dog seldom above twelve or thirteen. In general, also, it may be said that large animals live longer than little ones, as they usually take a longer time to grow; but in all animals one thing is equally certain—that they carry the causes of their own decay about with them, and that their deaths are necessary and inevitable. The prospects which some visionaries have formed of perpetuating life by remedies have been often enough proved false by their own example. Such unaccountable schemes would therefore have died with them, had not the love of life always augmented our credulity.

When the body is naturally well formed, it is possible to lengthen out the period of life for some years by management. Temperance in diet is often found conducive to this end. The famous Cornaro, who lived to above a hundred years, although his constitution was naturally feeble, is a strong instance of the benefit of an abstemious life. Moderation in the passions may also contribute to extend the term of our existence. Fontenelle, the celebrated French writer, was naturally of a very weak and delicate state of body. He was affected by the smallest irregularities, and frequently suffered severe fits of illness from the most trifling causes. But the remarkable equality of his temper and his seeming want of passion lengthened his life to more than a hundred years. It was remarkable for him that nothing could vex or make him uneasy; every occurrence seemed equally pleasing; and no event, however unfortunate, seemed to come unexpected. However, the term of life can be prolonged but for a little time by any art we can use. We are told of men who have lived beyond the ordinary duration of human existence—such as Parr, who lived to a hundred and forty-four; and Jenkins, who lived to a hundred and sixty-five. Yet these men used no peculiar arts to prolong life; on the contrary, it appears that these, as well as some others remarkable for their longevity, were peasants accustomed to the greatest fatigues—who had no settled rules of diet, but who often indulged in accidental excesses. Indeed, if we consider that the European, the Negro, the Chinese, and the American—the civilised man and the savage, the rich and the poor, the inhabitant of the city and of the country—though all so

different in other respects, are yet entirely similar in the period allotted to them for living; if we consider that neither the difference of race, of climate, of nourishment, of convenience, or of soil, makes any difference in the term of life—if we consider that those men who live upon raw flesh or dried fish, upon sago or rice, upon cassava or upon roots, nevertheless live as long as those who are fed upon bread and meat, we shall readily be brought to acknowledge that the duration of life depends neither upon habit, custom, nor the quality of food; we shall confess that nothing can change the laws of that mechanism which regulates the number of our years, and which can chiefly be affected only by long fasting or great excess.

If there be any difference in the different periods of man's existence, it ought principally to be ascribed to the quality of the air. It has been observed that in elevated situations there have been found more old people than in those that were low. The mountains of Scotland, Wales, Auvergne, and Switzerland have furnished more instances of extreme old age than the plains of Holland, Flanders, Germany, and Poland. But in general the duration of life is nearly the same in most countries. Man, if not cut off by accidental diseases, is often found to live to ninety or a hundred years. Our ancestors did not live beyond that date; and since the time of David this term has undergone very little alteration.

If we be asked how in the beginning men lived so much longer than at present, and by what means their lives were extended to nine hundred and thirty, or even nine hundred and sixty years, it may be answered, that the productions of the earth upon which they fed might be of a different nature at that time from what they are at present. It may be answered, that the term was abridged by Divine Command in order to keep the earth from being overstocked with human inhabitants; since, if every person were now to live and generate for nine hundred years, mankind would be increased to such a degree that there would be no room for subsistence; so that the plan of Providence would be altered—which is seen not to produce life without providing a proper supply.

But to whatever extent life may be prolonged, or however some may have delayed the effects of age, death is the certain goal to which all are hastening. All the causes of decay which have been mentioned contribute to bring on this dreadful dissolution. However, Nature approaches to this awful period by slow and imperceptible degrees; life is consuming day after day, and some one of our faculties or vital principles is every hour dying before the rest; so that death is only the last shade in the picture; and it is probable that man suffers a greater change in going from youth to age than from age into the grave. When we first begin to live, our lives may scarcely be said to be our own; as the child grows life increases in the same proportion, and is at its height in the prime of manhood. But as soon as the body begins to decrease life decreases also; for, as the human frame diminishes and its juices circulate in smaller quantities, life diminishes and circulates with less vigour; so that as we begin to live by degrees we begin to die in the same manner.

Why, then, should we fear death, if our lives have been such as not to make eternity dreadful? Why should we fear that moment which is prepared by a thousand other moments of the same kind?—the first pangs of sickness being probably greater than the last struggles of departure. Death in most persons is as calmly endured as the disorder that brings it on. If we inquire from those whose business it is to attend the sick and the dying, we shall find that, except in a very few acute cases where the patient dies in agonies, the greatest number die quietly, and seemingly without pain: and even the agonies of the former rather terrify the spectators than torment the patient; for how many have we who have

been accidentally relieved from this extremity, and yet had no memory of what they then endured? In fact, they had ceased to live during that time when they ceased to have sensation; and their pains were only those of which they had an idea.

The greatest number of mankind die, therefore, without sensation; and of those few that still preserve their faculties entire to the last moment, there is scarce one of them that does not also preserve the hopes of still outliving his disorder. Nature, for the happiness of man, has rendered this sentiment stronger than his reason. A person dying of an incurable disorder—which he must know to be so by the frequent examples of his case, which he perceives to be so by the inquietude of all around him, by the tears of his friends, and the departure of the face of the physician—is, nevertheless, still in hopes of getting over it. His interest is so great that he only attends to his own representations; the judgment of others is considered as a hasty conclusion: and while death every moment makes inroads upon his constitution, and destroys life in some part, hope still seems to escape the universal ruin, and is the last that submits to the blow.

Cast your eyes upon a sick man, who has a hundred times told you that he felt himself dying, that he was convinced he could not recover, and that he was ready to expire; examine what passes on his visage, when, through zeal or indiscretion, any one comes to tell him that his end is at hand. You will see him change, like one who is told an unexpected piece of news. He now appears not to have thoroughly believed what he had been telling you himself; he doubted much, and his fears were greater than his hopes: but he still had some feeble expectations of living, and would not have seen the approaches of death unless he had been alarmed by the mistaken assiduity of his attendants.

Death, therefore, is not that terrible thing which we suppose it to be. It is a spectre which frightens us at a distance, but which disappears when we come to approach it more closely. Our ideas of its terrors are conceived in prejudice, and dressed up by fancy; we regard it not only as the greatest misfortune, but as also an evil accompanied with the most excruciating tortures; we have even increased our apprehensions by reasoning on the extent of our sufferings. "It must be dreadful," say some, "since it is sufficient to separate the soul from the body; it must be long, since our sufferings are proportioned to the succession of our ideas; and these, being painful, must succeed each other with extreme rapidity." In this manner has false philosophy laboured to augment the miseries of our nature, and to aggravate that period which Nature has kindly covered with insensibility. Neither the mind nor the body can suffer these calamities; the mind is at that time mostly without ideas, and the body too much enfeebled to be capable of perceiving its pain. A very acute pain produces either death or fainting, which is a state similar to death. The body can suffer but to a certain degree; if the torture becomes excessive it destroys itself, and the mind ceases to perceive when the body can no longer endure.

In this manner excessive pain admits of no reflection; and wherever there are any signs of it, we may be sure that the sufferings of the patient are no greater than what we ourselves may remember to have endured.

But, in the article of death, we have many instances in which the dying person has shown that very reflection which presupposes an absence of the greatest pain; and consequently that pang which ends life cannot even be so great as those which have preceded. Thus, when Charles XII. was shot at the siege of Frederickshall, he was seen to clap his hand on the hilt of his sword; and although the blow was great enough to terminate one of the boldest and bravest lives in the world, yet it was not painful enough to destroy reflection. He perceived himself attacked; he reflected that he ought to defend

himself—and his body obeyed the impulse of his mind, even in the last extremity. Thus it is the prejudice of persons in health, and not the body in pain, that makes us suffer from the approach of death: we have all our lives contracted a habit of making out excessive pleasures and pains; and nothing but repeated experience shows us how seldom the one can be suffered or the other enjoyed to the utmost.

If there be anything necessary to confirm what we have said concerning the gradual cessation of life or the insensible approaches of our end, nothing can more effectually prove it than the uncertainty of the signs of death. If we consult what Winslow or Brühler have said upon this subject, we shall be convinced that between life and death the shade is so very undistinguishable, that even all the powers of art can scarcely determine where the one ends and the other begins. The colour of the visage, the warmth of the body, the suppleness of the joints, are but uncertain signs of life still subsisting; while, on the contrary, the paleness of the complexion, the coldness of the body, the stiffness of the extremities, the cessation of all motion, and the total insensibility of all the parts, are but uncertain marks of death begun. In the same manner, also, with regard to the pulse and the breathing, these motions are often kept under that it is impossible to perceive them. By approaching a looking-glass to the mouth of a person supposed to be dead, people often expect to find whether he breathes or not. But this is a very uncertain experiment: the glass is frequently sullied by the vapour of the dead man's body; and often the person is still alive although the glass is no way tarnished. In the same manner neither burning nor scarifying, neither noises in the ears nor pungent spirits applied to the nostrils, give certain signs of the discontinuance of life; and there are many instances of persons who have endured them all, and afterwards recovered without any external assistance, to the astonishment of the spectators. How careful, therefore, should we be, before we commit those who are dearest to us to the grave, to be well assured of their departure: experience, justice, humanity, all persuade us not to hasten the funerals of our friends, but to keep their bodies unburied until we have certain signs of their real decease.

CHAP. XI.

OF THE VARIETIES IN THE HUMAN RACE.

Hitherto we have compared man with other animals; we now come to compare men with each other. We have hitherto considered him as an individual endowed with excellencies above the rest of the creation; we now come to consider the advantages which men have over men, and the various kinds with which our earth is inhabited.

If we compare the minute differences of mankind, there is scarce one nation upon the earth that entirely resembles another; and there may be said to be as many different kinds of men as there are countries inhabited. One polished nation does not differ more from another than the merest savages do from those savages that lie even contiguous to them; and it frequently happens that a river or a mountain divides two barbarous tribes that are unlike each other in manners, customs, features, and complexion. But these differences, however perceivable, do not form such distinctions as come within a general picture of the varieties of mankind. Custom, accident, or fashion may produce considerable alterations in neighbouring nations. Their being derived from ancestors of a different climate or complexion may contribute to make accidental distinctions, which every day grow less; and it may be said that two neighbour-

ing nations, how unlike soever, at first, will assimilate by degrees—and, by long continuance, the difference between them will at last become almost imperceptible. It is not, therefore, between contiguous nations we are to look for any strong marked varieties in the human species; it is by comparing the inhabitants of opposite climates and distant countries—those who live within the polar circle with those who live beneath the equator—those who live on one side of the globe with those who occupy the other.

Of all animals, the differences between mankind are the smallest. Of the lower races of creatures the changes are so great as often entirely to disguise the natural animal, and to distort or disfigure its shape. But the chief differences in man are rather taken from the tincture of his skin than the variety of his figure; and in all climates he preserves his erect deportment and the marked superiority of his form. If we look round the world, there seem to be not above six distinct varieties in the human species, each of which is strongly marked, and speaks the kind seldom to have mixed with any other. But there is nothing in the shape, nothing in the faculties, that shows their different origins; and the varieties of climate, of nourishment, and custom are sufficient to produce every change.

The first distinct race of men is found round the polar regions. The Laplanders, the Esquimaux Indians, the Samoid Tartars, the inhabitants of Nova Zembla, the Boranians, the Greenlanders, and the natives of Kamtschatka, may be considered as one peculiar race of people—all greatly resembling each other in their stature, their complexion, their customs, and their ignorance. These nations being under a rigorous climate, where the productions of Nature are but few and the provisions coarse and unwholesome, their bodies have shrunk to the nature of their food; their complexions have suffered from cold almost a similar change to what heat is known to produce—their colour being a deep brown, in some places inclining to actual blackness. These, therefore, in general are found to be a race of short stature and odd shape, with countenances as savage as their manners are barbarous. The visage in these countries is large and broad, the nose flat and short, the eyes of a yellowish brown inclining to blackness, the eye-lids drawn towards the temples, the cheek-bones extremely high, the mouth very large, the lips thick and turned outwards, the voice thin and squeaking, the head large, the hair black and straight, the skin of a dark-greyish colour. They are short in stature, the generality not being above four feet high, and the tallest not above five. Among all these nations the women are deformed as the men, and they resemble them so nearly that one cannot at first distinguish the sexes among them.

These nations not only resemble each other in their deformity, their dwarfishness, and the colour of their hair and eyes, but they have in a great measure the same inclinations and the same manners, being all equally rude, superstitious, and stupid. The Danish Laplanders have a large black cat, to which they communicate their secrets and consult in all their affairs. Among the Swedish Laplanders there is in every family a drum for consulting the devil; and although these nations are robust and nimble, yet they are so cowardly that they never can be brought into the field. Gustavus Adolphus attempted to form a regiment of Laplanders, but he found it impossible to accomplish his design; for it would seem that they can live only in their own country and in their own manner. They make use of skates, which are made of fir, of near three feet long and half a foot broad; these are pointed, raised before, and tied to the foot by straps of leather. With these they skate upon the icy snow with such velocity, that they very easily overtake the swiftest animals. They make use also of a pole, pointed with iron at one end and rounded at the other. This pole serves to push them along, to direct their course,

to support them from falling, to stop the impetuosity of their motion, and to kill the game which they have overtaken. Upon these skates they descend the steepest mountains and scale the most craggy precipices; and in these exercises the women are not less skilful than the men. They have all the use of the bow and arrow, which seems to be a contrivance common to all barbarous nations; and which at first, however, required no small skill to invent. They launch a javelin, also, with great force; some say they can hit a mark no larger than a crown-piece at thirty yards distance, and with such force as would pierce a man through. They are all hunters, and particularly pursue the ermine, the fox, the ounce, and the martin, for the sake of their skins. These they barter with their southern neighbours for brandy and tobacco, both of which they are fond of to excess. Their food is principally dried fish, the flesh of rein-deer, and bears. Their bread is composed of the bones of fishes pounded and mixed with the inside tender bark of the pine-tree. Their drink is train-oil or brandy, and, when deprived of these, water in which juniper-berries have been infused. With regard to their morals, they have all the virtues of simplicity and all the vices of ignorance. They offer their wives and daughters to strangers, and seem to think it a particular honour if their offer is accepted. They have no idea of religion or a Supreme Being; the greatest number of them are idolaters; and their superstition is as profound as their worship is contemptible. Wretched and ignorant as they are, yet they do not want pride; they set themselves far above the rest of mankind; and Krantz assures us, that when the Greenlanders are got together nothing is so customary among them as to turn the Europeans into ridicule. They are obliged, indeed, to yield them the pre-eminence in understanding and mechanical arts; but they do not know how to appreciate them. They therefore count themselves the only civilised and well-bred people in the world; and it is common with them, when they see a quiet or a modest stranger, to say that he is almost as well bred as a Greenlander.

From this description, therefore, this whole race of people may be considered as distinct from any other. Their long continuance in a climate the most inhospitable, their being obliged to subsist on food the most coarse and ill prepared, the savageness of their manners, and their laborious lives, all have contributed to shorten their stature and to deform their bodies. In proportion as we approach towards the north pole the size of the natives appear to diminish, growing less and less as we advance higher, till we come to those latitudes that are destitute of all inhabitants whatsoever.

The wretched natives of these climates seem fitted by Nature to endure the rigours of their situation. As their food is but scanty and precarious, their patience in hunger is amazing. A man who has eaten nothing for four days can manage his little canoe in the most furious waves, and calmly subsist in the midst of a tempest that would quickly dash a European boat to pieces. Their strength is not less amazing than their patience; a woman among them will carry a piece of timber or a stone near double the weight of what a European can lift. Their bodies are of a dark grey all over, and their faces brown or olive. The tincture of their skins partly seems to arise from their dirty manner of living, being generally daubed with train-oil; and partly from the rigours of climate, as the sudden alterations of cold and raw air in winter, and of burning heats in summer, shade their complexions by degrees, till, in a succession of generations, they at last become almost black. As the countries in which these reside are the most barren, so the natives seem the most barbarous of any part of the earth. Their more southern neighbours of America treat them with the same scorn that a polished nation would treat a savage one; and we may readily judge of the rudeness of those manners which

even a native of Canada can think more barbarous than his own.

But the gradations of Nature are imperceptible; and, while the north is peopled with such miserable inhabitants, there are here and there to be found upon the edges of these regions people of larger stature and completer figure. A whole race of the dwarfish breed is often found to come down from the north, and settle more to the southward; and, on the contrary, it sometimes happens that southern nations are seen higher up in the midst of these diminutive tribes, where they have continued for time immemorial. Thus the Ostiac Tartars seem to be a race that have travelled down from the north, and to be originally sprung from the minute savages we have been describing. There are also Norwegians and Finlanders of proper stature, who are seen to inhabit in latitudes higher even than Lapland. These, however, are but accidental migrations, and serve as shades to unite the distinct varieties of mankind.

The second great variety in the human species seems to be that of the Tartar race; from whence, probably, the little men we have been describing originally proceeded. The Tartar country, taken in general, comprehends the greatest part of Asia; and is consequently a general name given to a number of nations of various forms and complexions. But however they seem to differ from each other, they all agree in being very unlike the people of any other country. All the nations have the upper part of the visage very broad, and wrinkled even while yet in their youth. Their noses are short and flat, their eyes little, and sunk in their heads; and, in some of them, they are seen five or six inches asunder. Their cheek-bones are high, the lower part of their visage narrow, the chin long and advanced forward, their teeth of an enormous size, and growing separate from each other; their eye-brows thick, large, and covering their eyes; their eye-lids thick, the face broad and flat, the complexion olive-coloured, and the hair black. They are of a middle size, extremely strong, and very robust. They have but little beard, which grows stragglingly on the chin. They have large thighs and short legs. The ugliest of all are the Calmucks, in whose appearance there seems to be something frightful. They all lead an erratic life, remaining under tents of hair or skins. They live upon horse-flesh and that of camels, either raw or a little sodden between the horse and the saddle. They also eat fish dried in the sun. Their most usual drink is mares' milk fermented with millet ground into meal. They all have the head shaven, except a lock of hair on the top, which they let grow sufficiently long to form into tresses on each side of the face. The women, who are as ugly as the men, wear their hair, which they bind up with bits of copper and other ornaments of a like nature. The majority of these nations have no religion, no settled notions of morality, no decency of behaviour. They are chiefly robbers; and the natives of Dagestan, who live near their more polished neighbours, make a traffic of Tartar slaves who have been stolen, and sell them to the Turks and the Persians. Their chief riches consist in horses, of which perhaps there are more in Tartary than in any other part of the world. The natives are taught by custom to live in the same place with their horses; they are continually employed in managing them, and at last bring them to such great obedience that the horse seems actually to understand the rider's intention.

To this race of men we must also refer the Chinese and the Japanese, however different they seem in their manners and ceremonies. It is the form of the body that we are now principally considering; and there is between these countries a surprising resemblance. It is in general allowed that the Chinese have broad faces, small eyes, flat noses, and scarce any beard; that they are broad and square-shouldered, and rather less in stature than Europeans. These are marks common to

them and the Tartars, and they may therefore be considered as being derived from the original. "I have observed," says Chardin, "that in all the people from the east and the north of the Caspian Sea to the peninsula of Malacca that the lines of the face and the formation of the visage is the same. This has induced me to believe that all these nations are derived from the same original, however different either their complexions or their manners may appear; for as to the complexion, that proceeds entirely from the climate and the food; and as to the manners, these are generally the result of their different degrees of wealth or power." That they come from one stock is also evident from this—that the Tartars who settle in China soon resemble the Chinese; and, on the contrary, the Chinese who settle in Tartary soon assume the figure and the manners of the Tartars.

The Japanese so much resemble the Chinese, that one cannot hesitate to rank them in the same class. They only differ in being rather browner, as they inhabit a more southern climate. They are in general described as of a brown complexion, a short stature, a broad flat face, a very little beard, and black hair. Their customs and ceremonies are nearly the same, their ideas of beauty similar, and their artificial deformities of blackening the teeth and bandaging the feet entirely alike in both countries. They both, therefore, proceed from the same stock; and although they differ very much from their brutal progenitors, yet they owe their civilisation wholly to the mildness of the climate in which they reside, and to the soil's peculiar fertility. To this tribe we may also refer the Cochin Chinese, the Siamese, the Tonquinese, and the inhabitants of Aracan, Laos, and Pegu, who, though all differing from the Chinese and each other, nevertheless have too strong a resemblance not to betray their common origin.

Another, which makes the third variety in the human species, is that of the Southern Asiatics, the form of whose features and persons may be easily distinguished from those of the Tartar races. The nations that inhabit the peninsula of India seem to be the principal flock from whence the inhabitants of the islands which lie scattered over the Indian Ocean have been peopled. They are in general of a slender shape, with long, straight, black hair, and often with Roman noses. Thus they resemble the Europeans in stature and features, but greatly differ in colour and habit of body. The Indians are of an olive colour, and in the more southern parts quite black—although the word *Mogul* in their language signifies a white man. The women are extremely delicate, and bathe very often: they are of an olive colour as well as the men; their legs and thighs are long and their bodies short, which is the opposite to what is seen among the women of Europe. They are, as I am informed, by no means so fruitful as the European women; but they feel the pains of child-birth with much less sensibility, and are generally up and well the day following. In fact, these pains seem greatest in all countries where the women are the most delicate, or the constitution enfeebled by luxury or indolence. The women of savage nations seem in a great measure exempt from painful labours; and even the hard-working wives of the peasants among ourselves have this advantage from a life of industry, that their child-bearing is less painful. Over all India the children arrive sooner at maturity than with us in Europe. They often marry and consummate—the husband at ten years old and the wife at eight; and they frequently have children at that age. However, the women who are mothers so soon cease bearing before they are thirty; and at that time they appear wrinkled, and seem marked with all the deformities of age. The Indians have long been remarkable for their cowardice and effeminacy—every hero that has but attempted to invade their country having succeeded. The warmth of the climate entirely influences their manners; they are slothful, submissive, and luxu-

rious; satisfied with sensual happiness alone, they find no pleasure in thinking; and contented with slavery, they are ready to obey any master. Many tribes among them eat nothing that has life; they are fearful of killing the meanest insect; and have even erected hospitals for the maintenance of all kinds of vermin. The Asiatic dress is a loose flowing garment, rather fitted for the purposes of peace and indolence than of industry or war. The vigour of the Asiatics is in general conformable to their dress and nourishment: fed upon rice, and clothed in effeminate silk vestments, their soldiers are unable to oppose the onset of a European army; and from the time of Alexander to the present day we have scarce any instance of their success in arms. Upon the whole, therefore, they may be considered as a feeble race of sensualists, too dull to find rapture in any pleasures, and too indolent to turn their gravity into wisdom. To this class we may refer the Persians and Arabians, and, in general, the inhabitants of the islands that lie scattered in the Indian Ocean.

The fourth striking variety in the human species is to be found among the Negroes of Africa. This gloomy race of mankind is found to blacken all the southern parts of Africa, from eighteen degrees north of the line to its extreme termination at the Cape of Good Hope. I know it is said that the Caffres, who inhabit the southern extremity of that large continent, are not to be ranked among the Negro race; however, the difference between them in point of colour and features is so small, that they may very easily be grouped in this general picture; and in the one or two that I have seen I could not perceive the smallest difference. Each of the Negro nations, it must be owned, differ from each other; they have their peculiar countries for beauty, like us; and different nations, as in Europe, pride themselves upon the regularity of their features. Those of Guinea, for instance, are extremely ugly, and have an unsupportable scent; those of Mosambique are reckoned beautiful, and have no ill smell whatsoever. The Negroes in general are of a black colour, with a smooth soft skin. This smoothness proceeds from the downy softness of the hair which grows upon it, the strength of which gives a roughness to the feel in those of a white complexion. Their skins, therefore, have a velvet smoothness, and seem less braced upon the muscles than ours. The hair of their heads differs entirely from what we are accustomed to, being soft, woolly, and short. The beard, also, partakes of the same qualities; but in this it differs, that it soon turns grey, which the hair is seldom found to do; so that several are seen with white beards and black hair at the same time. Their eyes are generally of a deep hazle; their noses flat and short; their lips thick and tumid; and their teeth of an ivory whiteness. This their only beauty, however, is set off by the colour of their skin; the contrast between the black and white being the more observable. It is false to say that their features are deformed by art; since, in the Negro children born in European countries, the same deformities are seen to prevail—the same flatness in the nose and the same prominence in the lips. They are in general said to be well shaped; but of such as I have seen I never found one that might be justly called so—their legs being mostly ill formed, and commonly bending outward on the shin-bone. But it is not only in those parts of their bodies that are obvious that they are disproportioned; those parts which among us are usually concealed by dress with them are large and languid. The women's breasts after bearing one child hang down below the navel; and it is customary with them to suckle the child at their backs by throwing the breast over the shoulder. As their persons are thus naturally deformed, at least to our imaginations, their minds are equally incapable of strong exertions. The climate seems to relax their mental powers still more than those of the body; they are, therefore, in general found to be

stupid, indolent, and mischievous. The Arabians themselves, many colonies of whom have migrated southward into the most inland parts of Africa, seem to have degenerated from their ancestors; and forgetting their ancient learning and losing their beauty, they have become a race scarce any way distinguishable from the original natives. Nor does it seem to have fared otherwise with the Portuguese, who, about two centuries ago, settled along this coast. They also are become almost as black as the Negroes; and are said by some to be even more barbarous.

The inhabitants of America make a fifth race, as different from all the rest in colour as they are distinct in habitation. The natives of America (except in the northern extremity, where they resemble the Laplanders) are of a red or copper colour; and although, in the old world, different climates produce a variety of complexions and customs, the natives of the new continent seem to resemble each other in almost every respect. They are all nearly of one colour; all have black, thick, straight hair, and thin black beards, which, however, they take care to pluck out by the roots. They have in general flat noses, with high cheek-bones and small eyes, and these deformities of nature they endeavour to increase by art: they flatten the nose, and often the whole head, of their children, while the bones are yet susceptible of every impression. They paint the body and face of various colours, and consider the hair upon any part of it except the head as a deformity which they are careful to eradicate. Their limbs are generally slighter made than those of the Europeans; and I am assured they are far from being so strong. All these savages seem to be cowardly; they seldom are known to face their enemies in the field, but fall upon them at an advantage, and the greatness of their fears serves to increase the rigours of their cruelty. The wants which they often sustain make them surprisingly patient in adversity; distress, by being grown familiar, becomes less terrible; so that their patience is less the result of fortitude than of custom. They have all a serious air, although they seldom think; and, however cruel to their enemies, are kind and just to each other. In short, the customs of savage nations in every country are almost the same; a wild, independent, and precarious life produces a peculiar train of virtues and vices; and patience and hospitality, indolence and rapacity, content and sincerity, are found not less among the natives of America than all the barbarous nations of the globe.

The sixth and last variety of the human species is that of the Europeans, and the nations bordering on them. In this class we may mention the Georgians, Circassians, and Mingrelians—the inhabitants of Asia Minor and the northern parts of Africa—together with a part of those countries which lie north-west of the Caspian Sea. The inhabitants of these countries differ a good deal from each other; but they generally agree in the colour of their bodies, the beauty of their complexions, the largeness of their limbs, and the vigour of their understanding. Those arts which might have had their invention among other races of mankind have come to perfection there. In barbarous countries, the inhabitants go either naked or are awkwardly clothed in furs or feathers; in countries semi-barbarous the robes are loose and flowing; but here the clothing is less made for show than expedition, and unites as much as possible the extremes of ornament and despatch.

To one or other of these classes we may refer the people of every country; and as each nation has been less visited by strangers, or has had less commerce with the rest of mankind, we find their persons and their manners more strongly impressed with one or other of the characters mentioned above. On the contrary, in those places where trade has long flourished, or where enemies have made many incursions, the races are usually found blended, and properly fall beneath no one cha-

acter. Thus, in the islands of the Indian Ocean, where a trade has been carried on for time immemorial, the inhabitants appear to be a mixture of all the nations upon the earth; white, olive, brown, and black men are all seen living together in the same city, and propagate a mixed breed that can be referred to none of the classes into which naturalists have thought proper to divide mankind.

Of all the colours by which mankind is diversified, it is easy to perceive that ours is not only the most beautiful to the eye but the most advantageous. The fair complexion seems, if I may so express it, as a transparent covering to the soul; all the variations of the passions, every expression of joy or sorrow, flows to the cheek, and, without language, marks the mind. In the slightest change of health, also, the colour of the European face is the most exact index, and often teaches us to prevent those disorders that we do not as yet perceive: not but that the African black and the Asiatic olive complexions admit of their alterations also; but these are neither so distinct nor so visible as with us; and, in some countries, the colour of the visage is never found to change; but the face continues in the same settled shade in shame and in sickness, in anger and despair.

The colour, therefore, most natural to man ought to be that which is most becoming; and it is found that in all regions the children are born fair, or at least red, and that they grow more black or tawny as they advance in age. It would seem, therefore, that man is naturally white; since the same causes that darken the complexion in infants may have originally operated in slower degrees in blackening whole nations. We could therefore readily account for the blackness of different nations, did we not see the Americans, who live under the line, as well as the natives of Negroland, who are of a red colour, and but a very small shade darker than the natives of the northern latitudes in the same continent. For this reason, some have sought for other causes of blackness than the climate; and have endeavoured to prove that the blacks are a race of people bred from one man, who was marked with accidental blackness. This, however, is but mere ungrounded conjecture; and, although the Americans are not so dark as the Negroes, yet we must still continue in the ancient opinion that the deepness of the colour proceeds from the excessive heat of the climate; for if we compare the heats of Africa with those of America, we shall find they bear no proportion to each other. In America, all that part of the continent which lies under the line is cool and pleasant, either shaded by mountains or refreshed by breezes from the sea; but in Africa, the wide tract of country that lies under the line is very extensive, and the soil sandy; the reflection of the sun, therefore, from so large a surface of earth is almost intolerable; and it is not to be wondered at that the inhabitants should bear in their looks marks of the inhospitable climate. In America the country is but thinly inhabited, and the more torrid tracts are generally left desert by the inhabitants, for which reason they are not so deeply tinged by the beams of the sun; but in Africa the whole face of the country is fully peopled, and the natives are obliged to endure their situation without the power of migration. It is there, consequently, that they are in a manner tied down to feel all the severity of the heat; and their complexions take the darkest hue they are capable of receiving. We need not, therefore, have recourse to any imaginary propagation from persons accidentally black, since the climate is an obvious and sufficient cause to produce the effect.

In fact, if we examine the complexions of different countries we shall find them darken in proportion to the heat of their climate, and the shades gradually to deepen as they approach the line. Some nations, indeed, may be found not so much tinged by the sun as others, although they lie nearer the line; but this ever proceeds

from some accidental causes—either from the country lying higher, and consequently being colder, or from the natives bathing oftener, and leading a more civilised life. In general, it may be asserted that as we approach the line we find the inhabitants of each country grow browner, until the colour deepens into perfect blackness. Thus, taking our standard from the whitest race of people, and beginning with our own country—which, I believe, bids fairest for pre-eminence—we shall find the French, who are more southern, a slight shade deeper than we; going farther down, the Spaniards are browner than the French; the inhabitants of Fez darker than they; and the natives of Negroland the darkest of all. In what manner the sun produces this effect, and how the same luminary which whitens wax and linen should darken the human complexion, is not easy to conceive. Sir Thomas Brown first supposed that a mucous substance, which had something of a vitriolic quality, settled under the reticular membrane, and grew darker with heat. Others have supposed that the blackness lay in the epidermis, or scarf-skin, which was burned up like leather. But nothing has been satisfactorily discovered upon the subject; it is sufficient that we are assured of the fact, and that we have no doubt of the sun's tinging the complexion in proportion to its vicinity.

But we are not to suppose that the sun is the only cause of darkening the skin; the wind, extreme cold, hard labour, or coarse and sparing nourishment, are found to contribute to this effect. We find the peasants of every country, who are most exposed to the weather, a shade darker than the higher ranks of people. The savage inhabitants of all places are exposed still more, and therefore contract a still deeper hue; and this will account for the tawny colour of the North American Indians. Although they live in a climate the same, or even more northerly than ours, yet they are found to be of complexions very different from those of Europe. But it must be considered that they live continually exposed to the sun; that they use many methods to darken their skins by art, painting them with red ochre, and anointing them with the fat of bears. Had they taken, for a succession of several generations, the same precautions to brighten their colour that an European does, it is very probable that they would in time come to have similar complexions, and, perhaps, dispute the prize of beauty.

The extremity of cold is not less productive of a tawny complexion than that of heat. The natives of the arctic circle, as was observed, are all brown; and those that lie most to the north are almost entirely black. In this manner both extremes are unfavourable to the human form and colour, and the same effects are produced under the poles that are found at the line.

With regard to the stature of the different countries, that seems chiefly to result from the nature of the food and the quantity of the supply. Not but that the severity of heat or cold may in some measure diminish the growth and produce a dwarfishness of make; but in general the food is the great agent in producing this effect; where that is supplied in large quantities, and where its quality is wholesome and nutrimental, the inhabitants are generally seen above the ordinary stature. On the contrary, where it is afforded in a sparing quantity, or very coarse and void of nourishment in its kind, the inhabitants degenerate, and sink below the ordinary size of mankind. In this respect they resemble other animals whose bodies, by proper feeding, may be greatly augmented. An ox on the fertile plains of India grows to a size four times as large as the diminutive animal of the same kind bred in the Alps. The horses bred in the plains are larger than those of the mountain. So it is with man; the inhabitants of the valley are usually found taller than those of the hill: the natives of the Highlands of Scotland, for instance, are short, broad, and hardy; those of the Lowlands are tall and shapely.

The inhabitants of Greenland, who live upon dried fish and seals, are less than those of Gambia or Senegal, where Nature supplies them with vegetable and animal abundance.

The form of the face seems rather to be the result of custom. Nations who have long considered some artificial deformity as beautiful, who have industriously lessened the feet or flattened the nose, by degrees begin to receive the impression they are taught to assume; and Nature, in a course of ages, shapes itself to the constraint and assumes hereditary deformity. We find nothing more common in births than for children to inherit sometimes even the accidental deformities of their parents. We have many instances of squinting in the father, which he received from fright or habit, communicated to the offspring; and I myself have seen a child distinctly marked with a scar similar to one the father had received in battle. In this manner accidental deformities may become natural ones, and by assiduity may be continued, and even increased, through successive generations. From this, therefore, have arisen the small eyes and long ears of the Tartars and Chinese nations. From hence originally may have come the flat noses of the blacks, and the flat heads of the American Indians.

In this slight survey, therefore, I think we may see that all the variations in the human figure, as far as they differ from our own, are produced either by the rigour of the climate, the bad quality or the scantiness of the provisions, or by the savage customs of the country. They are actual marks of the degeneracy in the human form; and we may consider the European figure and colour as standards to which to refer all other varieties, and with which to compare them. In proportion as the Tartar or American approaches nearer to European beauty, we consider the race as less degenerated; in proportion as he differs more widely, he has made greater deviations from his original form.

That we have all sprung from one common parent we are taught, both by reason and religion, to believe; and we have good reason also to think that the Europeans resemble him more than any of the rest of his children. However, it must not be concealed that the olive-coloured Asiatic, and even the jet-black Negro, claim this honour of hereditary resemblance; and assert that white men are mere deviations from original perfection. Odd as this opinion may seem, they have Linnæus, the celebrated naturalist, on their side, who supposes man to be a native of the tropical climates, and only a sojourner more to the north. But, not to enter into a controversy upon a matter of a very remote speculation, I think one argument alone will suffice to prove the contrary, and show that the white man is the original source from whence the other varieties have sprung. We have frequently seen white children produced from black parents, but have never seen a black offspring the production of two whites. From hence we may conclude, that whiteness is the colour to which mankind naturally tends; for, as in the tulip, the parent stock is known by all the artificial varieties breaking into it, so in man that colour must be original which never alters, and to which all the rest are accidentally seen to change. I have seen in London at different times two white Negroes, the issue of black parents, that served to convince me of the truth of this theory. I had before been taught to believe that the whiteness of the Negro skin was a disease—a kind of milky whiteness, that might be called rather a leperous crust than a natural complexion. I was taught to suppose that the numberless white Negroes found in various parts of Africa, the white men that go by the name of Chacrelas in the East Indies, and the white Americans near the Isthmus of Darien, in the West Indies, were all so many diseased persons, and even more deformed than the blackest of the natives. But examining the Negro who was last shown in London, I found the colour to be exactly like that of an

European—the visage white and ruddy, and the lips of the proper redness. However, there were sufficient marks to convince me of its descent. The hair was white and woolly, and very unlike anything I had seen before. The iris of the eye was yellow, inclining to red; the nose was flat, exactly resembling that of a Negro; and the lips thick and prominent. No doubt, therefore, remained of the child's having been born of Negro parents: and the person who showed it had attestations to convince the most incredulous. From this, then, we see that the variations of the Negro colour is into whiteness, whereas the white are never found to have a race of Negro children. Upon the whole, therefore, all those changes which the African, the Asiatic, or the American undergo are but accidental deformities, which a kinder climate, better nourishment, or more civilized manners, would in a course of centuries very probably remove.

CHAP. XII.

OF MONSTERS.



Hitherto I have only spoken of those varieties in the human species that are common to whole nations; but there are varieties of another kind which are only found in the individual, and being more rarely seen, are therefore called "monstrous." If we examine into the varieties of distorted Nature, there is scarce a limb of the body or a feature in the face that has not suffered some reprobation, either from Art or Nature—being enlarged or diminished, lengthened or wrested, from its due proportion. Linnæus, after having giving a catalogue of monsters, particularly adds the flat heads of Canada, the long heads of the Chinese, and the slender waists of the women of Europe, who, by tight lacing, take such pains to destroy the health through a mistaken desire to improve their beauty. It belongs more to the physician than the naturalist to attend to these minute deformities; and, indeed, it is a melancholy contemplation to speculate upon a catalogue of calamities inflicted by unpying Nature, or brought upon us by our own caprice. Some, however, are fond of such accounts; and there have been books filled with nothing else. To these, therefore, I refer the reader; who may be better pleased with accounts of men with two heads, or without any head, of children joined in the middle, of bones turned into flesh, or flesh converted into bones, than I am. It is sufficient here to observe, that every day's experience must have shown us miserable instances of this kind produced by Nature or Affection—calamities that no pity can soften or assiduity relieve.

Passing over, therefore, every other account, I shall only mention the extraordinary instance quoted by Malbranche, upon which he founds his beautiful theory of monstrous productions. A woman of Paris, the wife of a tradesman, went to see a criminal broke alive upon the wheel at the place of public execution. She was at that time two months advanced in pregnancy, and no way subject to any disorders to affect the child in her womb. She was, however, of a tender habit of body; and, though led by curiosity to this horrid spectacle, very easily moved to pity and compassion. She felt, therefore, all those strong emotions which so terrible a sight must naturally inspire; shuddered at every blow the criminal received, and almost swooned at his cries. Upon returning from this scene of blood she continued for some days pensive, and her imagination still wrought upon the spectacle she had lately seen. After some time, however, she seemed perfectly recovered from her fright, and had almost forgotten her former uneasiness. When the time of her delivery approached she seemed no ways mindful of her former terrors, nor were her pains in labour more than usual in such circumstances.

But what was the amazement of her friends and assistants when the child came into the world! It was found that every limb in its body was broken like those of the malefactor, and just in the same place. This poor infant, that had suffered the pains of life even before its coming into the world, did not die, but lived in an hospital in Paris for twenty-one years after—a wretched instance of the supposed powers of imagination in the mother of altering and distorting the infant in the womb. The manner in which Malbranche reasons upon this fact is as follows:—"The Creator has established such a sympathy between the several parts of Nature, that we are led not only to imitate each other, but also to partake in the same affections and desires. The animal spirits are thus carried to the respective parts of the body to perform the same actions which we see others perform, to receive in some measure their wounds, and take part in their sufferings. Experience tells us that if we look attentively on any person severely beaten or severely wounded, the spirits immediately flow into those parts of the body which correspond to those we see in pain. The more delicate the constitution the more it is thus affected—the spirits making a stronger impression on the fibres of a weakly habit than of a robust one. Strong vigorous men see an execution without much concern, while women of nicer texture are struck with horror and consternation. This sensibility in them must of consequence be communicated to all parts of the body; and, as the fibres of the child in the womb are incomparably finer than those of the mother, the course of the animal spirits must in consequence produce greater alterations. Hence, every stroke given to the criminal forcibly affected the imagination of the woman, and, by a kind of counter-stroke, the delicate, tender frame of the child.

Such is the reasoning of an ingenious man upon a fact, the veracity of which many since have called in question. They have allowed, indeed, that such a child might have been produced, but have denied the cause of its deformity. "How could the imagination of the mother," say they, "produce such dreadful effects upon her child? She has no communication with the infant; she scarce touches it in any part; quite unaffected with her concerns, it sleeps in security, in a manner secluded by a fluid in which it swims, from her that bears it. With what a variety of deformities," say they, "would all mankind be marked, if all the vain and capricious desires of the mother were thus readily written upon the body of the child?" Yet, notwithstanding this plausible way of reasoning, I cannot avoid giving some credit to the variety of instances I have either read or seen upon this subject. If it be a prejudice, it is as old as the days of Aristotle, and to this day as strongly believed by the generality of mankind as ever. It does not admit of a reason—and indeed I can give none—even why the child should in any respect resemble the father or the mother. The fact we generally find to be so; but why it should take the particular print of the father's features in the womb, it is as hard to conceive as why it should be affected by the mother's imagination. We all know what a strong effect the imagination has on those parts in particular, without being able to assign a cause how this effect is produced; and why the imagination may not produce the same effect in marking the child that it does in forming it I see no reason. Those persons whose employment it is to rear up pigeons of different colours can breed them, as their expression is, to a feather. In fact, by properly pairing them they can give what colour they will to any feather in any part of the body. Were we to reason upon this fact, what could we say? Might it not be asserted that the egg, being distinct from the body of the female, cannot be influenced by it? Might it not be plausibly said, that there is no similitude between any part of the egg and any particular feather which we expect to propagate? And yet for all this the

fact is known to be true, and what no speculation can invalidate. In the same manner, a thousand various instances assure us that the child in the womb is sometimes marked by the strong affections of the mother. How this is performed we know not; we only see the effect, without any connexion between it and the cause. The best physicians have allowed it, and have been satisfied to submit to the experience of a number of ages; but many disbelieve it, because they expect a reason for every effect. This, however, is difficult to be given, while it is easy to appear wise by pretending credulity.

Among the number of monsters, dwarfs and giants are usually reckoned; though not, perhaps, with the strictest propriety, since they are no way different from the rest of mankind except in stature. It is a dispute, however, about words; and therefore scarce worth contending about. But there is a dispute of a more curious nature upon this subject—namely, whether there are races of people thus very diminutive or vastly large, or whether they be merely accidental varieties that now and then are seen in the country, in a few persons whose bodies some external causes has contributed to lessen or enlarge.

With regard to men of diminutive stature, Antiquity has been unanimous in asserting their national existence. Homer was the first to give us an account of the pigmy nation contending with the cranes; and what poetical licence might be supposed to exaggerate, Athenæus has attempted seriously to confirm by historical assertion. If we attend to these, we must believe that in the internal parts of Africa there are whole nations of pigmy beings not more than a foot in stature, who continually wage an unequal war with the birds and beasts that inhabit the plains in which they reside. Some of the ancients, however, and Strabo in particular, have supposed all these accounts to be fabulous; and have been more inclined to think this supposed nation of pigmies nothing more than a species of apes, well known to be numerous in that part of the world. With this opinion the moderns have all concurred; and that diminutive race which was described as human has long been degraded into a class of animals that resemble us but very imperfectly.

The existence, therefore, of a pigmy race of mankind being founded in error or in fable, we can expect to find men of diminutive stature only by accident among men of the ordinary size. Of these accidental dwarfs, every country and almost every village can produce numerous instances. There was a time when these unfavoured children of Nature were the peculiar favourites of the great; and no prince or nobleman thought himself completely attended unless he had a dwarf among the number of his domestics. These poor little men were kept to be laughed at, or to raise the barbarous pleasure of their masters by their contrasted inferiority. Even in England, as late as the times of King James I., the court was at one time furnished with a dwarf, a giant, and a jester. These the king often took a pleasure in opposing to each other, and often fomented quarrels among them, in order to be a concealed spectator of their animosity. It was a particular entertainment of the courtiers at that time to see little Geoffrey (for so the dwarf was called) ride round the lists, expecting his antagonist, and discovering in his actions all the marks of contemptible resolution.

It was in the same spirit that Peter of Russia, in the year 1710, celebrated a marriage of dwarfs. This monarch, though raised by his native genius far above a barbarian, was nevertheless still many degrees removed from actual refinement. His pleasures, therefore, were of the vulgar kind; and this was among the number. Upon a certain day, which he had ordered to be proclaimed several months before, he invited the whole body of his courtiers and all the foreign ambassadors to be present at the marriage of a pigmy man and woman. The preparations for the wedding were not only very

grand, but were executed in a style of barbarous ridicule. He ordered that all the dwarf men and women within two hundred miles should repair to the capital, and also insisted that they should be present at the ceremony. For this purpose he supplied them with proper vehicles; but he so contrived it, that one horse was seen carrying a dozen of them into the city at once, while the mob followed shouting and laughing from behind. Some of them were at first unwilling to obey an order which they knew was calculated to turn them into ridicule, and they did not come; but he soon obliged them to obey, and as a punishment enjoined that they should wait upon the rest at dinner. The whole company of dwarfs amounted to seventy, beside the bride and bridegroom, who were richly adorned, and in the extreme of fashion. For this little company in miniature everything was suitably provided; a low table, small plates, little glasses—in fact, everything was so fitted as if all things had been dwindled to their own standard. It was his great pleasure to see their gravity and their pride—the contention of the women for places and the men for superiority. This point he attempted to adjust, by ordering that the most diminutive should take the lead; but this bred disputes, for none would then consent to sit foremost. All this, however, being at last settled, dancing followed the dinner, and the ball was opened with a minuet by the bridegroom, who measured exactly three feet two inches high. In the end matters were so contrived, that this little company, who met together in gloomy pride and unwilling to be pleased, being at last familiarised to laughter, joined in the diversion, and became, as the journalist has it, exceedingly sprightly and entertaining.

But whatever may be the entertainment such guests might afford when united, I never found a dwarf capable of affording any when alone. I have at different times conversed with some of these that were exhibited at our fairs about town, and have ever found their intellect as contracted as their persons. They in general seemed to me to have faculties very much resembling those of children, and desires also of the same kind—being diverted with the same sports, and best pleased with such companions. Of all those I have seen, which may amount to five or six, the little man named Coan, who recently died at Chelsea, was the most intelligent and sprightly. I have heard him and the giant who sung at the theatres sustain a very ridiculous duet, to which they were taught to give great spirit. But this mirth and seeming sagacity were but assumed. Coan had by long habit been taught to look cheerful upon the approach of company; and his conversation was but the mere etiquette of a person that had been used to receive visitors. When driven out of his walk nothing could be more stupid or ignorant—nothing more dejected and forlorn. But we have a complete history of a dwarf very accurately related by Mr. Daubenton, which I will here take the liberty to translate.

This dwarf, whose name was Baby, was well known, having spent the greatest part of his life at Lunenville, in the palace of Stanislaus, the titular King of Poland. He was born in the village of Plaisne, in France, in the year 1741. His father and mother were peasants, both of good constitutions, and inured to a life of husbandry and toilsome labour. Baby, when born, weighed but a pound and a quarter. We are not informed of the dimensions of his body at that time; but we may conjecture they were very small, as he was presented on a plate to be baptized, and for a long time lay in a slipper. His mouth, although proportioned to the rest of his body, was not at that time large enough to take in the nipple, and he was therefore obliged to be suckled by a she-goat that was in the house; and that served as a nurse, attending to his cries with a kind of maternal fondness. He began to articulate some words when eighteen months old; and at two years he was able

to walk alone. He was then fitted with shoes that were about an inch and a half long. He was attacked with several acute disorders; but the small-pox was the only one which left any marks behind it. Until he was six years old he eat no other food but pulse, potatoes, and bacon. His father and mother were, from their poverty, incapable of affording him any better nourishment; and his education was little better than his food, being bred up among the rustics of the place. At six years old he was about fifteen inches high, and his whole body weighed but thirteen pounds. Notwithstanding this, he was well-proportioned and handsome; his health was good, but his understanding scarce passed the bounds of instinct. It was at that time that the King of Poland, having heard of such a curiosity, had him conveyed to Lunenburg, gave him the name of "Baby," and kept him in his palace.

Baby, having thus quitted the hard condition of a peasant to enjoy all the comforts and the conveniences of life, seemed to receive no alteration from his new way of living, either in mind or in person. He preserved the goodness of his constitution till about the age of sixteen, but his body seemed to increase very slowly during the whole time; and his stupidity was such, that all instructions were lost in improving his understanding. He could never be brought to have any sense of religion, nor even to show the least signs of a reasoning faculty. They attempted to teach him dancing and music, but in vain; he never could make anything of music; and as for dancing, although he beat time tolerably exact, yet he could never remember the figure, unless his dancing-master stood by to direct his motions. Notwithstanding a mind thus destitute of understanding, it was not without its passions; anger and jealousy harassed it at times; nor was he without desires of another nature.

At the age of sixteen Baby was twenty-nine inches tall; at this he rested; but having thus arrived at his acme, the alterations of puberty—or rather, perhaps, of old age—came fast upon him. From being very beautiful the poor little creature now became quite deformed; his strength quite forsook him—his back-bone began to bend—his head hung forward—his legs grew weak—one of his shoulders turned awry—and his nose grew disproportionably large. With his strength his natural spirits also forsook him; and, by the time he was twenty, he was grown feeble, decrepid, and marked with the strongest impressions of old age. It had been before remarked by some that he would die of old age before he arrived at thirty; and, in fact, by the time he was twenty-two he could scarcely walk a hundred paces, being worn by the multiplicity of his years, and bent under the burthen of protracted life. In this year he died; a cold, attended with a slight fever, threw him into a kind of lethargy, which had a few momentary intervals, but he could scarce be brought to speak. However, it is asserted that in the five last days of his life he showed a clearer understanding than in his times of best health: but at length he died, after enduring great agonies, in the twenty-second year of his age.

Opposite to this accidental diminution of the human race is that of its extraordinary magnitude. Concerning the reality of a nation of giants there have been many disputes among the learned. Some have affirmed the probability of such a race; and others as warmly have denied the possibility of their existence. But it is not from any speculative reasonings upon a subject of this kind that information is to be obtained; it is not from the disputes of the scholar, but the labours of the enterprising, that we are to be instructed in this inquiry. Indeed, nothing can be more absurd than what some learned men have advanced upon this subject. It is very unlikely, says Grew, that there should either be dwarfs or giants; or if such, they cannot be fitted for the usual enjoyment of life and reason. Had man been born a

dwarf, he could not have been a reasonable creature; for to that end he must have a jolt head, and then he would not have body and blood enough to supply his brain with spirits; or if he had a small head proportionable to his body, there would not be brain enough for conducting life. But it is still worse with giants; and there could never have been a nation of such, for there would not be food enough found in any country to sustain them; or if there were beasts sufficient for this purpose, there would not be grass enough for their maintenance. But what is still more, add others, giants could never be able to support the weight of their own bodies; since a man of ten feet high must be eight times as heavy as one of the ordinary stature; whereas he has but twice the size of muscles to support such a burden, and consequently would be overloaded with the weight of his own body. Such are the theories upon this subject, and they require no other answer than that experience proves them both to be false. Dwarfs are found capable of life and reason; and giants are seen to carry their own bodies. We have several accounts from mariners that a nation of giants actually exists; and mere speculation should never induce us to doubt their veracity.

Ferdinand Magellan was the first who discovered this race of people along the coast towards the extremity of South America. Magellan was a Portuguese of noble extraction, who, having long behaved with great bravery under Albuquerque, the conqueror of India, was treated with neglect by the court upon his return. Applying, therefore, to the King of Spain, he was entrusted with the command of five ships to subdue the Molucca Islands, upon one of which he was slain. It was in his voyage thither that he happened to winter in St. Julian's Bay, an American harbour forty-nine degrees south of the line. In this desolate region, where nothing was seen but objects of terror, where neither trees nor verdure dress the face of the country, they remained for some months without seeing any human creature. They had judged the country to be utterly uninhabitable; when one day they saw approaching, as if it had been dropped from the clouds, a man of enormous stature, dancing and singing, and putting dust upon his head, as they supposed in token of peace. This overture for friendship was, by Magellan's command, quickly answered by the rest of his men; and the giant, approaching, testified every mark of astonishment and surprise. He was so tall that the Spaniards only reached his waist; his face was broad, his colour brown, and painted over with a variety of tints; each cheek had the resemblance of a heart drawn upon it; his hair was approaching to whiteness; he was clothed in skins, and armed with a bow. Being treated with kindness, and dismissed with some trifling presents, he soon returned with many more of the same stature—two of whom the mariners decoyed on ship-board. Nothing could be more gentle than they were in the beginning; they considered the fetters that were preparing for them as ornaments, and played with them like children with their toys; but when they found for what purpose they were intended they instantly exerted their amazing strength, and broke them in pieces with little effort. This account, with a variety of other circumstances, has been confirmed by succeeding travellers: Herrera, Sebald Wert, Oliver Van Noort, and James le Maire, all correspond in confirming the fact, although they differ in many particulars as to their respective descriptions. The last voyager we have had who has seen this enormous race is Commodore Byron. I have talked with the person who first gave the relation of that voyage, and who was the carpenter of the commodore's ship: he was a sensible, well-informed man, and I believe extremely faithful. By him I was assured of the truth of his relation; and this account has since been confirmed by one or two publications, in all which the particulars are pretty nearly the same. One of the

circumstances which most puzzled me to reconcile to probability was that of the horses on which they are described as riding down to the shore. We know the American horse to be of European breed, and in some measure to be degenerated from the original. I was at a loss, therefore, to account how a horse of not more than fourteen hands high was capable of carrying a man of nine feet; or, in other words, an animal almost as large as itself. But the wonder will cease when we consider that so small a beast as an ass will carry a man of ordinary size tolerably well; and the proportion between this and the former instances is nearly exact. We can no longer, therefore, refuse our assent to the existence of this gigantic race of mankind; in what manner they are propagated, or under what regulations they live, is a subject that remains for future investigation. It should appear, however, that they are a wandering nation, changing their abode with the course of the sun, and shifting their situation for the convenience of food, climate, or pasture.

This race of giants are described as possessed of great strength; and, no doubt, they are very different from those accidental giants that are to be seen in different parts of Europe. Stature with these seems rather their infirmity than their pride, and adds to their burthen without increasing their strength. Of those I have seen, the generality were ill-formed and unhealthful—weak in their persons, or incapable of exerting what strength they were possessed of. The same defects of understanding that attended those of suppressed stature were found in those who were thus overgrown; they were heavy, phlegmatic, stupid, and inclined to sadness. Their numbers, however, are but few; and it is thus kindly ordered by Providence, that as the middle state is the best fitted for happiness, so the middle ranks of mankind are produced in the greatest variety.

However, mankind seems naturally to have a respect for men of extraordinary stature; and it has been a supposition of long standing that our ancestors were much taller, as well as much more beautiful, than we. This has been, indeed, a theme of poetical declamation from the beginning; and man was scarce formed when he began to deplore an imaginary decay. Nothing is more natural than this progress of the mind, in looking up to antiquity with reverential wonder. Having been accustomed to compare the wisdom of our fathers with our own in early imbecility, the impression of their superiority remains when they no longer exist, and when we cease to be inferior. Thus the men of every age consider the past as wiser than the present; and the reverence seems to accumulate as our imaginations ascend. For this reason we allow remote antiquity many advantages without disputing their title: the inhabitants of uncivilised countries represent them as taller and stronger; and the people of a more polished nation as more healthy and more wise. Nevertheless, these attributes seem to be only the prejudices of ingenuous minds—a kind of gratitude, which we hope in turn to receive from posterity. The ordinary stature of men, Mr. Derham observes, is in all probability the same now as at the beginning. The oldest measure we have of the human figure is in the monument of Cheops, in the first pyramid of Egypt. This must have subsisted many hundred years before the time of Homer, who is the first that deplores the decay. This monument, however, scarce exceeds the measure of our ordinary coffins; the cavity is no more than six feet long, two feet wide, and deep in about the same proportion. Several mummies, also, of a very early age, are found to be only of the ordinary stature; and show that, for these three thousand years at least, men have not suffered the least diminution. We have many corroborating proofs of this in the ancient pieces of armour which are dug up in different parts of Europe. The brass helmet dug up at Medauro fits one of our men, and yet is allowed to have

been left there at the overthrow of Asdrubal. Some of our finest antique statues, which we learn from Pliny and others to be exactly as large as life, still continue to this day remaining monuments of the superior excellence of their workmen indeed, but not of the superiority of their stature. We may conclude, therefore, that men have been in all ages pretty much of the same size they are at present; and that the only difference must have been accidental, or perhaps national.

As to the superior beauty of our ancestors, it is not easy to make the comparison; beauty seems a very uncertain charm, and frequently is less in the object than in the eye of the beholder. Were a modern lady's face formed exactly like the Venus of Medicis or the Sleeping Vestal, she would scarce be considered beautiful except by the lovers of antiquity—whom of all her admirers, perhaps, she would be least desirous of pleasing. It is true that we have some disorders among us which disfigure the features, and from which the ancients were exempt; but it is equally true that we are without some that were common amongst them, and which were equally deforming. As for their intellectual powers, these also were probably the same as ours. We excel them in the sciences, which may be considered as a history of accumulated experience; and they excel us in the poetic arts, as they had the first rising of all the striking images of Nature.

CHAP. XIII.

OF MUMMIES, WAX-WORKS, ETC.

Man is not content with the usual term of life, but he is willing to lengthen out his existence by art; and although he cannot prevent death, he tries to obviate his dissolution. It is natural to attempt to preserve the most trifling relics of what has long given us pleasure; nor does the mind separate from the body without a wish that even the wretched heap of dust it leaves behind may yet be remembered. The embalming practised in various nations probably had its rise in this fond desire; an urn filled with ashes among the Romans served as a pledge of continuing affection; and even the grassy graves in our own church-yards are raised above the surface, with the desire that the body below should not be wholly forgotten. The soul, ardent after eternity itself, is willing to procure even for the body a prolonged duration.

But of all nations the Egyptians carried this art to the highest perfection; as it was a principle of their religion to suppose that the soul continued only coeval to the duration of the body, they tried every art to extend the one by preventing the dissolution of the other. In this practice they were exercised from the earliest ages; and the mummies they have embalmed in this manner continue in great numbers to the present day. We are told in Genesis, that Joseph, seeing his father expire, gave orders to his physicians to embalm the body, which they executed in the compass of forty days, the usual time of embalming. Herodotus, also, the most ancient of the profane historians, gives us a copious detail of this art, as it was practised in his time among the Egyptians. There are certain men among them, says he, who practise embalming as a trade, which they perform with all possible expedition. In the first place they draw out the brain through the nostrils, with irons adapted to this purpose; and in proportion as they evacuate it in this manner they fill up the cavity with aromatics: they next cut open the belly, near the sides, with a sharpened stone, and take out the entrails, which they cleanse, and wash in palm oil: having performed this operation, they roll them in aromatic powder, fill them with myrrh, cassia, and other perfumes, except incense, and replace

them, sewing up the body again. After these precautions they salt the body with nitre, and keep it in the salting-place for seventy days, it not being permitted to preserve it so any longer. When the seventy days are accomplished, and the body washed once more, they twathe it in bands made of linen, which have been dipt in a gum the Egyptians use instead of salt. When the friends have taken back the body they make a hollow trough, something like the shape of a man, in which they place the body; and this they enclose in a box, preserving the whole as a most precious relic placed against the wall. Such are the ceremonies used with regard to the rich; as for those who are contented with an humbler preparation, they treat them as follows:—They fill a syringe with an odoriferous liquor extracted from the cedar-tree, and, without making an incision, inject it up the body of the deceased, and then keep it in nitre as long as in the former case. When the time is expired, they evacuate the body of the cedar liquor which had been injected; and such is the effect of this operation, that the liquor dissolves the intestines and brings them away; the nitre also serves to eat away the flesh, and leaves only the skin and the bones remaining. This done, the body is returned to the friends, and the embalmer takes no farther trouble about it. The third method of embalming those of the meanest condition is merely by purging and cleansing the intestines by frequent injections, and preserving the body for a similar term in nitre, at the end of which it is restored to the relations.

Diodorus Siculus also makes mention of the manner in which these embalming are performed. According to him there were several officers appointed for this purpose. The first of them, who was called the scribe, marked those parts of the body on the left side which were to be opened; the cutter made the incision; and one of those that were to salt it drew out all the bowels, except the heart and the kidneys; another washed them in palm-wine and odoriferous liquors; afterwards they anointed for above thirty days with cedar gum, myrrh, cinnamon, and other perfumes. These aromatics preserved the body entire for a long time, and gave it a very agreeable odour. It was not in the least disfigured by this preparation; after which it was returned to the relations, who kept it in a coffin placed upright against the wall.

Most of the modern writers who have treated on this subject have merely repeated what has been said by Herodotus; and if they add anything of their own it is but merely from conjecture. Dumont observes, that it is very probable that aloes, bitumen, and cinnamon make a principal part of the composition which is used on this occasion: he adds that, after embalming, the body is put into a coffin made of the sycamore-tree, which is almost incorruptible. Mr. Grew remarks, that in an Egyptian mummy in the possession of the Royal Society, the preparation was so penetrating as to enter into the very substance of the bones, and rendered them so black that they seemed to have been burnt. From this he is induced to believe that the Egyptians had a custom of embalming their dead by boiling them in a kind of liquid preparation, until all the aqueous parts of the body were exhaled away, and until the oily or gummy matter had penetrated throughout. He proposes, in consequence of this, a method of macerating, and afterwards of boiling the dead body in oil of walnut.

I am, for my own part, of opinion that there were several ways of preserving dead bodies from putrefaction; and that this would be no difficult matter, since different nations have all succeeded in the attempt. We have an example of this kind among the Guanches, the ancient inhabitants of the island of Teneriffe. Those who survived the general destruction of this people by the Spaniards, when they conquered this island, informed them that the art of embalming was still preserved there, and that there was a tribe of priests among them pos-

sessed of the secret, which they kept concealed as a sacred mystery. As the greatest part of the nation was destroyed the Spaniards could not arrive at a complete knowledge of this art, but only found out a few particulars. Having taken out the bowels, they washed the body several times in a lye made of the dried bark of the pine-tree, warmed during the summer by the sun, or by a stove in the winter. They afterwards anointed it with butter or the fat of bears, which they had previously boiled with odoriferous herbs, such as sage and lavender. After this unction they suffered the body to dry, and then repeated the operation as often as it was necessary, until the whole substance was impregnated with the preparation. When it was become very light it was then a certain sign it was fit and properly prepared. They then rolled it up in the dried skins of goats, which, when they had a mind to save expense, they suffered to remain with the hair still growing upon them. Purchas assures us that he has seen mummies of this kind in London; and mentions the name of a gentleman who had seen several of them in the island of Teneriffe which were supposed to have been two thousand years old, but without any certain proofs of such great antiquity. This people, who probably came first from the coast of Africa, might have learned this art from the Egyptians, as there was a traffic carried on from thence into the most internal parts of Africa.

Both Acosta and Garcilasso de la Vega make no doubt but that the Peruvians understood the art of preserving their dead for a very long space of time. They assert their having seen the bodies of several incas that were perfectly preserved. They still preserved their hair and their eye-brows; but they had eyes made of gold put in the places of those taken out. They were clothed in their usual habits, and seated in the manner of the Indians, their arms placed on their breasts. Garcilasso touched one of their fingers, and found it apparently as hard as wood; and the whole body was not heavy enough to over-burthen a weak man who should attempt to carry it away. Acosta presumes that these bodies were embalmed with bitumen, of which the Indians knew the properties. Garcilasso, however, is of a different opinion, as he saw nothing bituminous about them; but he confesses that he did not examine them particularly, and he regrets his not having inquired into the methods used for that purpose. He adds that, being a Peruvian, his countrymen would not have scrupled to inform him of the secret if they really had it still among them.

Garcilasso, thus being ignorant of the secret, makes use of some inductions to throw light upon the subject; he asserts that the air is so dry and so cold at Cusco that flesh dries their like wood without corrupting; and he is of opinion that they dried the body in snow before they applied the bitumen: he adds, that in the time of the incas they usually dried the flesh which was designed for the use of the army; and that, when they had lost their humidity, they might be kept without salt or any other preparation.

It is said that at Spitzbergen, which lies within the arctic circle, and consequently in the coldest climate, bodies never corrupt, nor suffer any apparent alteration, even though buried for thirty years: nothing corrupts or putrefies in that climate; the wood which has been employed in building those houses where the train-oil is separated appears as fresh as on the day when it was first cut.

If excessive cold, therefore, be thus capable of preserving bodies from corruption, it is not less certain that a great degree of dryness produced by heat produces the same effect. It is well known that the men and animals that are buried in the sands of Arabia quickly dry up, and continue in preservation for several ages as if they had been actually embalmed. It has often happened that whole caravans have perished in crossing those deserts, either by the burning winds that infect them or

by the sands which are raised by the tempest, and overwhelm every creature in certain ruin. The bodies of those persons are preserved entire; and they are often found in this condition by some accidental passenger. Many authors, both ancient and modern, make mention of such mummies as these; and Shaw says that he has been assured that numbers of men, as well as other animals, have thus been preserved for time immemorial in the burning sands of Saibah, which is a place, he supposes, situate between Rasem and Egypt.

The corruption of dead bodies being entirely caused by the fermentation of the humours, whatever is capable of hindering or retarding this fermentation will contribute to their preservation. Both heat and cold, though so contrary in themselves, produce similar effects in this particular by drying up the humours—the cold in condensing and thickening them, and the heat in evaporating them before they have time to act upon the solids. But it is necessary that these extremes should be constant; for if they succeed each other so as that cold shall follow heat, or dryness humidity, it must then necessarily happen that corruption must ensue. However, in temperate climates there are natural causes capable of preserving dead bodies; among which we may reckon the qualities of the earth in which they are buried. If the earth be drying and astringent it will inbibe the humidity of the body; and it may be probably for this reason that the bodies buried in the monastery of the Cordeliers at Thouluse do not putrefy, but dry in such a manner that they may be lifted up by one arm.

The gums, resins, and bitumens with which dead bodies are embalmed keep off the impressions which they would else receive from the alteration of the temperature of the air; and still more, if a body thus prepared be placed in a dry and burning sand, the most powerful means will be united for its preservation. We are not to be surprised, therefore, at what we are told by Chardin of the country of Chorosan, in Persia. The bodies which have been previously embalmed and buried in the sands of that country, as he assures us, are found to petrify; or, in other words, to become extremely hard, and are preserved for several ages. It is asserted that some of them have continued for a thousand years.

The Egyptians, as has been mentioned above, swathed the body with linen bands, and enclosed it in a coffin; however, it is probable that with all these precautions they would not have continued till now if the tombs or pits in which they were placed had not been dug in a dry chalky soil, which was not susceptible of humidity, and which was, besides, covered over with a dry sand of several feet thickness.

The sepulchres of the ancient Egyptians subsist to this day. Most travellers who have been in Egypt have described those of ancient mummies, and have seen the mummies interred there. These catacombs are within two leagues of the ruins of this city, nine leagues from Grand Cairo, and about two miles from the village of Zaccara. They extend from thence to the Pyramids of Pharaoh, which are about eight miles distant. These sepulchres lie in a field covered with a fine running sand of a yellowish colour. The country is dry and hilly; the entrance to the tomb is choked up with sand; there are many open, but several more that are still concealed. The inhabitants of the neighbouring village have no other commerce or method of subsisting but by seeking out mummies, and selling them to such strangers as happen to be at Grand Cairo. This commerce some years ago was not only a very common but a very gainful one. A complete mummy was often sold for twenty pounds; but it must not be supposed that it was bought at such a high price from a mere passion for antiquity; there were much more powerful motives for this traffic. Mummy at that time made a considerable article in medicine; and a thousand imaginary virtues were ascribed to it for the cure of most disorders, particularly

of the paralytic kind. There was no shop, therefore, without mummy in it; and no physician thought he had properly treated his patient without adding this to his prescription. Induced by the general repute in which this supposed drug was held at that time, several Jews, both of Italy and France, found out the art of imitating mummies so exactly, that they for a long time deceived all Europe. This they did by drying dead bodies in ovens, after having prepared them with myrrh, aloes, and bitumen. Still, however, the request for mummies continued, and a variety of cures were daily ascribed to them. At length, Paræus wrote a treatise on their total inefficacy in physic; and showed their abuse in loading the stomach to the exclusion of more efficacious medicines. From that time, therefore, their reputation began to decline; the Jews discontinued their counterfeits, and the trade returned entire to the Egyptians when it was no longer of value. The industry of seeking after mummies is now totally relaxed, their price merely arbitrary, and just what the curious are willing to give.

In seeking for mummies they first clear away the sand, which they may do for weeks together without finding what is wanted. Upon coming to a little square opening of about eighteen feet in depth, they descend into it by holes for the feet placed at proper intervals, and there they are sure of finding what they seek for. These caves, or wells as they call them, are hollowed out of a white freestone, which is found in all this country a few feet below the covering of the sand. When one gets to the bottom of these, which are sometimes forty feet below the surface, there are several square openings on each side into passages ten or fifteen feet wide, and these lead to chambers fifteen or twenty feet square. These are all hewn out of the rock; and in each of the catacombs are to be found several of these apartments communicating with each other. They extend a great way underground, so as to be under the city of Memphis, and in a manner to undermine its environs.

In some of the chambers the walls are adorned with figures and hieroglyphics; in others, the mummies are found in tombs round the apartment hollowed out in the rock. These tombs are upright, and cut into the shape of a man with his arms stretched out. There are others found, and these in the greatest number, in wooden coffins or in clothes covered with bitumen. These coffins or wrappers are covered all over with a variety of ornaments. There are some of them painted and adorned with figures, such as that of Death and the leaden seals, on which several characters are engraven. Some of the coffins are carved into the human shape; but the head alone is distinguishable; the rest of the body is all of a piece, and terminated by a pedestal, while there are some with their arms hanging down; and it is by these marks that the bodies of persons of rank are distinguished from those of the meaner order. These are generally found lying on the floor without any profusion of ornaments; and in some chambers the mummies are found indiscriminately piled upon each other, and buried in the sand.

Many mummies are found lying on their backs, their heads turned to the north, and the hands placed on the belly. The bands of linen with which these are swathed are more than a thousand yards long; and in consequence the number of circumvolutions they make about the body must have been amazing. These were performed by beginning at the head and ending at the feet; but they contrived it so as to avoid covering the face. However, when the face is entirely uncovered it moulders into dust immediately upon the admission of the air. When, therefore, it is preserved entire, a slight covering of cloth is so disposed over it as that the shape of the eyes, the nose, and the mouth are seen under it. Some mummies have been found with a long beard, and hair that reached down to the mid-leg, nails of a surprising length, and some gilt, or at least painted of a gold colour. Some are

found with bands upon their breast, covered with hieroglyphics in gold, silver, or in green; and some with tutelary idols and other figures of jasper within their body. A piece of gold, also, has often been found under their tongues, of about two pistoles value; and for this reason the Arabians spoil all the mummies they meet with in order to get at the gold.

But though art or accident has thus been found to preserve dead bodies entire, it must by no means be supposed that it is capable of preserving the exact form and lineaments of the deceased person. Those bodies which are found dried away in the deserts or in some particular church-yards are totally deformed, and scarce any lineaments remain of their external structure. Nor are the mummies preserved by embalming in a better condition. The flesh is dried away, hardened, and hidden under a variety of bandages; the bowels, as we have seen, are totally removed; and from hence, in the most perfect of them we see only a shapeless mass of skin discoloured; and even the features are scarce distinguishable. The art is therefore an effort rather of preserving the substance than the likeness of the deceased, and has consequently not been brought to its highest pitch of perfection. It appears from a mummy, not long since dug up in France, that the art of embalming was more completely understood in the western world than even in Egypt. This mummy, which was dug up at Auvergne, was an amazing instance of their skill, and is one of the most curious relics in the art of preservation. As some peasants in that part of the world were digging in a field near Rion, within about twenty-six paces of the highway, between that and the river Artier, they discovered a tomb about a foot and a half beneath the surface. It was composed only of two stones, one of which formed the body of the sepulchre and the other the cover. This tomb was of freestone, seven feet and a half long, three feet and a half broad, and about three feet high. It was of rude workmanship; the cover had been polished, but was without figure or inscription: within this tomb was placed a leaden coffin four feet seven inches long, fourteen inches broad, and fifteen high. It was not made coffin-fashion, but oblong, like a box, equally broad at both ends, and covered with a lid that fitted on like a snuff-box without a hinge. This cover had two holes in it, each of about two inches long, and very narrow, filled with a substance resembling butter; but for what purpose intended remains unknown. Within this coffin was a mummy in the highest and most perfect preservation. The internal sides of the coffin were filled with an aromatic substance, mingled with clay. Round the mummy was wrapped a coarse cloth, in form of a napkin; under this were two shirts, or shrouds, of the most exquisite texture; beneath these was a bandage, which covered all parts of the body like an infant in swaddling clothes; still under this general bandage there was another, which went particularly round the extremities, the hands, and the legs. The head was covered with two caps; the feet and hands were without any particular bandages; and the whole body was covered with an aromatic substance an inch thick. When these were removed, and the body exposed naked to view, nothing could be more astonishing than the preservation of the whole, and the exact resemblance it bore to a body that might have died a day or two before. It appeared well proportioned, except that the head was rather large and the feet small. The skin had all the pliancy and colour of a body lately dead; the visage, however, was of a brownish hue. The belly yielded to the touch; all the joints were flexible, except those of the legs and feet; the fingers stretched forth of themselves when bent inwards. The nails still continued entire; and all the marks of the joints, both in the fingers, the palms of the hands, and the soles of the feet, remained perfectly visible. The bones of the arms and legs were soft and pliant; but, on the contrary, those of the skull preserved their rigidity; the hair, which only

covered the back of the head, was of a chestnut colour, and about two inches long. The pericranium at top was separated from the skull by an incision, in order to open it for the introducing proper aromatics in the place of the brain, where they were found mixed with clay. The teeth, the tongue, and the ears were all preserved in perfect form. The intestines were not taken out of the body, but remained pliant and entire as in a fresh subject; and the breast was made to rise and fall like a pair of bellows. The embalming preparation had a very strong and pungent smell, which the body preserved for more than a month after it was exposed to the air. This odour was perceived wherever the mummy was laid; although it remained there but a short time, it was even pretended that the peasants of the neighbouring villages were incommoded by it. If you touched either the mummy or any part of the preparation, the hands smelled of it for several hours after, although washed with water, spirit of wine, or vinegar. This mummy, having remained exposed for some months to the curiosity of the public, began to suffer some mutilations. A part of the skin of the forehead was cut off; the teeth were drawn out; and some attempts were made to pull away the tongue. It was therefore put into a glass case, and shortly after transmitted to the King of France's cabinet at Paris.

There are many reasons to believe this to be the body of a person of the highest distinction; however, no marks remain to assure us either of the quality of the person or the time of his decease. There are only to be seen some irregular figures on the coffin, one of which represents a kind of star. There were also some singular characters upon the bandages, which were totally defaced by those who had torn them away. However, it would seem that it had remained for several ages in this state, since the first years immediately succeeding the interment are usually those in which the body is most liable to decay. It appears, also, to be a much more perfect method of embalming than that of the Egyptians—as in this the flesh continues with its natural elasticity and colour, the bowels remain entire, and the joints have almost the pliancy which they had when the person was alive. Upon the whole, it is probable that a much less tedious preparation than that used by the Egyptians would have sufficed to keep the body from putrefaction, and that an injection of petroleum inwardly and a layer of asphaltum without would have been sufficient to make a mummy; and it is remarkable that Auvergne, where this was found, affords these two substances in sufficient plenty. This art, therefore, might be brought to greater perfection than it has hitherto arrived at were it worth preserving. But mankind have long since grown wiser in this respect, and think it foolish to keep by them a deformed carcass, which, instead of aiding their magnificence, must only serve to mortify their pride.

CHAP. XIV.

OF ANIMALS.

Leaving man, we now descend to the lower ranks of Animated Nature, and prepare to examine the life, manners, and characters of these our humble partners in the creation. But in such a wonderful variety as is diffused around us, where shall we begin? The number of beings endued with life as well as ourselves seems at first view infinite. Not only the forest, the waters, and the air teem with animals of various kinds, but almost every vegetable and every leaf has millions of minute inhabitants, each of which fills up the circle of its allotted life, and some of which are found objects of the greatest curiosity. In this seeming exuberance of animals it is

natural for ignorance to lie down in hopeless uncertainty, and to declare what requires labour to particularise to be utterly inscrutable. It is otherwise, however, with the active and searching mind; no way intimidated with the immense variety, it begins the task of numbering, grouping, and classing all the various kinds that fall within its notice—finds every day new relations between the several parts of the creation—acquires the art of considering several at a time under one point of view—and at last begins to find that the variety is neither so great nor so inscrutable as was at first imagined. As in a clear night the number of the stars seems infinite, yet, if we sedulously attend to each in its place, and regularly class them, they will soon be found to diminish and come within a very scanty computation.

Method is one of the principal helps in natural history, and without it very little progress can be made in this science. It is by that alone we can hope to dissipate the glare, if I may so express it, which arises from a multiplicity of objects at once presenting themselves to the view. It is method that fixes the attention to one point, and leads it, by slow and certain degrees, to leave no part of Nature unobserved.

All naturalists, therefore, have been very careful in adopting some method of classing or grouping the several parts of Nature; and some have written books of natural history with no other view. These methodical divisions some have treated with contempt, not considering that books in general are written with opposite views—some to be read and some only to be occasionally consulted. The methodists in natural history seem to be content with the latter advantage, and have sacrificed to order alone all the delights of the subject—all the arts of heightening, awakening, or continuing curiosity. But they certainly have the same use in science that a dictionary has in language; but with this difference—that in a dictionary we proceed from the name to the definition; in a system of natural history we proceed from the definition to find out the thing. Without the aid of System, Nature must still have lain undistinguished, like furniture in a lumber-room; everything we wish for is there, indeed; but we know not where to find it. If, for instance, in a morning excursion I find a plant or an insect, the name of which I desire to learn—or, perhaps, am curious to know whether already known—in this inquiry I can expect information only from one of these systems, which, being couched in a methodical form, quickly directs me to what I seek for. Thus we will suppose that our inquirer has met with a spider, and that he has never seen such an insect before. He is taught by the writer of a system to examine whether it has wings, and he finds that it has none. He therefore has to look for it among the wingless insects, or “*aptera*,” as Linnæus calls them; he then is to see whether the head and breast make one part of the body, or are disunited; he finds they make one: he is then to reckon the number of feet and eyes, and he finds that it has eight of each. The insect, therefore, must be either a scorpion or a spider; but he lastly examines its feelers, which he finds clavated or clubbed; and by all these marks he at length discovers it to be a spider. Of spiders there are forty-seven sorts; and by reading the description of each the inquirer will learn the name of that which he desires to know. With the name of the insect he is also directed to those authors that have given any account of it, and the page where that account is to be found; by this means he may know at once what has been said of that animal by others, and what there is of novelty in the result of his own researches.

From hence it will appear how useful those systems in natural history are to the inquirer; but having given them all their merit, it would be wrong not to observe that they have in general been much abused. Their authors in general seem to think that they are improvers of natural history, when in reality they are nothing but

guides; they seem to boast that they are adding to our knowledge, while they are only arranging it. These authors also seem to think that the reading of their works and systems is the best method to attain a knowledge of Nature; but, setting aside the impossibility of getting through whole volumes of a long dry catalogue, the multiplicity of whose contents is too great for even the strongest memory, such works rather tell us the name than the history of the creature we desire to inquire after. In these dreary pages, every insect or plant that has a name makes as distinguished a figure as the most wonderful or the most useful. The true end of studying Nature is to make a just selection, to find those parts of it which most conduce to our pleasure or convenience, and to leave the rest in neglect. But these systems, employing the same degree of attention upon all, give us no opportunities of knowing which most deserves attention; and he who has derived his knowledge from such systems only has his memory confounded with a number of trifling or minute particulars, which it should be his business and his study to forget. These books, as was said before, are useful to be consulted, but are quite unnecessary to be read: no inquirer after Nature should be without one of them—and without any doubt Linnæus deserves the preference.

Another fault in almost all these systematic writers—and that which leads me to the subject of the present chapter—is, that seeing the necessity of methodical distribution in some parts of Nature they have introduced it into all. Finding the utility of arranging plants, birds, or insects, they have also arranged quadrupeds with the same assiduity; and although the number of these is so few as not to exceed two hundred, they have darkened the subject with distinctions and divisions, which only serve to puzzle and perplex. Method is only useful in perspicuity, where the subject is either dark or copious: but with regard to quadrupeds the number is but few; many of them we are well acquainted with by habit—and the rest may readily be known without any method. In treating of such, therefore, it would be useless to confound the reader with a multiplicity of divisions; as quadrupeds are conspicuous enough to obtain the second rank in Nature, it becomes us to be at least acquainted with the names of them all. However, as there are naturalists who have gained a name from the excellence of their methods in classing these animals, some readers may desire to have a knowledge of what has been laboriously invented for their instruction. I will just take leave, therefore, to mention the most applauded methods of classing animals, as adopted by Ray, Klein, and Linnæus; for it often happens that the terms which have been long used in science, though frivolous, become by prescription a part of the science itself.

Ray, after Aristotle, divides all animals into two kinds—those which have blood and those which are bloodless. In the last class he places all the insect tribes: the former he divides into such as breathe through the lungs and such as breathe through gills; these last comprehend the fishes. In those which breathe through the lungs some have the heart composed of two ventricles, and some have it of one. Of the last are all animals of the cetaceous kind, all oviparous quadrupeds, and serpents. Of those that have two ventricles some are oviparous, which are the birds; and some viviparous, which are quadrupeds. The quadrupeds he divides into such as have a hoof and such as are claw-footed. Those with the hoof he divides into such as have it undivided, such as have it cloven, and such as have the hoof divided into more parts, as the rhinoceros and hippopotamus. Animals with the cloven hoof he divides into such as chew the cud, such as the cow and the sheep; and such as are not ruminant, as the hog. He divides those animals that chew the cud into four kinds: the first have hollow horns, which they never shed, as the cow; the second is of a less species, and is of the sheep kind;

the third is of the goat kind; and the last, which have solid horns, and shed them annually, are of the deer kind. Coming to the claw-footed animals, he finds some with large claws resembling the fingers of the human hand; and these he makes the ape kind. Of the others, some have the foot divided in two, and have a claw to each division; these are the camel kind. The elephant makes a kind by itself, as its claws are covered over by a skin. The rest of the numerous tribe of claw-footed animals he divides into two kinds—the analagous, or such as resemble each other; and the anomalous, which differ from the rest. The analogous claw-footed animals are of two kinds: they have more than two cutting teeth in each jaw, such as the lion and the dog, which are carnivorous; or they have no more than two cutting teeth in each jaw: these are chiefly fed upon vegetables. The carnivorous kind are divided into the great and the little. The great carnivorous animals are divided into such as have a short snout, as the cat and the lion; and pointed, as the dog and the wolf. The little claw-footed carnivorous animals differ from the great, in having a proportionably smaller head and a slender body, which fit them for creeping into holes in pursuit of their prey, like worms; and they are therefore called the vermin kind.

We see, from this sketch of division and sub-division, how a subject, extremely delightful and amusing in itself, may be darkened and rendered disgusting. But notwithstanding, Ray seems to be one of the most simple distributors; and his method is still, and not without reason, adopted by many. Such as have been at the trouble to learn this method will certainly find it useful; nor would we be thought in the least to take from its merits; all we contend for is, that the same information may be obtained by a pleasanter and an easier method.

It was the great success of Ray's method that soon after produced such a variety of attempts in the same manner, but almost all less simple and more obscure. Mr. Klein's method is briefly as follows: he makes the power of changing place the characteristic mark of animals in general; and he takes their distinctions from their aptitude and fitness for such a change. Some change place by means of feet, or some similar contrivance; others have wings and feet; some can change place only in water, and have only fins; some go upon earth without any feet at all: some change place by moving their shell; and some move only at a certain time of the year. Of such, however, as do not move at all he takes no notice. The quadrupeds that move chiefly by means of four feet upon land he divides into two orders. The first are the hoofed kind; and the second the claw kind. Each of these orders is divided into four families—the first family of the hoof kind and the single hoofed, such as the horse, ass, &c.; the second family are such as have the hoof cloven into two parts, such as the cow, &c.; the third family have the hoof divided into three parts—and in this family is found only the rhinoceros; the fourth family have the hoof divided into five parts—and in this is only to be found the elephant. With respect to the clawed kind, the first family comprehends those that have but two claws on each foot, as the camel; the second family have three claws, the third four, and the fourth five. This method of taking the distinctions of animals from the organs of motion is ingenious; but it is at the same time incomplete; and, besides, the divisions into which it must necessarily fall is inadequate; since, for instance, in his family with two claws there is but one animal; whereas, in his family with five claws there are above a hundred.

Brisson, who has laboured at this subject with great accuracy, divides Animated Nature into nine classes—namely, quadrupeds; cetaceous animals, or those of the whale kind; birds; reptiles, or those of the serpent kind; cartilaginous fishes; spinous fishes; shelled animals;

insects; and worms. He divides the quadrupeds into eighteen orders, and takes their distinctions from the number and form of their teeth.

But of all those systems that have been adopted and admired Linnæus is the foremost; as, with a studied brevity, his system comprehends the greatest variety in the smallest space.

According to him, the first distinction of animals is to be taken from their internal structure. Some have the heart with two ventricles, and hot red blood—namely, quadrupeds and birds. The quadrupeds are viviparous, and the birds oviparous.

Some have the heart with one ventricle, and cold red blood; namely, amphibia and fishes. The amphibia are furnished with lungs—the fishes with gills.

Some have the heart with one ventricle, and cold white serum—namely, insects and worms; the insects have feelers, and the worms holders.

The distinctions of quadrupeds, or animals with paws as he calls them, are taken from their teeth. He divides them into seven orders, to which he gives names that are not easy of translation—Primates, or principals, with four cutting teeth in each jaw; Bruta, or brutes, with no cutting teeth; Fera, or wild beasts, generally with six cutting teeth in each jaw; Glires, or dormice, with two cutting teeth both above and below; Pecora, or cattle, with many cutting teeth above and none below; Bellua, or beasts, with the fore-teeth blunt; Cete, or those of the whale kind, with cartilaginous teeth. I have but just sketched out this system, as being in its own nature the closest abridgment; it would take many volumes to dilate it to its proper length. The names of the different animals and their classes alone make two thick octavo volumes; and yet nothing is given but the slightest description of each. I have also omitted all criticism upon the accuracy of the preceding systems. This has been done both by Buffon and Daubenton, not with less truth than humour; for they had too much good sense not to see the absurdity of multiplying the terms of science to no end, and disappointing our curiosity rather with a catalogue of Nature's varieties than a history of Nature.

Instead, therefore, of taxing the memory and taxing the patience with such a variety of divisions and sub-divisions, I will take leave to class the productions of Nature in the most obvious, though not in the most accurate manner. In natural history, of all other sciences, there is the least danger of obscurity. In morals or in metaphysics every definition must be precise, because those sciences are built upon definitions; but it is otherwise in those subjects where the exhibition of the object itself is always capable of correcting the error. Thus it may often happen that in a lax system of natural history a creature may be ranked among quadrupeds that belongs more properly to the fish or the insect classes. But that can produce very little confusion, and every reader can thus make a system the most agreeable to his imagination. It will be of no manner of consequence whether we call a bird or an insect a quadruped, if we are careful in marking all its distinctions—the uncertainty in reasoning or thinking that those approximations of the different kinds of animals produce is but very small, and happens but very rarely; whereas the labour that naturalists have been at to keep the kinds asunder has been excessive. This in general has given birth to that variety of systems which we have just mentioned, each of which seems to be almost as good as the preceding.

Taking, therefore, this latitude, and using method only where it contributes to conciseness or perspicuity, we shall divide Animated Nature into four classes—namely, Quadrupeds, Birds, Fishes, and Insects. All these seem in general pretty well distinguished from each other by nature; yet there are several instances in which we can scarce tell whether it is a bird or quad-

rupted that we are about to examine—whether it is a fish or an insect that attracts our curiosity. Nature is varied by imperceptible gradations, so that no line can be drawn between any two classes of its productions, and no definition made to comprehend them all. However, the distinctions between these classes are sufficiently marked, and their encroachments upon each other are so rare, that it will be sufficient particularly to apprise the reader when they happen to be blended.

There are many quadrupeds that we are well acquainted with; and of those we do not know we shall form the most clear and distinct conceptions by being told wherein they differ and wherein they resemble those with which we are familiar. Each class of quadrupeds may be ranged under some one of the domestic kinds, that may serve for the model by which we are to form some kind of idea of the rest. Thus we may say that a tiger is of the cat kind and a wolf of the dog kind, because there are some rude resemblances between each; and a person who has never seen the wild animals will have some complete knowledge of their figure from the tame ones. On the contrary, I will not, as some systematic writers have done, say that a bat is of the human kind, or a hog of the horse kind, merely because there is some resemblance in their teeth or their paws;—for although this resemblance may be striking enough, yet a person who has never seen a bat or a hog will never form any just conception of either by being told of this minute similitude. In short, the method in classing quadrupeds should be taken from their most striking resemblances; and where these do not offer we should not force the similitude, but leave the animal to be described as a solitary species. The number of quadrupeds is so few, that, indeed, without any method whatever there is no greater danger of confusion.

All quadrupeds—the number of which, according to Buffon amounts to about two hundred—may be classed in the following manner:—

First, those of the Horse kind. This class contains the horse, the ass, and the Zebra. Of these none have horns, and their hoof is of one solid piece.

The second class are those of the Cow kind; comprehending the urus, the buffalo, the bison, and the bonassua. These have cloven hoofs, and chew the cud.

The third class is that of the Sheep kind; with cloven hoofs, and chewing the cud, like the former. In this is comprehended the sheep, the Goat, the Lama, the vigogne, the gazelle, the guinea-deer, and all of a similar form.

The fourth class is that of the Deer kind, with cloven hoofs, and with solid horn that are shed every year. This class contains the elk, the rein-deer, the Stag, the buck, the roe-buck, and the axis.

The fifth class comprehends all those of the Hog kind, the peccari, and babyroussa.

The sixth class is that numerous one of the Cat kind. This comprehends the cat, the lion, the panther, the leopard, the jaguar, the cougar, the jaguarette, the lynx, the ounce, and the catamountain. These are all carnivorous, and furnished with crooked claws, which they can sheath and unsheath at pleasure.

The seventh class is that of the Dog kind—carnivorous, and furnished with claws like the former, but which they cannot sheath. This class comprehends the dog, the wolf, the fox, the jackall, the isstia, the hyena, the civette, the glibet, and the genet.

The eighth class is that of the Weasel kind, with a long small body, with five toes or claws on each foot, the first of them separated from the rest like a thumb. This comprehends the weasel, the martin, the pole-cat, the ferret, the mangoust, the vanfire, the ermine, with all the varieties of the American mousettes.

The ninth class is that of the rabbit kind, with two large cutting teeth in each jaw. This comprehends the rabbit, the hare, the Guinea-pig, all the various species

of the squirrel, the dormouse, the marmotte, the rat, the mouse, the agouti, the paca, the aperea, and the tapeti.

The tenth class is that of the Hedge-hog kind, with claw feet, and covered with prickles, comprehending the hedge-hog, the porcupine, the eouando, and the urson.

The eleventh class is that of the Tortoise kind, covered with a shell or scale. This comprehends the tortoise, the pangolin, and the phataguin.

The twelfth is that of the Otter, or amphibious kind, comprehending the otter, the beaver, the desman, the morse, and the seal.

The thirteenth class is that of the Ape and Monkey kinds, with hands and feet resembling hands.

The fifteenth class is that of winged quadrupeds, or the Bat kind, containing the bat, Flying squirrel, and some other varieties.

The animals which seem to approach no other kind, either in nature or in form, but to make each a distinct species in itself, are the following—the elephant, the rhinoceros, the hippopotamus, the caméléopard, the camel, the bear, the badger, the tapir, the cabiai, the coati, the antbear, the tatau, and, lastly, the sloth.

All other quadrupeds whose names are not set down will be found among some of the above-mentioned classes, and referred to that which they most resemble. When, therefore, we are at a loss to know the name of any particular animal, by examining which of the known kinds it most resembles, either in shape or in hoofs or claws, and then examining the particular description, we shall be able to discover not only its name but its history. I have already said that all methods of this kind are merely arbitrary, and that Nature makes no exact distinction between her productions. It is hard, for instance, to tell whether we ought to refer the civet to the dog or the cat kind; but if we know the exact history of the civet, it is no great matter to which kind we shall judge it to bear the greatest resemblance. It is enough that a distribution of this kind excites in us some rude outlines of the make or some marked similitudes in the nature of these animals; but to know them with any precision, no system, nor even description, will serve, since the animal itself, or a good print of it, must be seen, and its history be read at length, before it can be said to be known. To pretend to say that we have an idea of a quadruped because we can call the number or the make of its teeth or its paws, is as absurd as if we should pretend to distinguish men by the buttons on their clothes. Indeed, it often happens that the quadruped itself can be but seldom seen—that many of the more rare kinds do not come into Europe above once in an age; and some of them have never been able to bear the removal. In such a case, therefore, there is no other substitute but a good print of the animal to give an idea of its figure; for no description whatsoever can answer this purpose so well. Mr. Locke, with his usual good sense, has observed that a drawing of the animal, taken from the life, is one of the best methods of advancing natural history; and yet most of our modern systematic writers are content rather with describing. Description, no doubt, will go some way towards giving an idea of the figure of an animal; but they are certainly much the longest way about, and, as they are usually managed, much the most obscure. In a drawing, we can at a single glance gather more instruction than by a day's painful investigation of methodical systems, where we are told the proportions with great exactness, and yet remain ignorant of the totality. In fact, this method of describing all things is a fault that has infected many of our books that treat on the meaner arts for this last age. They attempt to teach by words what is only to be learnt by practice and inspection: most of our dictionaries and bodies of arts and sciences are guilty of this error. Suppose, for instance, it be requisite to mention the manner of making shoes, it is plain that all the verbal instructions in the

world will never give an adequate idea of this humble art, or teach a man to become a shoemaker. A day or two in a shoemaker's shop will answer the end better than a whole folio of instruction, which only serves to oppress the learner with the weight of its pretended importance. We have lately seen a laborious work carried on at Paris with this only intent of teaching all the trades by description; however, the design at first bluish seems to be ill considered; and it is probable that very few advantages will be derived from so laborious an undertaking. With regard to the descriptions in natural history, these, without all question, under the direction of good sense, are necessary; but still they should be kept within proper bounds; and, where a thing may be much more easily shown than described, the exhibition should ever precede the account.

CHAP. XV.

OF QUADRUPEDS IN GENERAL COMPARED TO MAN.

Upon comparing the various animals of the globe with each other, we shall find that Quadrupeds demand the rank immediately next ourselves, and consequently come first in consideration. The similitude between the structure of their bodies and ours—those instincts which they enjoy in a superior degree to the rest—their constant services or unceasing hostilities—all render them the foremost objects of our curiosity, and the most interesting parts of Animated Nature. These, however, although now so completely subdued, very probably in the beginning were nearer upon an equality with us, and disputed the possession of the earth. Man, while yet savage himself, was but ill qualified to civilise the forest. While yet naked, unarmed, and without shelter, every wild beast was a formidable rival; and the destruction of such was the first employment of heroes. But when he began to multiply and arts to accumulate, he soon cleared the plains of the most noxious of these his rivals; a part was taken under his protection and care, while the rest found a precarious refuge in the burning desert or the howling wilderness.

From being rivals, quadrupeds have now become the assistants of man; upon them he devolves the most laborious employments, and finds in them patient and humble coadjutors—ready to obey, and content with the smallest kindness. It was not, however, without long and repeated efforts that the independent spirit of these animals was broken; for the savage freedom in wild animals is generally found to pass down through several generations before it is totally subdued. Those cats and dogs that are taken from a state of natural wildness in the forest transmit their fierceness to their young: and, however concealed in general, it breaks out upon several occasions. Thus the assiduity and application of man in bringing them up not only alters their dispositions but their forms; and the difference between animals in a state of nature and domestic tameness is so considerable, that Mr. Buffon has taken this as a principal distinction in classing them.

In taking a cursory view of the form of quadrupeds, we may easily perceive that of all the ranks of Animated Nature they bear the nearest resemblance to man. This similitude will be found more striking when erecting themselves on their hinder feet, when they are taught to walk forward in an upright posture. We then see that all their extremities in a manner correspond with ours, and present us with a rude imitation of our own. In some of the ape kind the resemblance is so striking, that anatomists are puzzled to find in what part of the human body man's superiority consists; and scarce any but the metaphysician can draw the line that ultimately divides them.

But if we compare their internal structure with our own the likeness will be found still to increase, and we shall perceive many advantages they enjoy common with us above the lower tribes of Nature. Like us, they are placed above the class of birds, by bringing forth their young alive; like us, they are placed above the class of fishes, by breathing through the lungs; like us, they are placed above the class of insects, by having red blood circulating through their veins; and, lastly, like us, they are different from almost all the other classes of Animated Nature, being either wholly or partly covered with hair. Thus nearly are we represented in point of conformation to the class of animals immediately below us; and this shows what little reason we have to be proud of our persons alone, to the perfection of which quadrupeds make such very near approaches.

The similitude of quadrupeds to man obtains also in the fixedness of their nature, and their being less apt to be changed by the influence of climate or food than the lower ranks of Nature. Birds are found very apt to alter both in colour and size; fishes, likewise, still more; insects may be quickly brought to change and adapt themselves to the climate; and if we descend to plants—which may be allowed to have a kind of living existence—their kinds may be surprisingly and readily altered, and taught to assume new forms. The figure of every animal may be considered as a kind of drapery, which it may be made to put on or off by human assiduity; in man the drapery is almost invariable; in quadrupeds it varies; and the variety may be made greater still as we descend to the inferior classes of animal existence.

Quadrupeds, although they are thus strongly marked, and in general divided from the various kinds around them, yet some of them are often of so equivocal a nature, that it is hard to tell whether they ought to be ranked in the quadruped class or degraded to those below them. If, for instance, we were to marshal the whole group of animals round man, placing the most perfect next him and those most equivocal near the classes they most approach, we should find it difficult, after the principals had taken their stations near him, where to place many that lie at the outskirts of this phalanx. The bat makes a near approach to the aerial tribe, and might by some be reckoned among the birds. The porcupine has not less pretensions to that class—being covered with quills, and showing that birds are not the only part of Nature that are furnished with such a defence. The armadilla might be referred to the tribe of insects, or snails—being like them covered with shells; the seal and the morse might be ranked among the fishes—like them being furnished with fins, and almost constantly residing in the same element. All these, the farther they recede from the human figure become less perfect, and may be considered as the lowest kinds of that class to which we have referred them.

But although the variety in quadrupeds is thus great, they all seem well adapted to the stations in which they are placed. There is scarce one of them, how rudely shaped soever, that is not formed to enjoy a state of happiness fitted to its nature. All its deformities are only relative to us, but all its enjoyments are peculiarly its own. We may superficially suppose the sloth (that takes up months in climbing a single tree) or the mole (whose eyes are too small for a distinct vision) are wretched and helpless creatures; but it is probable that their life, with respect to themselves, is a life of luxury; the most pleasing food is easily obtained; and as they are abridged in one pleasure it may be doubled in those which remain. Quadrupeds, and all the lower kinds of animals, have at worst but the torments of immediate evil to encounter—and this is but transient and accidental; man has two sources of calamity—that which he foresees as well as that which he feels; so that, if his reward were to be in this life alone, then, indeed, would he be of all beings the most wretched.

The heads of quadrupeds, though differing from each other, are in general adapted to their way of living. In some it is sharp—the better to fit the animal for turning up the earth in which its food lies; in some it is long—in order to give a greater room for the olfactory nerves, as in dogs, who are to hunt and find out their prey by the scent; in others it is short and thick, as in the lion, to increase the strength of the jaw, and to fit it the better for combat; in quadrupeds that feed upon grass, they are enabled to hold down their heads to the ground by a strong tendinous ligament which runs from the head to the middle of the back. This serves to raise the head, although it has been held to the ground for several hours, without any labour or any assistance from the muscles of the neck.

The teeth of animals are entirely fitted to the nature of their food. Those of such as live upon flesh differ in every respect from such as live upon vegetables. In the latter, they seem entirely made for gathering and bruising their simple food, being edged before and fitted for cutting, but broad towards the back of the jaw and fitted for pounding. In the carnivorous kinds, they are sharp before and fitted rather for holding than dividing. In the one, the teeth serve as grindstones—in the other, as weapons of defence; in both, however, the surface of those teeth which serve for grinding are unequal—the cavities and risings fitting those of the opposite so as to tally exactly when the jaws are brought together. These inequalities better serve for comminuting the food; but they become smooth with age—and for this reason old animals take a longer time to chew their food than such as are in the vigour of life.

Their legs are not better fitted than their teeth to their respective wants or enjoyments. In some they are made for strength only, and to support a vast unwieldy frame without much flexibility or beauty of proportion. Thus the legs of the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the sea-horse resemble pillars. Were they made smaller they would be unfit to support the body; were they endowed with greater flexibility or swiftness, that would be needless, as they do not pursue other animals for food; and, conscious of their own superior strength, there are none that they deign to avoid. Deers, hares, and other creatures, that are to find safety only in flight, have their legs made entirely for speed; they are slender and nervous. Were it not for this advantage, every carnivorous animal would soon make them a prey, and their races would be entirely extinguished; but in the present state of nature the means of safety are rather superior to those of offence, and the pursuing animal must owe success only to patience, perseverance, and industry. The feet of some that live upon fish alone are made for swimming. The toes of these animals are joined together with membranes, being web-footed, like a goose or a duck, by which they swim with great rapidity. Those animals that lead a life of hostility, and live upon others, have their feet armed with sharp claws, which some can sheath and unsheath at will. Those, on the contrary, who lead peaceful lives, have generally hoofs, which serve some as weapons of defence; and which, in all, are better fitted for traversing extensive tracts of rugged country than the claw-foot of their pursuers.

The stomach is generally proportioned to the quality of the animal's food, or the ease with which it is obtained. In those that live upon flesh and such nourishing substances, it is small and glandular, affording such juices as are best adapted to digest its contents; their intestines, also, are short, and without fatness. On the contrary, such animals as feed entirely upon vegetables have the stomach very large; and those who chew the cud have no less than four stomachs, all which serve as so many laboratories to prepare and turn their coarse food into proper nourishment. In Africa, where the plants afford greater nourishment than in our temperate climates, several animals that with us have four stomachs

have there but two. However, in all animals the size of the intestines are proportioned to the nature of the food; where that is furnished in large quantities the stomach dilates to answer the increase. In domestic animals that are plentifully supplied it is large; in the wild animals that live precariously it is much more contracted, and the intestines are much shorter.

In this manner, all animals are fitted by nature to fill up some peculiar station. The greatest animals are made for an inoffensive life—to range the plains and the forest without injuring others—to live upon the productions of the earth, the grass of the field, or the tender branches of trees. These, secure in their own strength, neither fly from any other quadrupeds nor yet attack them: Nature to the greatest strength has added the most gentle and harmless dispositions; without this, those enormous creatures would be more than a match for all the rest of the creation—for what devastation might not ensue were the elephant, the rhinoceros, or the buffalo as fierce and mischievous as the tiger or the rat? In order to oppose these larger animals, and in some measure to prevent their exuberance, there is a species of the carnivorous kind, of inferior strength indeed, but of greater activity and cunning. The lion and the tiger generally watch for the larger kinds of prey, attack them at some disadvantage, and commonly jump upon them by surprise. None of the carnivorous kinds, except the dog alone, will make a voluntary attack but with the odds on their side. They are all cowards by nature, and usually catch their prey by a bound from some lurking place, seldom attempting to invade them openly; for the larger beasts are too powerful for them, and the smaller too swift.

A lion does not willingly attack a horse; and then only when compelled by the keenest hunger. The combats between a lion and a horse are frequent enough in Italy; where they are both enclosed in a kind of amphitheatre, fitted for that purpose. The lion always approaches wheeling about, while the horse presents his hinder parts to the enemy. The lion in this manner goes round and round, still narrowing his circle, till he comes to the proper distance to make his spring; just at the time the lion springs the horse lashes with both legs from behind, and in general the odds are in his favour—it more often happening that the lion is stunned and struck motionless by the blow than that he effects his jump between the horse's shoulders. If the lion is stunned and left sprawling, the horse escapes without attempting to improve his victory; but if the lion succeeds, he sticks to his prey, and tears the horse to pieces in a very short time.

But it is not among the larger animals of the forest alone that these hostilities are carried on; there is a minuter and a still more treacherous contest between the lower ranks of quadrupeds. The panther hunts for the sheep and the goat; the catamountain for the hare or the rabbit; and the wild cat for the squirrel or the mouse. In proportion as each carnivorous animal wants strength, it uses all the assistance of patience, assiduity, and cunning. However, the arts of these to pursue are not so great as the tricks of their prey to escape; so that the power of destruction in one class is inferior to the power of safety in the other. Were this otherwise, the forest would soon be dispeopled of the feebler races of animals; and beasts of prey themselves would want at one time that subsistence which they have lavishly destroyed at another.

Few wild animals seek their prey in the day-time; they are then generally deterred by their fears of man in the inhabited countries, and by the excessive heat of the sun in those extensive forests that lie towards the south, and in which they reign the undisputed tyrants. As soon as the morning, therefore, appears, the carnivorous animals retire to their dens; and the elephant, the horse, the deer, and all the hare kinds—those inoffensive

tenants of the plain—make their appearance. But again at nightfall the state of hostility begins; the whole forest then echoes to a variety of different howlings. Nothing can be more terrible than an African landscape at the close of evening; the deep-toned roarings of the lion—the thriller yellings of the tiger—the jackall, pursuing by the scent and barking like a dog—the hyena, with a note peculiarly solitary and dreadful; but above all, the hissing of the various kinds of serpents, that then begin their call, and, as I am assured, make a much louder symphony than the birds in our groves in a morning.

Beasts of prey seldom devour each other—nor can anything but the greatest degree of hunger induce them to it. What they chiefly seek after is the deer or the goat—those harmless creatures that seem to embellish Nature. These are either pursued or surprised, and afford the most agreeable repast to their destroyers. The most usual method with even the fiercest animals is to hide and crouch near some path frequented by their prey, or some water where cattle come to drink, when they seize them at once with a bound. The lion and the tiger leap twenty feet at a spring; and this, rather than their swiftness or strength, is what they have most to depend upon for a supply. There is scarce one of the deer or hare kind that is not very easily capable of escaping them by its swiftness; so that whenever any of these fall a prey it must be owing to their own inattention.

But there is another class of the carnivorous kind that hunt by the scent, and which it is much more difficult to escape. It is remarkable that all animals of this kind pursue in a pack, and encourage each other by their mutual cries. The jackall, the syagush, the wolf, and the dog are of this kind: they pursue with patience rather than swiftness; their prey flies at first, and leaves them for miles behind; but they keep on with a constant, steady pace, and excite each other by a general spirit of industry and emulation, till at last they share the common plunder. But it too often happens that the larger beasts of prey when they hear a cry of this kind begun pursue the pack, and when they have hunted down the animal come in and monopolize the spoil. This has given rise to the report of the jackall's being the lion's provider; when the reality is, that the jackall hunts for itself, and the lion is an unwelcome intruder upon the fruits of his toil.

Nevertheless, with all the powers which carnivorous animals are possessed of they generally lead a life of famine and fatigue. Their prey has such a variety of methods of escaping, that they sometimes continue without food for a fortnight together: but Nature has endowed them with a degree of patience equal to the severity of their state—so that as their subsistence is precarious their appetites are complying. They usually seize their prey with a roar either of seeming delight or, perhaps, to terrify it from resistance. They frequently devour it, bones and all, in the most ravenous manner; and then retire to their dens, continuing inactive till the calls of hunger again excite their courage and industry. But as all their methods of pursuit are counteracted by the arts of evasion, they often continue to range without success, supporting a state of famine for several days, nay, sometimes weeks, together. Of their prey, some find protection in holes, in which Nature has directed them to bury themselves; some find safety by swiftness, and such as are possessed of neither of these advantages generally herd together, and endeavour to repel invasion by united force. The very sheep, which to us seem so defenceless, are by no means so in a state of Nature; they are furnished with arms of defence and a very great degree of swiftness; but they are still further assisted by their spirit of mutual defence: the females fall into the centre; and the males, forming a ring round them, oppose their horns to the assailants. Some animals, that feed upon fruits which are to be found only at one time

of the year, fill their holes with several sorts of plants, which enable them to lie concealed during the hard frosts of the winter, contented with their prison, since it affords them plenty and protection. These holes are dug with so much art that there seems the design of an architect in the formation. There are usually two apertures, by one of which the little inhabitant can always escape when the enemy is in possession of the other. Many creatures are equally careful of avoiding their enemies, by placing a centinel to warn them of the approach of danger. These generally perform this duty by turns; and they know how to punish such as have neglected their post, or have been unmindful of the common safety. Such are a part of the efforts that the weaker races of quadrupeds exert to avoid their invaders, and in general they are attended with success. The arts of instinct are most commonly found an overmatch for the invasions of instinct. Man is the only creature against whom all their little tricks cannot prevail. Wherever he has spread his dominion scarce any flight can save, or any retreat harbour; wherever he comes terror seems to follow, and all society ceases among the inferior tenants of the plain: their union against him can yield them no protection, and their cunning is but weakness. In their fellow brutes they have an enemy whom they can oppose with an equality of advantage; they can oppose fraud or swiftness to force, or numbers to invasion; but what can be done against such an enemy as man, who finds them out though unseen, and though remote destroys them? Wherever he comes all the contests among the meaner ranks seem to be at an end, or is carried only by surprise. Such as he has thought proper to protect have calmly submitted to his protection; such as he has found convenient to destroy carry on an unequal war, and their numbers are every day decreasing.

The wild animal is subject to few alterations, and in a state of savage nature continues for ages the same in size, shape, and colour. But it is otherwise when subdued and taken under the protection of man; its external form, and even its internal structure, are altered by human assiduity—and this is one of the first and greatest causes of the variety that we see among the several quadrupeds of the same species. Man appears to have changed the very nature of domestic animals by cultivation and care. A domestic animal is a slave that seems to have few other desires but such as man is willing to allow it. Humble, patient, resigned, and attentive, it fills up the duties of its station—ready for labour, and content with subsistence.

Almost all domestic animals seem to bear the marks of servitude strong upon them. All the varieties in their colour—all the fineness and length of their hair, together with the depending length of their ears, seem to have arisen from a long continuance of domestic slavery. What an immense variety is there to be found in the ordinary race of dogs and horses! the principal differences of which have been effected by the industry of man so adapting the food, the treatment, the labour, and the climate, that Nature seems almost to have forgotten her original design; and the tame animal no longer bears any resemblance to its ancestors in the woods around him.

In this manner, Nature is under a kind of constraint in those animals we have taught to live in a state of servitude near us. The savage animals preserve the marks of their first formation; their colours are generally the same; a rough dusky brown or a tawny seem almost their only varieties. But it is otherwise in the tame; their colours are various, and their forms different from each other. The nature of the climate, indeed, operates upon all, but more particularly on these. That nourishment which is prepared by the hand of man (most adapted to their appetites, but to suit his own convenience)—that climate, the rigours of which he can

soften—and that employment to which they are sometimes assigned to, produce a number of distinctions that are to be found among the savage animals. These at first were accidental, but in time became hereditary; and a new race of monsters are propagated, rather to answer to the purposes of human pleasure than their own convenience. In short, their very appetites may be changed; and those that feed only upon grass may be rendered carnivorous. I have seen a sheep that would eat flesh, and a horse that was fond of oysters.

But not their appetites or their figure alone, but their very dispositions and their natural sagacity, are altered by the vicinity of man. In those countries where men have seldom intruded, some animals have been found established in a kind of civil state of society. Remote from the tyranny of man, they seem to have a spirit of mutual benevolence and mutual friendship. The beavers in these distant solitudes are known to build like architects and rule like citizens. The habitations that these have been seen to erect exceed the houses of the human inhabitants of the same country, both in neatness and convenience. But as soon as man intrudes upon their society they seem impressed with the terrors of their inferior situation; their spirit of society ceases, the bond is dissolved, and every animal looks for safety in solitude, and there tries all its little industry to shift only for itself.

Next to human influence, the climate seems to have the strongest effect both upon the nature and form of quadrupeds. As in man, we have seen some alterations produced by the variety of his situation, so in the lower ranks that are more subject to variation the influence of climate is more readily perceived. As these are more nearly attached to the earth, and in a manner connected to the soil—as they have none of the arts of shielding off the inclemency of the weather or softening the rigours of the sun, they are consequently more changed by its variations. In general, it may be remarked that the colder the climate the larger and warmer is the fur of each animal—it being wisely provided by Nature that the inhabitant should be adapted to the rigours of its situation. Thus the fox and the wolf, which in temperate regions have short hair, have a fine long fur in the frozen regions near the pole. On the contrary, those dogs which with us have long hair, when taken to Guinea or Angola in a short time cast their thick covering and assume a lighter dress, one more adapted to the warmth of the country. The beaver and the ermine, which are found in the greatest plenty in the cold regions, are remarkable for the warmth and delicacy of their furs; while the elephant and the rhinoceros, which are natives of the line, have scarce any hair. Not but that human industry can in some measure co-operate with or repress the effects of climate in this particular. It is well known what alterations are produced by proper care in the sheep's fleece in different parts of our own country; and the same industry is pursued with a like success in Syria, where many of their animals are clothed with a long and beautiful hair, which they take care to improve, as they work it into that stuff called camblet—so well known in different parts of Europe.

The disposition of the animal seems also not less marked by the climate than the figure. The same causes that seem to have rendered the human inhabitants of the rigorous climates savage and ignorant have also operated upon their animals. Both at the line and the pole the wild quadrupeds are fierce and untameable. In these latitudes—their savage dispositions having not been quelled by any efforts from man, and being still farther stimulated by the severity of the weather—they continue fierce and untractable. Most of the attempts which have hitherto been made to tame the wild beasts brought home from the pole or the equator have proved ineffectual. They are gentle and harmless enough while young; but as they grow up they acquire their natural

fierocity, and snap at the hand that feeds them. It may indeed, in general be asserted, that in all countries where the men are most barbarous the beasts are most fierce and cruel: and this is but a natural consequence of the struggle between man and the more savage animals of the forest; for in proportion as he is weak and timid they must be bold and intrusive—in proportion as his dominion is but feebly supported their rapacity must be more obnoxious. In the extensive countries, therefore, lying round the pole or beneath the line, the quadrupeds are fierce and formidable. Africa has ever been remarked for the brutality of its men and the fierceness of its animals: its lions and its leopards are not less terrible than its crocodiles and its serpents; their dispositions seem entirely marked with the rigours of the climate; and, being bred in an extreme heat, they show a peculiar ferocity that neither the force of man can conquer nor his arts allay. However, it is happy for the wretched inhabitants of those climates that its most formidable animals are all solitary ones—that they have not learnt the art of uniting to oppress mankind; but each, depending upon its own strength, invades without any assistant.

The food, also, is another cause in the variety which we find among the quadrupeds of the same kind. Thus the beasts which feed in the valley are generally larger than those which glean a scanty subsistence on the mountain. Such as live in the warm climates, where the plants are much larger and more succulent than with us, are equally remarkable for their bulk. The ox fed in the plains of Hindostan is much larger than that which is more hardily maintained on the side of the Alps. The deserts of Africa, where the plants are extremely nourishing, produce the largest and fiercest animals; and, perhaps, for a contrary reason, America is found not to produce such large animals as are seen in the ancient continent. But, whatever be the reason, the fact is certain, that while America exceeds us in the size of its reptiles of all kinds, it is far inferior in its quadruped productions. Thus, for instance, the largest animal of that country is the tapir, which can by no means be compared to the elephant of Africa. Its beasts of prey, also, are divested of that strength and courage which is so dangerous in this part of the world. The American lion, tiger, and leopard—if such diminutive creatures deserve their names—are neither so fierce nor so valiant as those of Africa and Asia. The tiger of Bengal has been seen to measure twelve feet in length, without including the tail; whereas the American tiger seldom exceeds three. This difference obtains still more in the other animals of that country—so that some have been of opinion that all quadrupeds in Southern America are of a different species from those most resembling them in the old world; and that there are none which are common to both but such as have entered America by the north; and which, being able to bear the rigours of the frozen pole, have travelled from the ancient continent by that passage into the new. Thus the bear, the wolf, the elk, the stag, the fox, and the beaver, are known to the inhabitant as well of North America as of Russia; while most of the various kinds to the southward in both continents bear no resemblance to each other. Upon the whole, such as peculiarly belong to the new continent are without any marks of the quadruped perfection. They are almost wholly destitute of the power of defence; they have neither formidable teeth, horns, nor tail; their figure is awkward, and their limbs ill-proportioned. Some among them, such as the ant-bear and the sloth, appear so miserably formed as scarce to have the power of moving and eating. They seemingly drag out a miserable and languid existence in the most desert solitude, and would quickly have been destroyed in a country where there were inhabitants or powerful beasts to oppose them.

But if the quadrupeds of the new continent be less

they are found in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through Nature that the smallest animals multiply the fastest. The goat imported from Europe to South America soon begins to degenerate; but as it grows less it becomes more prolific; and, instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, it generally produces five, and sometimes more. What there is in the food or the climate that produces this change we have not been able to learn; we might be apt to ascribe it to the heat, but on the African coast, where it is still hotter, this rule does not obtain; for the goat, instead of degenerating there, seems rather to improve.

However, the rule is general among all quadrupeds, that those which are large and formidable produce but a few at a time; while such as are mean and contemptible are extremely prolific. The lion or tiger have seldom above two cubs at a litter; while the cat, which is of a similar nature, is usually seen to have five or six. In this manner the lower tribes become extremely numerous, and but for this surprising fecundity, from their natural weakness, they would quickly be extirpated. The breed of mice, for instance, would have long since been blotted from the earth, were the mouse as slow in production as the elephant. But it has been wisely provided that such animals as can make but little resistance should at least have a means of repairing the destruction which they must often suffer by their quick reproduction—that they should increase even among enemies, and multiply under the hand of the destroyer. On the other hand, it has as wisely been ordered by Providence that the larger kinds should produce but slowly; otherwise, as they require proportional supplies from Nature, they would quickly consume their own store; and, of consequence, many of them would soon perish through want—so that life would thus be given without the necessary means of subsistence. In a word, Providence has most wisely balanced the strength of the great against the weakness of the little. Since it was necessary that some should be great and others mean—since it was expedient that some should live upon others, it has assisted the weakness of one by granting it fruitfulness, and diminished the number of the other by infecundity.

In consequence of this provision the larger creatures, which bring forth few at a time, seldom begin to degenerate till they have nearly acquired their full growth. On the contrary, those which bring many reproduce before they have arrived at half their natural size. Thus the horse and the bull are nearly at their best before they begin to breed; the hog and the rabbit scarce leave the teat before they become parents in turn. Almost all animals likewise continue the time of their pregnancy in proportion to their size. The mare continues eleven months with foal, the cow nine, the wolf five, and the bitch nine weeks. In all the intermediate litters are the most fruitful—the first and the last generally producing the fewest in number and the worst of the kind.

Whatever be the natural disposition of animals at other times, they all acquire new courage when they consider themselves as defending their young. No terrors can then drive them from the part of duty; the mildest begin to exert their little force, and resist the most formidable enemy. Where resistance is hopeless, they then incur every danger in order to rescue their young by flight, and retard their own expedition by providing for their little ones. When the female opossum, an animal of America, is pursued, she instantly takes her young into a false belly with which Nature has supplied her, and carries them off or dies in the endeavour. I have been lately assured of a she-fox which, when hunted, took her cub in her mouth, and run for several miles without quitting it, until at last she was forced to leave it behind upon the approach of a mastiff, as she ran through a farmer's yard. But if at this period the mildest animals acquire new fierceness, how formidable must those be that subsist by rapine! At such times

no obstacles can stop their ravage, nor no threats can terrify; the lioness then seems more hardy than even the lion himself. She attacks men and beasts indiscriminately, and carries all she can overcome reeking to her cubs, whom she thus early accustoms to slaughter. Milk in the carnivorous animals is much more sparing than in others; and it may be for this reason that all such carry home their prey alive, that, in feeding their young, its blood may supply the deficiencies of Nature, and serve instead of that milk with which they are so sparingly supplied.

Nature, that has thus given them courage to defend their young, has given them instinct to choose the proper times of copulation, so as to bring forth when the provision suited to each kind is to be found in the greatest plenty. The wolf, for instance, couples in December, so that, the time of pregnancy continuing five months, it may have its young in April. The mare, who goes eleven months, admits the horse in summer in order to foal about the beginning of May. On the contrary, those animals which lay up provisions for the winter, such as the beaver and the marmotte, couple in the latter end of autumn, so as to have their young about January, against which season they have provided a very comfortable store. These seasons for coupling, however, among some of the domestic kinds are generally in consequence of the quantity of provisions with which they are at any time supplied. Thus we may, by feeding any of these animals and keeping off the rigour of the climate, make them breed whenever we please. In this manner those contrive who produce lambs all the year round.

The choice of situation in bringing forth is also very remarkable. In most of the rapacious kinds the female takes the utmost precautions to hide the place of her retreat from the male, who otherwise, when pressed by hunger, would be apt to devour her cubs. She seldom, therefore, strays far from her den, and never approaches while he is in view, nor visits him again till her young are capable of providing for themselves. Such animals as are of tender constitutions take the utmost care to provide a place of warmth as well as safety for their young; the rapacious kinds bring forth in the thickest woods; those that chew the cud, with the various tribes of the vermin kind, choose some hiding-place in the neighbourhood of man. Some dig holes in the ground, some choose the hollow of a tree, and all the amphibious kinds bring up their young near the water, and accustom them betimes to their proper element.

Thus Nature seems kindly careful for the protection of the meanest of her creatures: but there is one class of quadrupeds that seems entirely left to chance, that no parent stands forth to protect, nor no instructor leads to teach the arts of subsistence. These are the quadrupeds that are brought forth from the egg, such as the lizard, the tortoise, and the crocodile. The fecundity of all other animals compared with these is sterility itself. These bring forth above two hundred at a time; but as the offspring is more numerous the parental care is less exerted. Thus the numerous broods of eggs are, without farther solicitude, buried in the warm sands of the shore, and the heat of the sun alone is left to bring them to perfection. To this perfection they arrive almost as soon as disengaged from the shell. Most of them, without any other guide than instinct, immediately make to the water. In their passage thither they have numberless enemies to fear. The birds of prey that haunt the shore, the beasts that accidentally come that way, and even the animals that give them birth, are known, with a strange rapacity, to thin their numbers as well as the rest.

But it is kindly ordered by Providence that those animals which are mostly obnoxious should thus have many destroyers; were it not for this, by their extreme fecundity they would soon overrun the earth, and number all our plains with deformity.

PART III.

ANIMALS OF THE HORSE KIND.

BOOK I.—CHAP. I.

OF THE HORSE.

Animals of the horse kind deserve a place next to man in a History of Nature. Their activity, their strength, their usefulness, and their beauty, all contribute to render them the principal objects of our curiosity and care—a race of creatures in whose welfare we are interested next to our own.

Of all the quadruped animals the horse seems the most beautiful; the noble largeness of his form, the glossy smoothness of his skin, the graceful ease of his motions, and the exact symmetry of his shape, have taught us to regard him as the first and the most perfectly formed; and yet, what is extraordinary enough, if we examine him internally, his structure will be found the most different from that of man of all other quadrupeds whatsoever. As the ape approaches us the nearest in internal conformation, so the horse is the most remote—a striking proof that there may be oppositions of beauty, and that all grace is not to be referred to one standard.

To have an idea of this noble animal in his native simplicity, we are not to look for him in the pastures or the stables, to which he has been consigned by man, but in those wild and extensive plains where he has been originally produced—where he ranges without control, and riots in all the variety of luxurious Nature. In this state of happy independence he disdains the assistance of man, which only tends to servitude. In those boundless tracts, whether of Africa or New Spain, where he runs at liberty, he seems no way incommoded with the inconveniences to which he is subject in Europe. The continual verdure of the fields supplies his wants; and the climate, that never knows a winter, suits his constitution, which naturally seems adapted to heat. His enemies of the forest are but few—for none but greater kinds will venture to attack him; any one of these he is singly able to overcome; while, at the same time, he is content to find safety in society; for the wild horses of these countries always herd together.

In these countries, therefore, the horses are often seen feeding in droves of five or six hundred. As they do not carry on war against any other race of animals, they are satisfied to remain entirely upon the defensive. The pastures on which they live satisfy all their appetites, and all other precautions are purely for their security in case of a surprise. As they are never attacked but at a disadvantage, whenever they sleep in the forests they have always one among their number that stands as a sentinel, to give notice of any approaching danger; and this office they take by turns. If a man approaches them while they are feeding by day their sentinel walks

up boldly near him, as if to examine his strength, or to intimidate him from proceeding; but if the man approaches within pistol-shot, the sentinel then thinks it high time to alarm his fellows; this he does by a loud kind of snorting, upon which they all take the signal, and fly off with the speed of the wind—their faithful sentinel bringing up the rear.

It is not easy to say from what country the horse came originally. It should seem that the colder climates do not agree with his constitution; for although he is found almost in them all, yet his form is altered there, and he is found at once diminutive and ill shaped. We have the testimony of the ancients that there were wild horses once in Europe; at present, however, they are totally brought under subjection; and even those which are found in America are of a Spanish breed, which, being sent thither upon its first discovery, have since become wild, and have spread over all the south of that vast continent almost to the straits of Magellan. These in general are a small breed, of about fourteen hands high. They have thick jaws and clumsy joints; their ears and neck, also, are long; they are easily tamed—for the horse by nature is a gentle, complying creature, and resists rather from fear than obstinacy. They are caught by a kind of noose, and then held fast by the legs and tied to a tree, where they are left for two days without food or drink. By that time they begin to grow manageable; and in some weeks they become as tame as if they had never been in a state of wildness. If by any accident they are once more set at liberty they never become wild again, but know their masters, and come to their call. Some of the buccaneers have often been agreeably surprised, after a long absence, to see their faithful horses once more present themselves with their usual assiduity, and come up with a fond submission to receive the rein.

These American horses, however, cannot properly be ranked among the wild races, since they were originally bred from such as were tame. It is not in the new, but in the old world that we are to look for this animal in a true state of nature—in the extensive deserts of Africa, in Arabia, and those wide-spread countries that separate Tartary from the more southern nations. Vast droves of these animals are seen wild among the Tartars: they are of a small breed, extremely swift, and very readily evade their pursuers. As they go together, they will not admit of any strange animals among them, though even of their own kind. Whenever they find a tame horse attempting to associate with them they instantly gather round him, and soon oblige him to seek safety by flight. There are vast numbers also of wild horses to the north of China, but they are of a weak, timid breed—small of stature and useless in war.

At the Cape of Good Hope there are numbers of horses

in a state of nature, but they are small, vicious, and untameable. They are found wild, also, in several other parts of Africa; but the wretched inhabitants of that country either want the art to tame them or seem ignorant of their uses. It is common with the Negroes, who are carried over from thence to America, when they first see a horse to testify both terror and surprise. These poor men seem not to have any knowledge of such a creature; and, though the horse is probably a native of their own country, they have let all the rest of mankind enjoy the benefit of his services without turning them to any advantage at home. In some parts of Africa, therefore, where the horse runs wild, the natives seem to consider it rather in the light of a dainty food than an useful creature capable of assisting them either in war or labour: riding seems a refinement that the natives of Angola or Caffraria have not as yet acquired; and when they catch a horse it is with an intent to eat him.

But of all countries in the world where the horse runs wild Arabia produces the most beautiful breed—the most generous, swift, and persevering. They are found, though not in great numbers, in the deserts of that country; and the natives use every stratagem to take them. Although they are active and beautiful, yet they are not so large as those that are bred up tame; they are of a brown colour, their mane and tail very short, and the hair black and tufted. Their swiftness is incredible; the attempt to pursue them in the usual manner of the chase with dogs would be entirely fruitless. Such is the rapidity of their flight that they are instantly out of view, and the dogs themselves give up the vain pursuit. The only method, therefore, of taking them is by traps hidden in the sand, which, entangling their feet, the hunter at length comes up, and either kills them or carries them home alive. If the horse be young he is considered among the Arabians as a great delicacy, and they feast upon him while any part is found remaining; but if, from his shape or vigour, he promises to be serviceable in his more noble capacity, they take the usual methods of taming him by fatigue and hunger, and he soon becomes an useful domestic animal.

The usual manner of trying their swiftness is by hunting the ostrich: the horse is the only animal whose speed is comparable to that of this creature, which is found in the sandy plains, with which those countries abound. The instant the ostrich perceives itself aimed at it makes to the mountains, while the horseman pursues with all the swiftness possible, and endeavours to cut off its retreat. The chase then continues along the plain, while the ostrich makes use of both legs and wings to assist its motion. However, a horse of the first speed is able to out-run it; so that the poor animal is then obliged to have recourse to art to elude the hunter, by frequently turning: at length, finding all escape hopeless, it hides its head wherever it can, and suffers itself tamely to be taken. If the horse in a trial of this kind shows great speed and is not readily tired, his price becomes proportionably great, and their are some horses valued at a thousand ducats.

But the horses thus caught, or trained in this manner, at present are but very few; the value of Arabian horses over all the world has in a great measure thinned the deserts of the wild breed; and there are few to be found in those countries except such as are tame. The Arabians, as we are told by historians, first began the management of horses in the time of Sheque Ismael. Before that they wandered wild along the face of the country, neglected and useless; but the natives then first began to tame their fierceness and to improve their beauty; so that at present they possess a race of the most beautiful horses in the world, with which they drive a trade, and furnish the stables of princes at immense prices.

There is scarce an Arabian, how poor soever, but is provided with his horse. They in general make use of

mares in their ordinary excursions—experience having taught them that they support fatigue, thirst, and hunger better than the horses are found to do. They are also less vicious, of a gentler nature, and are not so apt to neigh. They are more harmless, also, among themselves—not so apt to kick or hurt each other, but remain whole days together without the least mischief. The Turks, on the contrary, are not partial to mares; and the Arabians sell them such horses as they do not choose to keep for stallions at home. They preserve the pedigree of their horses with great care, and for several ages back. They know their alliances and all their genealogy; they distinguish the races by different names, and divide them into three classes. The first is that of the nobles, the ancient breed, and unadulterated on either side; the second is that of the horses of the ancient race, but adulterated; and the third is that of the common and inferior kind. The last they sell at a low price; but those of the first class, and even of the second (amongst which are found horses of equal value to the former), are sold extremely dear. They know by long experience the race of a horse by his appearance; they can tell the name, the surname, the colour, and the marks properly belonging to each. When they are not possessed of stallions of the noble race themselves for their mares they borrow from their neighbours, paying a reasonable price, as with us, and receive a written attestation of the whole. In this attestation is contained the name of the horse as well as the mare, and their respective genealogies. When the mare has produced her foal, new witnesses are called, and a new attestation signed, in which are described the marks of the foal, and the day noted when it was brought forth. These attestations increase the value of a horse, and they are given to the person who buys him. The most ordinary mare of this race sells for five hundred crowns; there are many that sell for a thousand, and some of the very finest kinds for fourteen or fifteen hundred pounds. As the Arabians have no other house but a tent to live in, this also serves them for a stable—so that the mare, the foal, the husband, the wife, and the children, lie all together indiscriminately: the little children are often seen upon the body or neck of the mare, while these continue inoffensive and harmless, permitting them thus to play with and caress them without any injury. The Arabians never beat their horses: they treat them gently; they speak to them, and seem to hold a discourse; they use them as friends; they never attempt to increase their speed by the whip, nor spur them but in cases of necessity. However, when this happens, they set off with amazing swiftness: they leap over obstacles with as much agility as a buck; and if the rider happens to fall, they are so manageable that they stand still in the midst of their most rapid career. The Arabian horses are of a middle size, easy in their motions, and rather inclined to leanness than fat. They are regularly dressed every morning and evening, and with such care that the smallest roughness is not left upon their skins. They wash their legs, the mane, and the tail, which they never cut, and which they seldom comb, lest they should thin the hair. They give them nothing to eat during the day; they only give them to drink once or twice; and at sunset they hang a bag to their heads, in which there is about half a bushel of clean barley. They continue eating the whole night, and the bag is again taken away the next morning. They are turned out to pasture in the beginning of March, when the grass is pretty high, and at which time the mares are given to the stallions. When the spring is past they take them again from pasture, and they get neither grass nor hay during the rest of the year; barley is their only food, except now and then a little straw. The mane of the foal is always clipped when about a year or eighteen months old, in order to make it stronger and thicker. They begin to break them at two years old, or two years and a half at

farthest; they never saddle or bridle them till at that age, and then they are always kept ready saddled at the door of the tent from morning till sunset, in order to be prepared against any surprise. They at present seem sensible of the great advantage their horses are to the country; there is a law, therefore, that prohibits the exportation of the mares, and such stallions as are brought into England are generally purchased on the Eastern shores of Africa, and come round to us by the Cape of Good Hope. They are in general less in stature than our own, being not above fourteen or fourteen hands and a half high; their motions are much more graceful and swifter than that of our own horses; but nevertheless their speed is far from being equal; they run higher from the ground; their stroke is not so long and close; and they are far inferior in bottom. Still, however, they must be considered as the first and finest breed in the world, and that from which all others have derived their principal qualifications. It is even probable that Arabia is the original country of horses; since there, instead of crossing the breed, they take every precaution to keep it entire. In other countries they must continually change the races, or their horses would soon degenerate; but there the same blood has passed down through a long succession, without any diminution either of force or beauty.

The race of Arabian horses has spread itself into Barbary, among the Moors, and has even extended across that extensive continent to the western shores of Africa. Among the Negroes of Gambia and Senegal the chiefs of the country are possessed of horses which, though little, are very beautiful and extremely manageable. Instead of barley, they are fed in those countries with maize, bruised and reduced into meal, and mixed up with milk when they design to fatten them. These are considered as next to the Arabian horses both for swiftness and beauty; but they are rather still smaller than the former. The Italians have a peculiar sport, in which horses of this breed run against each other. They have no riders, but saddles so formed as to flap against the horses' sides as they move, and thus to spur them forward. They are set to run in a kind of railed walk, about a mile long, out of which they never attempt to escape; but, when they once set forward, they never stop, although the walk from one end to the other is covered with a crowd of spectators, which opens and gives way as the horses approach. Our horses would scarcely in this manner face a crowd, and continue their speed without a rider through the midst of a multitude; and, indeed, it is a little surprising how in such a place the horses find their own way. However, what our English horses may want in sagacity they make up by their swiftness; and it has been found upon computation that their speed is nearly one-fourth greater, even carrying a rider, than that of the swiftest Barb without one.

The Arabian breed has been diffused into Egypt as well as Barbary, and into Persia also—where, as we are told by Marcus Paulus, there are studs of ten thousand white mares altogether, very fleet, and with the hoof so hard that shoeing is unnecessary. In these countries they in general give their horses the same treatment that they give in Arabia, except that they litter them upon a bed of their own dung, dried in the sun, and then reduced to powder. When this, which is spread under the horse about five inches thick, is moistened, they dry it again, and spread it as before. The horses of these countries a good deal resemble each other. They are usually of a slender make; their legs fine, bony, and far apart; a thin mane and fine crest; a beautiful head; the ear small and well pointed; the shoulder thin; the side rounded, without any unsightly prominence; the croup is a little of the longest, and the tail is generally set high. The race of horses, however, is much degenerated in Numidia—the natives having been discouraged from keeping up the breed by the Turks, who seize upon all

the good horses, without paying the owners the smallest gratuity for their care in bringing them up. The Tingitians and Egyptians have now, therefore, the fame of rearing the finest horses, both for size and beauty. The smallest of these last are usually sixteen hands high; and all of them shaped, as they express it, with the elegance of an antelope.

Next to the Barb, travellers generally rank the Spanish genetie. These horses, like the former, are little, but extremely swift and beautiful. The head is something of the largest; the mane thick; the ears long, but well pointed; the eyes filled with fire; the shoulder thickish, and the breast full and large; the croup round and large; the legs beautiful, and without hair; the pastern a little of the longest, as in the Barb, and the hoof rather too high. Nevertheless, they move with great ease, and carry themselves extremely well. Their most usual colour is black, or a dark bay. They seldom or never have white legs or white snip. The Spaniards, who have a groundless aversion to these marks, never breed from such as have them. They are all branded on the buttock with the owner's name; and those of the province of Andalusia pass for the best. These are said to possess courage, obedience, grace, and spirit, in a greater degree than even the Barb; and for this reason they have been preferred as war-horses to those of any other country.

The Italian horses were once more beautiful than they are at present, for they have greatly neglected the breed. Nevertheless, there are still found some beautiful horses among them, particularly among the Neapolitans, who chiefly use them for the draught. In general, they have large heads and thick necks. They are also restive, and consequently unmanageable. These faults, however, are recompensed by the largeness of their size, by their spirit, and the beauty of their motion. They are excellent for show, and have a peculiar aptitude to prance.

The Danish horses are of such an excellent size and so strong a make, that they are preferred to all others for the draught. There are some of them perfectly well shaped; but this is but seldom seen, for in general they are found to have a thick neck, heavy shoulders, long and hollow back, and a narrow croup: however, they all move well, and are found excellent both for parade and war. They are of all colours, and often of whimsical ones, some being streaked like the tiger or mottled like the leopard.

The German horses are originally from Arabian and Barbary stocks; nevertheless, they appear to be small and ill shaped: it is said, also, that they are weak and washy, with tender hoofs. The Hungarian horses, on the other hand, are excellent for the draught as well as the saddle. The Hussars, who use them in war, usually slit their nostrils; which is done, as it is said, to prevent their neighing, but, perhaps, without any real foundation.

The Dutch breed is good for the draught, and is generally used for that purpose over Europe: the best come from the province of Friesland. The Flanders horses are much inferior to the former; they have most commonly large heads, flat feet, and swollen legs—which are an essential blemish in horses of this kind.

The French horses are of various kinds; but they have few that are good. The best horses of that country come from Limosin; they have a strong resemblance to the Barb, and like them are excellent for the chase; but they are slow in coming to perfection: they are to be carefully treated while young, and must not be backed till they are eight years old. Normandy furnishes the next best, which, though not so good for the chase, are yet better for war. In general, the French horses have the fault of being heavy shouldered, which is opposite to the fault of the Barb, the latter being too thin in the shoulder, and is consequently apt to be shoulder-clip.

Having mentioned the horses most usually known in

Europe, we pass on to those of more distant countries, of which we can only judge by report. We mentioned the wild horses of America. Such as are tame, if we may credit the latest reports, are admirable. Great numbers of these are bred up to the chase, and are chiefly kept for this purpose, particularly at Quito. The hunters, as Ulloa informs us, are divided into two classes—one part on foot, the other on horseback; the business of the footmen is to rouse the deer, and that of the horsemen to hunt it down. They all at break of day repair to the place appointed, which is generally on the summit of a hill, with every man his greyhound. The horsemen place themselves on the highest peaks, whilst those on foot range the precipices, making a hideous noise to start the deer. Thus the company extend themselves three or four leagues or more, according to their numbers. On starting any game, the horse which first perceives it starts off, and the rider, being unable to guide or stop him, pursues the chase, sometimes down such a steep slope, that a man on foot with the greatest care could hardly keep his legs; from thence he flies up a dangerous ascent, or along the side of a mountain—so that a person not used to this exercise would think it much safer to throw himself out of the saddle than to commit his life to the precipitate ardour of his horse. The other horses which join in the chase do not wait for their riders to animate them; they set forward immediately upon seeing another at full speed; and it becomes prudence in the rider to give them their way, and at the same time to let them feel the spur, to carry him over the precipices. These horses are backed and exercised to this method of hunting; and their usual pace is trotting.

There are said to be very good horses in the islands of the Archipelago. Those of Crete were in great reputation among the ancients for their swiftness and force; however, at present they are but little used, even in the country itself, because of the unevenness of the ground, which is there very rocky and mountainous. The original horses of Morocco are much smaller than the Arabian breed; nevertheless they are exceedingly swift and vigorous. In Turkey there are to be found horses of almost all races—Arabians, Tartars, Hungarians, and those natural to the place. The latter are beautiful and elegant; they have a great deal of fire, swiftness, and management; but they are not able to support any fatigue. They eat little; they are easily heated; and they have skins so sensitive that they can scarce bear the rubbing of the stirrup. The Persian horses are in general the most beautiful and valuable of all the east. The pastures in the plains of Media, Persepolis, Ardebil, and Derbent are excellent for the purpose of rearing them; and there were bred in those places vast numbers by order of the government of Persia, while that country was under any government. Pietro della Valle prefers the horses of Persia to those of Italy, and says that they are in general of a middle size; and although some are found even of the smallest stature, yet that does not impair their beauty or their strength. In some places they are found of a good size, as large as the English saddle-horses are generally found to be: they have all thin heads, fine crest, narrow breast, small ears well placed, the legs fine, the hoof hard, and the croup beautiful; they are docile, spirited, nimble, hardy, courageous, and capable of supporting extraordinary fatigue; they run very swiftly without being easily distressed; they are strong and easy, being only supplied with barley and chopped straw; they are put to grass only for six weeks in the spring; they have always the tail at full length, and there is no such thing as geldings among the number; they are defended from the air, as in England, by body-clothes; they attend them with the most punctual exactness; and they are generally ridden in a snaffle, without spurs. Great numbers of these are every year transported into Turkey, but chiefly into the East Indies.

All travellers, however, agree that they are not to be compared to the Arabian horses either for courage, force, or beauty; and that the latter are eagerly sought even in Persia.

The horses of India are of a very indifferent kind, being weak and washy. Those which are used by the grandees of the country come from Persia and Arabia; they are fed with a small quantity of hay during the day, and at night they have boiled peas, mixed with sugar and butter, instead of oats or barley: this nourishment supports them and gives them strength, otherwise they would sink and degenerate. Those naturally belonging to the country are very small and vicious. Some are so very little, that Tavernier reports that the young Mogul prince, at the age of seven or eight, rode one of these little horses that was not much larger than a greyhound: and it is not long since one of these was brought over into this country, as a present to the Queen, that measured no more than nine hands high, and is not much larger than a common mastiff. It would seem that climates excessively hot are unfavourable to this animal. In this manner, the horses of the Gold-coast and of Guinea are extremely little, but very manageable. It is a common exercise with the grandees of that country, who are excellent horsemen, to dart out their lances before them upon full gallop, and to catch them again before they come to the ground. They have a sport, also, on horseback that requires great dexterity in the rider, and a great share of activity in the horse: they strike off a ball with a battledore while they are upon full gallop, and, pursuing it, strike it again before it comes to the ground; and this they continue for a mile together, striking sometimes to the right and sometimes to the left with amazing speed and agility.

The horses of China are as indifferent as those of India: they are weak, little, ill-shaped, and cowardly. Those of Corea are not above three feet high: almost all the breed there are made geldings, and are so timorous that they can be rendered no way serviceable in war; so that it may be said that the Tartar horses were properly the conquerors of China. These, indeed, are very serviceable in war; and although but of a middle size, yet they are surprisingly patient, vigorous, swift, and bold; their hoofs are extremely hard, though rather too narrow, their heads are fine, but rather too little; the neck is long and stiff; the legs of the longest; and yet, with all these faults, they are found to be an excellent breed. The Tartars live with their horses pretty much in the same manner as the Arabians do; they begin to back them at the age of seven or eight months, placing their children upon them, who manage them even at that early age. By these means they break them by little and little, till at last, about the age of six or seven years, they are capable of enduring amazing hardships. Thus they have been known to march two or three days without once stopping; to continue five or six without eating anything except a handful of grass every eight hours; and, besides, to remain without drinking for four and twenty hours. These horses, which are so vigorous in their own country, lose all their strength when they are brought into China or the Indies; but they thrive pretty well in Persia and Turkey. The race of little Tartars towards the north have also a breed of little horses, which they set such a value upon that it is forbidden to sell them to strangers: these horses have the very same qualities with those of the larger kind, which they probably derive from a similar treatment. There are also very fine horses in Circassia and Mingrelia. There are some greatly esteemed in the Ukraine, in Walachia, Poland, and Sweden; but we have no particular accounts of their excellencies or defects.

If we consult the ancients on the nature and qualities of the horses of different countries, we learn that the Grecian horses, and particularly those of Thessaly, had the reputation of being excellent for war; that those of

Achaia were the largest that were known; that the most beautiful came from Egypt, which bred great numbers; that the horses of Ethiopia were not in esteem, from the heat of the country; that Arabia and Africa furnished very beautiful horses, and suitable for the course; that those of Italy, and particularly of Apulia, were very good; that in Sicily, Capadocia, Syria, Armenia, Media, and Persia there were excellent horses, equally esteemed for their speed and vigour; that those of Sardinia and Corsica, though small, were spirited and courageous; that those of Spain resembled the Parthian horses in being well adapted for war; that in Walachia and Transylvania there were horses with bushy tails, and manes hanging down to the ground, which, nevertheless, were extremely swift and active; that the Danish horses were good leapers; those of Scandinavia, though little, were well shaped, and possessed of great agility; that the Flanders breed was strong; that the Gaulish horses were good for carrying burthens; that the German breeds were so bad, so diminutive, and ill shaped, that no use could be made of them; that the Swiss and Hungarian horses were good; and, lastly, that those of India were very diminutive and feeble.

Such are the different accounts we have of the various races of horses in various parts of the world. I have hitherto omitted making mention of one particular breed, more excellent than any that either the ancients or the moderns have produced—and that is our own. It is not without great assiduity and unceasing application that the English horses are now become superior to those of any other part of the world for size, strength, swiftness, and beauty. It was not without great attention and repeated trials of all the best horses in different parts of the world that we have been thus successful in improving the breed of this animal; so that the English horses are now capable of performing what no others could ever attain to. By a judicious mixture of the several kinds, by the happy difference of our soils, and by our superior skill in management, we have brought this animal to its highest perfection. An English horse, therefore, is known to excel the Arabian in size and swiftness, to be more durable than the Barb, and more hardy than the Persian. An ordinary racer is known to go at the rate of a mile in two minutes; and we have one instance in the admirable Childers of still greater rapidity. He has been frequently known to move above eighty-two feet and a half in a second, or almost a mile in a minute; he has also run round the course at Newmarket (which is very little less than four miles) in six minutes and forty seconds. But what is surprising, few horses have been since found to equal him; and those of his breed have been remarkably deficient.

However this be, no horses can in any way equal our own, either in point of swiftness or strength; and these are the qualifications our horsemen seem chiefly to value. For this reason, when the French or other foreigners describe our breed, they all mention as a fault the awkward and ungainly motion of our horses; they allow them to be very good indeed, but they will not grant them an easy or an elegant carriage. But these writers do not consider that this seeming want of grace is entirely the result of our manner of breaking them. We consult only speed and despatch in this animal's motions; the French and other nations are more anxious for parade and spirit. For this reason we always throw our horses forward, while they put them upon their haunches; we give them an easy swift gait for going, which covers a great deal of ground; they, on the contrary, throw them back—giving them a more showy appearance, certainly, but one infinitely less useful. The fault of our manner of breaking is, that the horse is sometimes apt to fall forward; the French managed horse never falls before, but more usually on one side; and for this reason the rider wears stiff boots to guard his legs against such accidents. However, it would be

an easy matter to give our horses all the grace which foreigners are so fond of; but it would undoubtedly take from their swiftness and durability.

But in what degree of contempt soever foreigners might formerly have held our horses, they have for some time perceived their error, and our English hunters are considered as the noblest and the most useful horses in the world. Our geldings are accordingly sent over to the continent in great numbers, and sell at very great prices; as for our mares and stallions, there is a law prohibiting their exportation; and one similar to this is said to have obtained as early as the time of Athelstan, who prohibited their exportation except where designed as presents.

Roger de Belegme, created Earl of Shrewsbury by William the Conqueror, is the first who is recorded to have made attempts towards improving our native breed. He introduced Spanish stallions into his estate at Powisland, in Wales, from which that part of the country was for many ages after famous for a swift and generous race of horses. At that time, however, strength and swiftness were more regarded than beauty—the horse's shape in time of action being entirely hidden by a coat of armour, which the knights then usually put upon them either by way of ornament or defence.

The number of our horses in London alone in the time of King Stephen is said to have amounted to twenty thousand. Long after, however, in the time of Queen Elizabeth, the whole kingdom could not supply two thousand horses to form our cavalry. At present the former number seems revived; so that in the late war we furnished out above thirteen thousand horsemen; and we could, if hard pressed, supply above four times that number. How far this great increase of horses among us may be beneficial or otherwise is not the proper business of the present page to discuss; but certain it is, that where horses increase in too great a degree men must diminish proportionably—as that food which goes to supply the one might easily be converted into nourishment to serve the other. But it may be speculating too remotely to argue for the diminution of their numbers upon this principle—since every manufacture we export into other countries takes up room, and may have occupied that place which, in a state of greater simplicity, might have given birth and subsistence to mankind and have added to population.

Be this as it will, as we have been at such expense and trouble to procure an excellent breed of horses, it is not now to be expected that we should decline the advantages arising from it just when in our possession. It may therefore be the most prudent measure in our legislature to encourage the breed as an useful branch of commerce, and a natural defence to the country. But how far this end is answered by the breeding of racers is what most persons versed in this subject are very apt to question. They assert that the race-horse, as the breed has been for a long time refined, is unfit for any other service than that of the course—being too alight either for the road, the chase, or the combat, and his joints so delicately united as to render him subject to the smallest accident. They therefore conclude that less encouragement given to racing would be a means to turn us from breeding rather for swiftness than strength; and that we should thus be again famous for our strong hunters—which they affirm are wearing out from among us.

How far this may be the fact I will not take upon myself to determine, being but little versed in a subject that does not properly come within the compass of the present work. Instead, therefore, of further expatiating on this well-known animal's qualifications, upon which many volumes might easily be written, I will content myself with mentioning the description of Camerarius, in which he professes to unite all the perfections which a horse ought to be possessed of. "It must," he says,

"have three parts like those of a woman—the breast must be broad, the hips round, and the mane long; it must in three things resemble a lion—its countenance must be fierce, its courage great, and its fury irresistible; it must have three things belonging to the sheep—the nose, gentleness, and patience; it must have three of a deer—head, leg, and skin; it must have three of a wolf—throat, neck, and hearing; it must have three of a fox—ear, tail, and trot; three of a serpent—memory, sight, and flexibility; and, lastly, three of a hare—running, walking, and perseverance."

CHAP. II.

OF THE ASS.

Although this animal is very easily distinguished from the horse at first sight, yet upon closer inspection the similitude between them is very striking. They have both a similar outline in the external parts—the same conformation within. One would be led, from the great resemblance there is between them, to suppose them of the same species, and that the ass was only a horse degenerated; however, they are perfectly distinct, and there is an inseparable line drawn between them—for the mule they produce is barren. This seems to be the barrier between every species of animals; this keeps them asunder, and preserves the unities of their form. If the mule or the monster, bred between two animals whose form nearly approaches, is no longer fertile, we may then conclude that these animals, however resembling, are of different kinds. Nature has providently stopped the fruitfulness of these ill-formed productions, in order to preserve the form of every animal uncontaminated: were it not for this the races would quickly be mixed with each other; no one kind would preserve its original perfection; every creature would quickly degenerate; and the world would be stocked with imperfection and deformity.

The horse and the ass, therefore, though so nearly approaching in form, are of two distinct kinds, different in their natures; and were there but one of each kind both races would then be extinguished. Their shapes and their habits may, indeed, be very nearly alike; but there is something in every animal, besides its conformation or way of life, that determines its specific nature. Thus there is much greater resemblance between the horse and the ass than between the sheep and the goat; and yet the latter produce an animal that is by no means barren, but which quickly re-produces an offspring resembling the sheep; while the mule of the former is marked with certain sterility. The goat and the sheep may be therefore said to be of one kind, although so much unlike in figure; while the horse and the ass are perfectly distinct, though so closely resembling. It has, indeed, been said by Aristotle that their male is sometimes prolific; this, however, has not been confirmed by any other testimony, although there has elapsed a period of near two thousand years to collect the evidence.

But what tends to put the subject out of dispute is, that the two animals are found in a state of nature entirely different. The onager, or wild ass, is seen in still greater abundance than the wild horse; and the peculiarities of its kind are more distinctly marked than in those of the tame one. Had it been a horse degenerated, the likeness would be stronger between them the higher we went to the original stock from whence both have been supposed to be sprung. The wild animals of both kinds would in such a case resemble each other much more than those of the tame kind, upon whom Art has for a succession of ages been exercising all its force, and producing strange habits and new alterations. The contrary, however, obtains, and the wild ass is even more

assinine, if I may so express it, than that bred in a state of domestic servitude; and has even a natural aversion to the horse, as the reader will shortly learn.

The wild ass has by some writers been confounded with the zebra, but very improperly, for they are of a very different species. The wild ass is not streaked like the zebra, nor is his shape so beautiful: his figure is pretty much the same as that of the common ass, except that he is of a brighter colour, and has a white list running from his head to his tail. This animal is found wild in many islands of the Archipelago, particularly in that of Cerigo. There are many wild asses in the deserts of Lybia and Numidia, that run with such amazing swiftness that scarce even the coursers of the country can overtake them. When they see a man they set up a horrid braying, and stop short all together till he approaches near them; they then, as if by common consent, fly of with great speed; and it is upon such occasions that they generally fall into the traps which are previously prepared to catch them. The natives take them chiefly on account of their flesh, which they esteem as delicious eating; and for their skins, of which that kind of leather is made which is called "shagreen."

Olearius relates that the monarch of Persia invited him on a certain day to be present at an entertainment of a very peculiar nature, which was exhibited in a small building near the palace, resembling a theatre. After a collation of fruits and sweetmeats, more than thirty of these wild asses were driven into the area, among which the monarch discharged several shot and some arrows, and in which he was imitated by some of his immediate attendants. The asses, finding themselves wounded and no way of escaping, instantly began to attack each other, biting with great fierceness and braying terribly. In this manner they continued their mutual animosity, while the arrows were poured in from above until they were all killed; upon which they were ordered to be taken and sent to the king's kitchen at Ispahan. The Persians esteem the flesh of this animal so highly, that its delicacy is even become a proverb among them. What may be the taste of the wild ass's flesh we are unable to say; but certain it is that the flesh of the tame ass is the worst that can be obtained, being dryer, more tough, and more disagreeable than horse-flesh. Galen even says that it is very unwholesome. Yet we should not judge hastily upon the different tastes of different people in the preference they give to certain meats. The climate produces very great changes in the tenderness and savour of several viands: that beef, for instance, which is so juicy and good in England is extremely tough and dry when killed under the line; on the contrary, that pork which with us is so unpalatable in summer, in the warmer latitudes, where it is always hotter than here, is the finest eating they have, and much preferable to any hog's flesh in Europe.

The ass, like the horse, was originally imported into America by the Spaniards, and afterwards by other nations. That country seems to have been peculiarly favourable to this race of animals; and where they have run wild, they have multiplied in such numbers that in some places they have become a nuisance. In the kingdom of Quito, the owners of the grounds where they are bred suffer all persons to take away as many as they can, on paying a small acknowledgment in proportion to the number of days their sport lasts. They catch them in the following manner:—A number of persons go on horseback, and are attended by Indians on foot; when arrived at the proper places they form a circle, in order to drive them into some valley, where at full speed they throw the noose, and endeavour to halter them. These creatures, finding themselves enclosed, make vigorous efforts to escape; and if only one forces his way through they all follow with an irresistible impetuosity. When noosed, however, the hunters throw them down and secure them with fetters, and thus leave them

till the chase is over. Then, in order to bring them away with greater facility, they pair them with tame beasts of the same kind; but this is not so easily performed, for they are so remarkably fierce that they often hurt the persons who undertake to manage them. They have all the swiftness of horses, and neither declivities nor precipices can retard their career. When attacked, they defend themselves with their heels and mouth with such activity, that, without slackening their pace, they often maim their pursuers. But the most remarkable property in these creatures is, that after carrying their first load their celerity leaves them, their dangerous ferocity is lost, and they soon contract the stupid look and dullness peculiar to the assinine species. It is also observable that these creatures will not permit a horse to live among them: they always feed together; and if a horse happens to stray into the place where they graze they all fall upon him, and without giving him the liberty of flying, they bite and kick him till they kill him dead upon the spot.

Such is this animal in its natural state—swift, fierce, and formidable; but in his state of tameness the ass presents a very different picture; the moment his native liberty is repressed he seems entirely to give up all claims to freedom, and he assumes a patience and submission even humbler than his situation. He is in a state of tameness the most gentle and quiet of all animals. He suffers with constancy, and perhaps with courage, all the ill treatment that cruelty and caprice are pleased to inflict. He is temperate with regard to the quantity and the quality of his provision. He is contented with the most neglected weeds, and makes his humble repast upon what the horse and other animals leave behind. If he gives the preference to any vegetable, it is to the plantain; for which he is often seen to neglect every other herb in the pasture: but he is chiefly delicate with respect to his water; he drinks only at the clearest brooks, and chiefly those to which he has been accustomed. He drinks as soberly as he eats; and never, like the horse, dips his nose into the stream. As he is seldom saddled, he frequently rolls himself upon the grass, and lies down for this purpose as often as he has an opportunity, without minding what becomes of his burden. He never rolls, like the horse, in the mud; he even fears to wet his feet, and turns out of his way to avoid the dirty parts of the road.

When very young the ass is sprightly, and even tolerably handsome; but he soon loses these qualifications either by age or bad treatment, and he becomes slow, stupid, and headstrong. He seems to show no ardour except for the female, having been often known to die after the covering. The she-ass is not less fond of her young than the male is of her; and we are assured that she will cross fire and water to protect or rejoin them. This animal is sometimes not less attached to his owner, by whom he is too often abused. He scents him at a distance, and distinguishes him from others in a crowd; he knows the ways he has passed and the places where he inhabits.

When overloaded, the ass shows the injustice of his master by hanging down his head and lowering his ears; when he is too hard pressed, he opens his mouth and draws back his lips in a very disagreeable manner. If his eyes are covered he will not stir a step; and if he is laid down in such a manner that one eye is covered with the grass while the other is hidden with a stone, or whatever is next at hand, he will continue fixed in the same situation, and will not so much as attempt to rise to free himself from these slight impediments. He walks, trots, and gallops like a horse; but although he sets out very freely at first, yet he is soon tired—and then no beating will make him mend his pace. It is in vain that his unmerciful rider exerts his whip or his cudgel; the poor animal bears it all with patience, and, conscious of his own imbecility, does not offer even to move.

Notwithstanding the stupid heaviness of his air, he may be educated with as much ease as any other animal; and several have been brought up to perform, but have been neglected. Man despises this humble, useful creature, whose efforts are exerted to please him, and whose services are too cheaply purchased. The horse is the only favourite, and upon him alone all expense and labour are bestowed. He is fed, attended, and stabled, while the ass is abandoned to the cruelty of the lowest rustics, or even to the sport of children, and, instead of gaining by the lessons he receives, is always a loser. He is conducted along by blows; he is insulted by unnecessary stripes; he is overloaded by the lazy; and, being generally the property of the poor, he shares with them in their wants and their distresses. Thus this faithful animal—which, were there no horses, would be the first of the quadruped kind in our esteem—is now considered as nothing; his properties and qualifications being found in a higher degree elsewhere he is entirely disregarded; and, from being the second, he is degraded into one of the most useless of the domestic quadrupeds.

For this reason very little care has been taken to improve the breed; it is suffered to degenerate; and it is probable that of all other animals this alone is rendered feeble and more diminutive by being in a state of domestic servitude. The horse, the cow, and the sheep are rendered larger by the assiduity of man; the ass is suffered to dwindle every generation, and particularly in England, where it is probable that, but for the medicinal qualities of its milk, the whole species would have ere now been extinguished. Nevertheless, we have good reasons to believe that, were the same care bestowed on the ass that is spent upon the horse—were the same industry used in crossing the breed and improving it, we should see the ass become from his present mean state a very portly and serviceable animal; we should find him rival the horse in some of his perfections and exceed him in others. The ass, bulk for bulk, is stronger than the horse; is more sure footed; and, though more slow in his motions, he is much less apt to start out of the way.

The Spaniards, of all people in Europe, seem alone to be acquainted with the value of the ass. They take all proper precautions to improve the breed; and I have seen a jack-ass from that country above fifteen hands high. This animal, however, seems originally a native of Arabia. A warm climate is known to produce the largest and the best; their size and spirit decline in proportion as they advance into colder regions.

Though now so common in all parts of England, the ass was entirely lost amongst us during the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Holingshed informs us that our land "did yield no asses." However, there are accounts of their being common in England before that time. In Sweden they are at present a sort of rarity; nor does it appear by the last history of Norway that they have yet reached that country. It is in the hotter climates alone that we are to look for the original of this serviceable creature. In Guinea, they are larger and more beautiful than even the horses of the same country. In Persia they have two kinds—one of which is used for burdens, being slow and heavy; the other, which is kept for the saddle, being smooth, stately, and nimbler. They are managed as horses, only that the rider sits nearer the crupper; and they are taught to amble like them. They generally cleave their nostrils to give them more room for breathing, and many of these are sold for forty or fifty pounds.

The ass is a much more hardy animal than the horse, and liable to fewer diseases. Of all animals covered with hair he is the least subject to vermin, for he has no lice, probably owing to the dryness and the hardness of his skin. Like the horse, he is three or four years in coming to perfection; he lives till twenty or twenty-five, sleeps much less than the horse, and never lies down for

sleeps much less than the horse, and never lies down for that purpose unless very much tired. The she-ass goes above eleven months with young, and never brings forth more than one at a time. The mule may be engendered either between a horse and a she-ass, or between a jack-ass and a mare. The latter breed is very preferable, being larger, stronger, and better shaped. It is not yet well known whether the animal called the Gimerro be one of these kinds; or, as is asserted, bred between the ass and the bull. While naturalists affirm the impossibility of this mixture, the natives of the Alpine countries, where this animal is bred, as strongly insist upon its reality. The common mule is very healthy, and will live above thirty years, being found very serviceable in carrying burdens, particularly in mountainous and stony places, where horses are not so sure footed. The size and strength of our asses is at present greatly improved by the importation of Spanish jack-asses; and it is probable we may come in time to equal the Spaniards in breeding them, where it is not uncommon to give fifty or sixty guineas for a mule; and, indeed, in some mountainous countries the inhabitants cannot well do without them. Their manner of going down the precipices of the Alps or the Andes is very extraordinary; and with it we will conclude their history. In these passages, on one side are steep eminences, and on the other frightful abysses; and, as they generally follow the direction of the mountain, the road, instead of lying in a level, forms at every little distance steep declivities of several hundred yards downward. These can only be descended by mules; and the animal itself seems sensible of the danger, and the caution that is to be used in such descents. When they come to the edge of one of these descents they stop without being checked by the rider; and if he inadvertently attempts to spur them on they continue immovable. They seem all this time ruminating on the danger that lies before them, and preparing themselves for the encounter. They not only attentively view the road, but tremble and snort at the danger. Having prepared for the descent, they place their fore-feet in a posture as if they were stopping themselves; they then also put their hinder-feet together, but a little forward, as if they were going to lie down. In this attitude, having taken as it were a survey of the road, they slide down with the swiftness of a meteor. In the meantime, all the rider has to do is to keep himself fast on the saddle without checking the rein, for the least motion is sufficient to disorder the equilibrium of the mule, in which case they both unavoidably perish. But their address in this rapid descent is truly wonderful; for in their swiftest motion, when they seem to have lost all government of themselves, they follow exactly the different windings of the road as if they had previously settled in their minds the route they were to follow, and taken every precaution for their safety. In this journey the natives, who are placed along the sides of the mountains, and hold by the roots of the trees, animate the beasts with shouts, and encourage them to perseverance. Some mules, after being long used to these journeys, acquire a kind of reputation for their safety and skill; and their value rises in proportion to their fame.

CHAP. III.

OF THE ZEBRA.

There are but three animals of the horse kind—the horse, which is the most stately and courageous; the ass, which is the most patient and humble; and the zebra, which is the most beautiful, but at the same time the wildest animal in nature. Nothing can exceed the delicate regularity of this creature's colour, or the lustrous smoothness of its skin; but, on the other hand, nothing can be more timid or more untameable.

It is chiefly a native of the southern parts of Africa; and there are whole herds of them often seen feeding in those extensive plains that lie towards the Cape of Good Hope. However, their watchfulness is such that they will suffer nothing to come near them, and their swiftness so great that they readily leave every pursuer far behind. The zebra in shape rather resembles the mule than the horse or the ass; it is rather less than the former, and yet larger than the latter; its ears are not so long as those of the ass, and yet not so small as in the horse kind. Like the ass, its head is large, its back straight, its legs finely placed, and its tail tufted at the end; like the horse, its skin is smooth and close, and its hind quarters round and fleshy. But its greatest beauty lies in the amazing regularity and elegance of its colours. In the male they are white and brown—in the female white and black. These colours are disposed in alternate stripes over the whole body, and with such exactness and symmetry, that one would think Nature had employed the rule and compass to paint them. These stripes—which, like so many ribands, are laid all over its body—are narrow, parallel, and exactly separated from each other. It is not here, as in other partly coloured animals, where the tints are blended into each other; every stripe here is perfectly distinct, and preserves its colour round the body or the limb without any diminution. In this manner are the head, the body, the thighs, the legs, and even the tail and the ears beautifully streaked—so that at a little distance one would be apt to suppose that the animal was dressed out by Art, and not thus admirably adorned by Nature.

In the male zebra the head is striped with fine bands of black and white, which in a manner centre in the forehead; the ears are variegated with a white and dusky brown; the neck has broad stripes of the same dark brown running round it, leaving narrow white stripes between. The body is also striped across the back with broad bands, leaving narrow spaces of white between them, and ending in points at the sides of the belly, which is white, except a black line pectinated on each side, reaching from between the fore-legs along the middle of the belly two-thirds of its length. There is a fine separation between the trunk of the body and the hinder quarters on each side; behind which, on the rump, is a plait of narrow stripes, joined together by a stripe down the middle to the end of the tail. The colours are different in the female; and in none the stripes seem entirely to agree in form, but in all they are equally distinct, the hair equally smooth and fine, the white shining and unmixed, and the black or brown thick and lustrous.

Such is the beauty of this creature, that it seems by Nature fitted to satisfy the pride and the pleasure of man, and formed to be taken into his service. Hitherto, however, it appears to have disdained servitude, and neither force nor kindness have been able to wean it from its native independence and ferocity. But this wildness might, perhaps, in time be surmounted; and it is probable the horse and the ass when first taken from the forest were equally obstinate, fierce, and unmanageable. Mr. Buffon informs us that the zebra, from which he took his description, could never be entirely mastered, notwithstanding all the efforts which were tried to tame it. They continued, indeed, to mount it, but then with such precautions as evidently showed its fierceness—for two men were obliged to hold the reins while the third ventured upon its back; and even then it attempted to kick whenever it perceived any person approaching. That which is now in the Queen's menagerie at Buckingham-gate is even more vicious than the former; and the keeper who shows it takes care to inform the spectators of its ungovernable nature. Upon my attempting to approach it seemed quite terrified, and was preparing to kick, appearing as wild as if just caught, although taken extremely young, and used with the utmost in-

disgrace. Yet still it is most probable that this animal by time and assiduity could be brought under subjection. As it resembles the horse in form, without all doubt it has a similitude of nature, and only requires the efforts of an industrious and skilful nation to be added to the number of our domestics. It is not known what were the pains and dangers which were first undergone to reclaim the breed of horses from savage ferocity; they, no doubt, made an equal opposition; but by being opposed by an industrious and enterprising race of mankind, their spirit was at last subdued and their freedom restrained. It is otherwise with regard to the zebra; it is a native of countries where the human inhabitants are but little raised above the quadruped. The natives of Angola or Caffraria have no other idea of advantage from horses but as they are good for food; neither the fine stature of the Arabian courser nor the delicate colourings of the zebra have any allurements to a race of people who only consider the quantity of flesh, and not its conformation. The delicacy of the zebra's shape or the painted elegance of its form are no more regarded by such than by the lion that makes it his prey. For this reason, therefore, the zebra may have hitherto continued wild because it is a native of a country where there have been no successful efforts made to reclaim it. All pursuits that have hitherto been instituted against it were rather against its life than its liberty; the animal has thus been long taught to consider man as its mortal enemy; and it is not to be wondered that it refuses to yield obedience where it has so seldom experienced mercy. There is a kind of knowledge in all animals that I have often considered with amazement—which is, that they seem perfectly to know their enemies, and to avoid them. Instinct, indeed, may teach the deer to fly from the lion, or the mouse to avoid the cat; but what is the principle that teaches the dog to attack the dog-butcher wherever he sees him? In China, where the killing and dressing dogs is a trade, whenever one of these people moves out all the dogs of the village or street are sure to be after him. This I should scarcely have believed, but that I have seen more than one instance of it among ourselves. I have seen a poor fellow, who made a practice of stealing and killing dogs for their skins, pursued in full cry for three or four streets together by all the bolder breed of dogs, while the weaker flew from his presence with affright. How these animals could thus find out their enemy and pursue him appears, I own, unaccountable; but such is the fact; and it not only obtains in dogs but in several other animals, though perhaps to a less degree. This probably may have been in some measure a cause that has heretofore kept the zebra in its state of natural wildness, and in which it may continue till kinder treatment shall have reconciled it to its pursuers.

It is likely, therefore, as a more civilised people are now placed at the Cape of Good Hope (which is the chief place where this animal is found), that we may have them tamed and rendered serviceable. Nor is its extraordinary beauty the only motive we have for wishing this animal among the number of our dependents: its swiftness is said to surpass that of all other animals; so that the speed of the zebra is become a proverb among the Spaniards and Portuguese. It stands better upon its legs than the horse, and is consequently stronger in proportion. Thus, if by proper care we improved the breed as we have in other instances, we should probably in time to come have a race as large as the horse—as fast, as strong, and much more beautiful.

The zebra, as was said, is chiefly a native of the Cape of Good Hope. It is also found in the kingdom of Angola, and also, as we are assured by Lopez, in several provinces of Barbary. In those boundless forests it has nothing to restrain its liberty; it is too shy to be caught in traps, and therefore seldom taken alive. It would seem, therefore, that none of them have ever been brought

into Europe that were caught sufficiently young so as to be untinged by their original state of wildness. The Portuguese, indeed, pretend that they have been able to tame them, and that they have sent four from Africa to Lisbon, which were so far brought under as to draw the king's coach: they add, that the person who sent them over had the office of notary conferred upon him for his reward, which was to remain to him and his posterity for ever; but I do not find this confirmed by any person who says he saw them. Of those which were sent to Brazil not one could be tamed; they would permit one man only to approach them; they were tied up very short; and one of them, which had by some means got loose, actually killed his groom, having bitten him to death. Notwithstanding this, I believe, were the zebra taken up very young and properly treated, it might be rendered as tame as any other animal; and Merolla, who saw many of them, asserts, that when tamed, which he speaks of as being common enough, they are not less estimable for their swiftness than their beauty.

This animal, which is neither to be found in Europe, Asia, nor America, is nevertheless very easily fed. That which came over to England some years ago would eat almost anything, such as bread, meat, and tobacco; that which is now among us subsists entirely upon hay. As it so nearly resembles the horse and the ass in structure, so it probably brings forth annually as they do. The noise they make is neither like that of a horse nor an ass, but more resembling the confused barking of a mastiff dog. In the two which I saw there was a circumstance that seems to have escaped naturalists; which is, that the skin hangs loose below the jaw upon the neck, in a kind of dewlap, which takes away much from the general beauty; but whether this be a natural or accidental blemish I will not take upon me to determine.

These animals are often sent as presents to the princes of the east. We are told that one of the governors of Batavia gave a zebra, which had been sent to him from Africa, to the emperor of Japan, for which he received as an equivalent for the company a present to the value of sixty thousand crowns. Teller also relates that the Great Mogul gave two thousand ducats for one of them; and it is frequent with the African ambassadors to the court of Constantinople to bring some of these animals with them as presents for the Grand Signior.

OF RUMINATING ANIMALS.

BOOK II.—CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.—Of all animals, those that chew the cud are the most harmless and the most easily tamed. As they live entirely upon vegetables, it is neither their interest nor their pleasure to make war upon the rest of the brute creation; content with the pastures where they are placed, they seldom desire to change while they are furnished with a proper supply; and, fearing nothing from each other, they generally go in herds for their mutual security. All the fiercest of the carnivorous kinds seek their food in gloomy solitude; these, on the contrary, range together; the very meaneast of them are found to unite in each other's defence; and the hare itself is a gregarious animal in those countries where it has no other enemies but the beasts of the forest to guard against.

As the food of ruminant animals is entirely of the vegetable kind, and as this is very easily procured, so these animals seem naturally more indolent and less artful than those of the carnivorous kinds; and as their appetites are more simple their instincts seem less capable of variation. The fox or the wolf are for ever prowling; their long habits of want give them a degree

of sharpness and cunning; their life is a continued scene of stratagem and escape; but the patient ox or the deer enjoy the repast that Nature has abundantly provided—certain of subsistence, and content with security.

As Nature has formed these animals with an appetite for such coarse and simple nutriment, so she has enlarged the capacity of the intestines to take in a greater supply. In the carnivorous kinds, as their food is nourishing and juicy their stomachs are but small and their intestines short; but in these, whose pasture is coarse, and where much must be accumulated before any quantity of nourishment can be obtained, their stomachs are large and numerous, and their intestines long and muscular. The bowels of a ruminating animal may be considered as an laboratory, with vessels in it fitted for various transmutations. It requires a long and tedious process before grass can be transformed into flesh; and, for this purpose, Nature in general has furnished such animals as feed upon grass with four stomachs, through which the food successively passes and undergoes the proper separations.

Of the four stomachs with which ruminant animals are furnished, the first is called the "paunch," which receives the food after it has been slightly chewed; the second is called the "honeycomb," and is properly nothing more than a continuation of the former: these two, which are very capacious, the animal fills as fast as it can, and then lies down to ruminate—which may be properly considered a kind of vomiting without effort or pain. The two stomachs above-mentioned being filled with as much as they can contain, and the grass which was slightly chewed beginning to swell with the heat of the situation, it dilates the stomachs, and these again contract upon their contents. The aliment thus squeezed has but two passages to escape at—one into the third stomach, which is very narrow, and the other back by the gullet into the mouth, which is wider. The greatest quantity, therefore, is driven back through the largest aperture into the mouth to be chewed a second time; while a small part, and that only the most liquid, is driven into the third stomach through the orifice which is so small. The food which is driven to the mouth and chewed a second time is thus rendered more soft and moist, and becomes at last liquid enough to pass into the conduit that goes to the third stomach, where it undergoes a still farther comminution. In this stomach, which is called the "manyfold," from the number of its leaves, all which tend to promote digestion, the grass has the appearance of boiled spinage, but not yet sufficiently reduced so as to make a part of the animal's nourishment: it requires the operation of the fourth stomach for this purpose, where it undergoes a complete maceration, and is separated to be turned into chyle.

But Nature has not been less careful in another respect in fitting the intestines of these animals for their food. In the carnivorous kinds they are thin and lean; but in ruminating animals they are strong, fleshy, and well covered with fat. Every precaution seems taken that can help their digestion: their stomach is strong and muscular, the more readily to act upon its contents; their intestines are lined with fat, the better to preserve their warmth; and they are extended to a much greater length, so as to extract every part of that nourishment which their vegetable food so scantily supplies.

In this manner are all quadrupeds of the cow, the sheep, or the deer kind seen to ruminate—being thus furnished with four stomachs for the macerating of their food. These, therefore, may most properly be called the "ruminant" kinds; although there are many others that have this quality in a less observable degree. The rhinoceros, the camel, the horse, the rabbit, the marmotte, and the squirrel, all chew their cud by intervals, although they are not furnished with stomachs like the former. But not these alone, there are numberless other animals that appear to ruminate—not only birds, but fishes and

insects. Among birds are the pelican, the stork, the heron, the pigeon, and the turtle; these have a power of disgorging their food to feed their young. Among fishes are lobsters, crabs, and that fish called the "dorado." The salmon also is said to be of this number: and, if we may believe Ovid, the scarus likewise; of which he says—

Of all the fish that grass beneath the feed,
He only ruminates his former food.

Of insects, the ruminating tribe is still larger—the mole, the cricket, the wasp, the drone, the bee, the grasshopper, and the beetle. All these animals either actually chew the cud or seem at least to ruminate. They have the stomach composed of muscular fibres, by means whereof the food is ground up and down in the same manner as in those which are particularly distinguished by the appellation of "ruminants."

But not these alone; men themselves have been often known to ruminate, and some even with pleasure. The accounts of these calamities (for such I must consider them) incident to our fellow-creatures are not very pleasant to read; yet I must transcribe a short one, as given us by Slare in the Philosophical Transactions, as it may in some measure show the satisfaction which the lower tribes of animals enjoy while they ruminate. The man in question was a citizen of Bristol, of about twenty years of age, and, what seemed more extraordinary still, of a ruminating family, for his father was subject to the same infirmity, or amusement, as he himself perhaps would call it. This young man usually began to chew his meat over again within about a quarter of an hour after eating. His ruminating after a full meal generally lasted about an hour and a half; nor could he sleep until his task was performed. The victuals upon the return tasted even more pleasantly than at first; and returned as if they had been beaten up in a mortar. If he ate a variety of things, that which he ate at first came up again first; and if this return was interrupted for any time it produced sickness and disorder, and he was never well till it returned. Instances of this kind, however, are rare and accidental; and it is happy for mankind that they are so. Of all other animals man spends the least time in eating; this is one of the great distinctions between us and the brute creation; and eating is a pleasure of so low a kind, that none but such as are nearly allied to the quadruped desire its prolongation.

CHAP. II

OF QUADRUPEDS OF THE COW KIND.

Of all ruminating animals that of the cow kind deserves the first rank, both for its size, its beauty, and its services. The horse is more properly an animal belonging to the rich; the sheep chiefly thrives in a flock, and requires attendance; but the cow is more especially the poor man's pride, his riches, and his support. There are many of our peasantry that have no other possession than a cow; and even of the advantages resulting from this most useful creature the poor are but the nominal possessors. Its flesh they cannot pretend to taste, since then their whole riches would be at once destroyed; its calf they are obliged to fatten for sale, since veal is a delicacy they could not make any pretensions to; its very milk is wrought into butter and cheese for the tables of their masters. While they have no share even in their own possession but the choice of their market, I cannot bear to hear the rich crying out for liberty while they thus starve their fellow-creatures, and feed them up with an imaginary good while they monopolise the real benefits of Nature.

In those countries where the men are under better subordination this excellent animal is of more general

advantage. In Germany, Poland, and Switzerland every peasant keeps two or three cows, not for the benefit of his master but of himself. The meanest of the peasants there kills one cow at least for his own table, which he salts and hangs up, and thus preserves as a delicacy all the year round. There is scarce a cottage in all those countries that is not hung round with these marks of hospitality, and which often make the owner better contented with hunger, since he has it in his power to be luxurious when he thinks proper. A piece of beef hung up there is considered as an elegant piece of furniture, which, though seldom touched, at least argues the possessor's opulence and ease. But it is very different for some years past in this country, where our lower rustics at least are utterly unable to purchase meat any part of the year; and by them even butter is considered as an article of extravagance.

The climate and pasture of Great Britain, however, is excellently adapted to this animal's moderate nature; and the verdure and fertility of our plains are perfectly suited to the manner of its feeding—for, wanting the upper fore-teeth, it loves to graze in a high rich pasture. This animal seems but little regardless of the quality of its food provided it be supplied in sufficient abundance; it makes no particular distinctions in the choice of its herbage, but indiscriminately and hastily devours the proper quantity. For this reason, in our pastures—where the grass is rather high than succulent, and more flourishing than nutritious—the cow thrives admirably; and there is no part of Europe where the tame animal grows larger, yields more milk, and more readily fattens than with us.

Our pastures supply them with abundance, and they in return enrich the pasture; for of all animals the cow seems to give back more than it takes from the soil. The horse and the sheep are known in a course of years to impoverish the ground: the land where they have fed becomes weedy, and the vegetables coarse and unpalatable. On the contrary, the pasture where the cow has been bred acquires a finer, softer surface, and becomes every year more beautiful and even. The reason is, that the horse, being furnished with fore-teeth in the upper jaw, nips the grass closely, and therefore only chooses that which is the most delicate and tender; the sheep also—though, with respect to its teeth, formed like the cow—only bites the most succulent parts of the herbage. These animals, therefore, leave all the high weeds standing; and, while they cut the finer grass too closely, suffer the rank herbage to vegetate and overrun the pasture. But it is otherwise with the cow; as its teeth cannot come so close to the ground as those of the horse, nor so readily as those of the sheep, which are less, it is obliged to feed upon the tallest vegetables that offer; thus it eats them all down, and in time levels the surface of the pasture.

The age of the cow is known by its teeth and horns. This animal is furnished with eight cutting teeth in the lower jaw; at the age of ten months the two middlemost of these fall out, and are replaced with others that are not so white, but broader; at the age of sixteen months the two next milk-white teeth fall out also, and others come up in their room: thus, at the end of every six months the creature loses and gains, till, at the age of three years, all the cutting teeth are renewed, and then they are long, pretty white, and equal; but in proportion as the animal advances in years they become irregular and black, their inequalities become smoother, and the animal less capable of chewing its food. Thus the cow often declines from this single cause; for as it is obliged to eat a great deal to support life, and as the smoothness of the teeth makes the difficulty of chewing great, a sufficient quantity of food cannot be supplied to the stomach. Thus the poor animal sinks in the midst of plenty, and every year grows leaner and leaner, till it dies.

The horns are another, and a surer, method of determining this animal's age. At three years old it sheds its horns, and new ones arise in their place, which continue as long as it lives; at four years of age the cow has small, pointed, neat smooth horns, thickest near the head; at five the horns become larger, and are marked round with the former year's growth. Thus, while the animal continues to live the horns continue to lengthen, and every year a new ring is added at the root; so that allowing three years before their appearance, and then reckoning the number of rings, we have in both together the animal's age exactly.

As we have indisputably the best breed of horned cattle of any in Europe, so it was not without the same assiduity that we came to excel in these as in our horses. The breed of cows has been entirely improved by a foreign mixture, properly adapted to supply the imperfections of our own. Such as are purely British are far inferior in size to those in many parts of the continent; but those which we have thus improved by far excel all others. Our Lincolnshire kind derive their size from the Holstein breed; and the large hornless cattle that are bred in some parts of England came originally from Poland. We were once famous for a wild breed of these animals, but they have long since been worn out; and perhaps no kingdom in Europe can furnish so few wild animals of all kinds as our own. Cultivation and agriculture are sure to banish these wherever they are found; and every addition a country receives from Art drives away those animals that are only fitted for a state of Nature.

Of all quadrupeds, the cow seems most liable to alteration from its pasture. In the different parts of our own country we easily perceive the great varieties produced among these animals by the richness or poverty of the soil. In some they grow to a great bulk; and I have seen an ox sixteen hands high, which is taller than the general run of our horses. In others they appear as diminutive, being not so large as an ass. The breed of the Isle of Man and most parts of Scotland is much less in general than in England or Ireland; they are different shaped also, the dewlap being much smaller, and, as the expression is, the beast has more of the ewe neck. This till some years ago was considered in cattle as a deformity, and the cow was chosen, according to Virgil's direction, with a large dewlap; however, at present it is the universal opinion that the cow wants in udder what it has in neck, and the larger the dewlap the smaller is the quantity of its milk. Our graziers now, therefore, endeavour to mix the two breeds—the large Holstein with the small northern; and from both results that fine milch breed which excels the cattle of any other part of the world.

This difference, arising from pasture, is more observable in other countries than in our own. The cow kind is to be found in almost every part of the world large in proportion to the richness of the pasture, and small as the animal is stunted in its food. Thus Africa is remarkable for the largest and the smallest cattle of this kind; as is also India, Poland, Switzerland, and several other parts of Europe. Among the Eluth Tartars, where the pastures are remarkably rich and nourishing, the cow becomes so large that he must be a tall man who can reach the tip of its shoulder. On the contrary, in France, where the animal is stunted in its food and driven from the most flourishing pastures, it greatly degenerates.

But the differences in the size of this animal are not so remarkable as those which are found in its form, its hair, and its horns. The difference is so very extraordinary in many of them that they have been even considered as a different kind of creature, and names have been given them as a distinct species, when in reality they are all the same. In this manner the urus and the bison have been considered, from the variety in their

make, to be distinct in their production; but they are all, in fact, the descendants of one common stock, as they have that certain mark of unity, they breed and propagate among each other. Naturalists have therefore laboured under an obvious error, when, because of the extreme bulk of the urus, or because of the hump upon the back of the bison, they assigned them different places in the creation, and separated a class of animals which was really united. It is true, the horse and the ass do not differ so much in form as the cow and the bison; nevertheless, the former are distinct animals, as their breed is marked with sterility; the latter are animals of the same kind, as their breed is fruitful, and a race of animals is produced in which the hump belonging to the bison is soon worn away. The differences, therefore, between the cow, the urus, and the bison are merely accidental. The same caprice in Nature that has given horns to some cows and denied them to others may also have given the bison a hump, or increased the bulk of the urus; it may have given the one a mane, or denied a sufficiency of hair to the other.

But before we proceed farther, it may be proper to describe these varieties which have been thus taken for distinct kinds. The urus, or wild bull, is chiefly to be met with in the province of Lithuania, and grows to a size that scarce any other animal except the elephant is found to equal. It is quite black, except a stripe mixed with white, that runs from the neck to the tail along the top of the back; the horns are short, thick, and strong; the eyes are fierce and fiery; the forehead is adorned with a kind of garland of black curled hair, and some of them are found to have beards of the same; the neck is short and strong, and the skin has an odour of musk. The female, though not so big as the male, exceeds the largest of our bulls in size; nevertheless, her udder and teats are so small that they can scarcely be perceived. Upon the whole, however, this animal resembles the tame one very exactly, except in some trifling varieties, which his state of wildness or the richness of the pastures where he is found may easily have produced.

The bison, which is another variety of the cow kind, differs from the rest in having a lump between its shoulders. These animals are of various kinds—some very large, others as diminutively little. In general, to regard this animal's fore-parts he has somewhat the look of a lion, with a long shaggy mane, and a beard under his chin; his head is little, his eyes red and fiery, with a furious look; the forehead is large, and the horns so big and so far assunder, that three men might often sit between them. On the middle of the back there grows a hump almost as high as that of a camel, covered with hair, and which is considered as a great delicacy by those that hunt him. There is no pursuing him with safety, except in forests where there are trees large enough to hide the hunters. He is generally taken by pit-falls—the inhabitants of those countries where he is found wild digging holes in the ground, and covering them over with boughs of trees and grass; then provoking the bison to pursue them, they get on the opposite side of the pit-fall, while the furious animal, running head foremost, falls into the pit prepared for him, and is there quickly overcome and slain.

Besides these real distinctions in the cow kind, there have been many others made that appear to be in name only. Thus the *bonasus*, of which naturalists have given us long descriptions, is supposed by Klein and Buffon to be no more than another name for the bison, as the descriptions given of them by the ancients coincide. The *bubalus*, also, of the ancients, which some have supposed to belong to the cow kind, Buffon places among the lower class of ruminant quadrupeds, as it most resembles them in size, shape, and the figure of its horns. Of all the varieties, therefore, of the cow kind there are but two that are really distinct—namely, the cow and the buffalo; these two are separated by Nature; they

seem to bear an antipathy to each other; they avoid each other, and may be considered as much removed as the horse is from the ass or the zebra. When, therefore, we have described the varieties of the cow kind we shall pass on to the buffalo, which being a different animal requires a separate history.

There is scarce a part of the world, as was said before, in which the cow is not found in some one of its varieties—either large, like the urus, or humped, as the bison; with straight horns, or bending, inverted backwards, or turning sideways to the cheek like those of a ram; and in many countries they are found without any horns whatsoever. But to be more particular, beginning at the north, the few kine which subsist in Iceland are without horns, although of the same race originally with our own. The size of these is rather relative to the goodness of the pasture than the warmth or coldness of the climate. The Dutch frequently bring great quantities of lean cattle from Denmark, which they fatten on their own rich grounds. These are in general of a larger size than their own natural breed, and they fatten very easily. The cattle of Ukraine, where the pasture is excellent, become very fat, and are considered as one of the largest breeds in Europe. In Switzerland, where the mountains are covered with a rich nourishing herbage, which is entirely reserved for the kine, these animals grow to a very large size. On the contrary, in France, where they get no other grass but what is thought unfit for horses, they dwindle and grow lean. In some parts of Spain the cow grows to a good size; those wild bulls, however, which they pride themselves so much in combating, are a very mean, despicable little animal, and somewhat shaped like one of our cows, with nothing of that peculiar sternness of aspect for which our bulls are remarkable. In Barbary and the provinces of Africa, where the ground is dry and the pasturage short, the cows are of a very small breed, and give milk in proportion. On the contrary, in Ethiopia they are of a prodigious size. The same holds in Persia and Tartary, where in some places they are very small, and in others of an amazing stature. It is thus in almost every part of the world this animal is found to correspond in size to the quantity of its provision.

If we examine the form of these animals as they are found tame in different regions, we shall find that the breed of the urus, or those without a hump, chiefly occupies the cold and the temperate zones, and is not so much dispersed towards the south. On the contrary, the breed of the bison, or the animal with a hump, is found in all the southern parts of the world—throughout the vast continent of India—throughout Africa, from Mount Atlas to the Cape of Good Hope. In all these countries the bison seems chiefly to prevail, where they are found to have a smooth soft hair, are very nimble of foot, and in some measure supply the want of horses. The bison breed is more expert and docile than ours; many of them when they carry burdens bend their knees to take them up or let them down: they are treated, therefore, by the natives of those countries with a degree of tenderness and care equal to their utility; and the respect for them in India has degenerated even into blind adoration. But it is among the Hottentots where these animals are chiefly esteemed, as being more than commonly serviceable. They are their fellow-domestics—the companions of their pleasures and fatigues; the cow is at once the Hottentot's protector and servant, assists him in attending his flocks, and guarding them against every invader; while the sheep are grazing the faithful backely, as this kind of cow is called, stands or grazes beside them: still, however, attentive to the looks of its master, the backely flies round the field, herds in the sheep that are straying, obliges them to keep within proper limits, and shows no mercy to robbers, or even strangers, who attempt to plunder. But it is not the plunderers of the flock alone, but even the enemies of the

nation that these backelies are taught to combat. Every army of Hottentots is furnished with a proper herd of these, which are let loose against the enemy when the occasion is most convenient. Being thus sent forward they overturn all before them; they strike every opposer down with their horns, and trample upon them with their feet; and thus often procure their masters an easy victory, even before they have attempted to strike a blow. An animal so serviceable, it may be supposed, is not without its reward. The backely lives in the same cottage with its master, and, by long habit, gains an affection for him; and in proportion as the man approaches to the brute, so the brute seems to attain even to some share of human sagacity. The Hottentot and his backely thus mutually assist each other; and when the latter happens to die, a new one is chosen to succeed him by a council of the old men of the village. The new backely is then joined with one of the veterans of his own kind, from whom he learns his art, becomes social and diligent, and is taken for life into human friendship and protection.

The bison, or cows with a hump, are found to differ very much from each other in the several parts of the world where they are found. The wild ones of this kind, as with us, are much larger than the tame. Some have horns, and some are without any; some have them depressed, and some raised in such a manner that they are used as weapons of annoyance or defense; some are extremely large, and others among them, such as the zebu or Barbary cow, are very small. They are all, however, equally docile and gentle when tamed, and in general furnished with a fine lustrous soft hair, more beautiful than that of our own breed; their hump is also of different sizes, in some weighing from forty to fifty pounds, in others less; it is not, however, to be considered as a part necessarily belonging to the animal; and probably it might be cut away without much injury: it resembles a gristly fat; and, as I am assured, cuts and tastes somewhat like a dressed udder. The bison of Malabar, Abyssinia, and Madagascar are of the great kind, as the pastures there are plentiful. Those of Arabia, Petraea, and most parts of Africa are small, and of the zebu or little kind. In America, especially towards the north, the bison is well known. The American bison, however, is found to be rather less than that of the ancient continent; its hair is longer and thicker, its beard more remarkable, and its hide more lustrous and soft. There are many of them brought up tame in Carolina; however, their wild dispositions still seem to continue, for they break through all fences to get into the corn-fields, and lead the whole tame herd after them wherever they penetrate. They breed, also, with the tame kinds originally brought over from Europe, and thus produce a race peculiar to that country.

From all this it appears that naturalists have given various names to animals in reality the same, and only differing in some few accidental circumstances. The wild cow and the tame, the animal belonging to Europe, and that of Asia, Africa, and America, the bonasus and the urus, the bison and the zebu, are all one and the same, propagate among each other, and in the course of a few generations the hump wears away, and scarce any vestiges of savage fierceness are found to remain. Of all animals, therefore, except man alone, the cow seems most extensively propagated. Its nature seems equally capable of the rigours of heat and cold. It is an inhabitant as well of the frozen fields of Iceland as the burning deserts of Lybia. It seems an ancient inmate in every climate, domestic and tame in those countries which have been civilised, savage and wild in the countries which are less peopled, but capable of being made useful in all: able to defend itself in a state of nature against the most powerful enemy of the forest; and only subordinate to man, whose force it has experienced, and whose aid it at last seems to require. However wild the calves are, which are taken from the dam in a savage

state, either in Africa or Asia they soon become humble, patient, and familiar; and man may be considered, in those countries, as almost helpless without their assistance. Other animals preserve their nature or their form with inflexible perseverance; but these, in every respect, suit themselves to the appetites and conveniences of mankind; and as their shapes are found to alter, so also does their nature; and in no animal is their seen a greater variety of kinds, and in none a more humble and pliant disposition.

THE BUFFALO.—If we should compare the shape of our common cow with that of the bison, the difference will appear very great. The shaggy mane of the latter, the beard, the curled forehead, the inverted horns, the broad breast, and the narrow hinder parts, give it the appearance rather of a lion than a cow, and fit it more for a state of war with mankind than a state of servitude. Yet, notwithstanding these appearances, both animals are found to be the same—or at least so nearly allied that they breed among each other, and propagate a race that continues the kind.

On the other hand, if we compare the buffalo with our common cow, no two animals can be more alike either in their form or their nature—both equally submissive to the yoke, both often living under the same roof and employed in the same domestic services—the male and the turn of their bodies so much alike that it requires a close attention to distinguish them; and yet, after all this, no two animals can be more distinct, or seem to have stronger antipathies to each other. Were there but one of each kind remaining, it is probable the race of both would shortly be extinct. However, such is the fixed aversion formed between these creatures, that the cow refuses to breed with the buffalo, which it nearly resembles; while it is known to propagate with the bison, to which it has, in point of form, but a distant similitude.

The buffalo is, upon the whole, by no means so beautiful a creature as the cow; his figure is more clumsy and awkward; his air is wilder; and he carries his head lower and nearer the ground; his limbs are less fleshy, and his tail more naked of hair; his body is shorter and thicker than that of the cow kind; his legs are higher; his head smaller; his horns not so round, black, and compressed, with a bunch of curled hair hanging down between them; his skin is also harder and thicker, more black, and less furnished with hair; his flesh, which is hard and blackish, is not only disagreeable to the taste, but likewise to the smell. The milk of the female is by no means so good as that of the cow; it is, however, produced in great abundance. In the warm countries almost all their cheese is made of the milk of the buffalo; and they also supply butter in large quantities. The veal of the young buffalo is not better eating than the beef of the old. The hide of this animal seems to be the most valuable thing he furnishes. The leather made of it is well known for its thickness, softness and impenetrability. As these animals are in general larger and stronger than the cow, they are usefully employed in agriculture. They are used in drawing burdens, and sometimes in carrying them—being guided by a ring, which is thrust through their nose. Two buffaloes yoked in a waggon are said to draw more than four strong horses; as their heads and necks are naturally bent downward, they are thus better fitted for the draught, and the weight of their bodies is applied to the carriage that is to be drawn forward.

From the size and bulk of the buffalo, we may be easily led to conclude that he is a native of the warmer climates. The largest quadrupeds are generally found in the torrid zone: and the buffalo is inferior in point of size only to the elephant, the rhinoceros, or the hippopotamus. The caméléopard or the camel may, indeed, be taller, but they are neither so long nor near so corpulent. Accordingly,

we find this animal wild in many parts of India; and tamed, also, wherever the natives have occasion for his services. The wild buffaloes are very dangerous animals, and are often found to gore travellers to death, and then trample them with their feet until they have entirely mangled the whole body: however, in the woods they are not so much to be feared as in the plains, because in the violence of their pursuit their large horns are apt to be entangled in the branches of the trees, which gives those who have been surprised by them time to escape the danger. There is scarce any other method of avoiding their pursuit; they run with great swiftness; they overturn a tree of moderate growth; and are such swimmers, as to cross the largest rivers without any difficulty. In this manner, like other large animals of the torrid zone, they are very fond of the water; and, in the midst of their pursuit, often plunge in in order to cool themselves. The Negroes of Guinea and the Indians of Malabar, where buffaloes are in great abundance, take great delight in hunting and destroying them; however, they never attempt to face the buffalo openly, but, generally climbing up the tree, shoot at him from thence, and do not come down till they find they have effectually despatched him. When they are tamed, no animal can be more patient or humble; and though by no means so docile as the cow kind, yet they go through domestic drudgeries with more strength and perseverance.

Although these animals are chiefly found in the torrid zone, yet they are bred in several parts of Europe; particularly in Italy, where they make the food and the riches of the poor. The female produces but one at a time, in the same manner as the cow; but they are very different in the times of gestation—for the cow, as we know, goes but nine months, whereas the buffalo continues pregnant for twelve. They are all afraid of fire; and, perhaps, in consequence of this, have an aversion to red colours, or anything resembling the colour of flame. It is said that in those countries where they are found in plenty no person dares to dress in scarlet. In general they are inoffensive animals if undisturbed—as indeed all those which feed upon grass are found to be: but when they are wounded, or when even but fired at, nothing then can stop their fury; they turn up the ground with their fore-feet, bellow much louder and more terribly than the bull, and attack the object of their resentment with ungovernable rage. It is happy in such circumstances if the person they pursue has a wall over which to escape, or some such obstacle, otherwise they soon overtake and instantly destroy him. It is remarkable, however, that although their horns are so very formidable they in general make more use of their feet in combat, and rather tread their enemies to death than gore them.

Having thus gone through the history of these animals, it may be proper to observe that no names have been more indiscriminately used than those of the bull, the urus, the bison, and the buffalo. It therefore becomes such as would have distinct ideas of each to be careful in separating the kinds the one from the other, allowing the cow for the standard of all. The urus, whether of the large enormous kind of Lithuania or the smaller race of Spain—whether with long or short horns, or whether with or without long hair on the forehead, is every way the same with what our common breed was before they were taken from the forest and reduced to a state of servitude. The bison and all its varieties, which are known by a hump between the shoulders, is also to be ranked in the same class. This animal—whether with crooked or straight horns—whether they be turned towards the cheek or totally wanting, whether it be large or diminutive—whatever be its colour or whatever the length of its hair, whether called the "bonasus" by some or the "bubalus" by others—is but a variety of the cow kind, with whom it breeds, and with whom of consequence it has the closest connection. Lastly, the buffalo, though

shaped much more like the cow, is a distinct kind by itself, and never mixes with any of the former: it goes twelve months with young, whereas the cow goes but nine—which testifies an aversion to the latter; and, though bred under the same roof or feeding in the same pasture, is always kept separate, and makes a distinct race in all parts of the world. These two kinds are supposed to be the only real varieties in the cow kind, of which naturalists have given so many varieties. With respect to some circumstances mentioned by travellers—such as that of many kinds defending themselves by voiding their dung against their pursuers—this is a practice which they have in common with other timid creatures when pursued, and arises rather from fear than a desire of defence. The musky smell, also, by which some of them have been distinguished, is found common to many of these kinds in a state of nature, and does not properly make the characteristic marks of any. The particular kind of noise, also, which some of them are known to make, which rather resembles grunting than bellowing or lowing, is but a savage variety which many wild animals have, and which they lose when brought into a state of tameness. For these reasons, Mr. Buffon (whom I have followed in this description) is of opinion that the zebu or little African cow, and the grunting or Siberian cow, are but different races of the bison—as the shape of the horns or the length of the hair are never properly characteristic marks of any animal, but are found to vary with climate, food, and cultivation.

In this manner the number of animals of the cow kind, which naturalists have extended to eight or ten sorts, are reduced to two; and as the utmost deference is paid to the opinion of Mr. Buffon in this particular, I have taken him for my guide. Nevertheless, there is an animal of the cow kind which neither he nor any other naturalist that I know of has hitherto described, yet which makes a very distinct class, and may be added as a third species.

This animal was shown some years ago in London, and seemed to unite many of the characteristics of the cow and the hog—having the head, the horns, and the tail of the former, with the bristles, the colour, and the grunting of the latter. It was about the size of an ass, but broader and thicker—the colour resembling that of a hog, and the hair bristly as in that animal. The hair upon the body was thin, as in the hog; and a row of bristles ran along the spine, rather shorter and softer than in the hog kind. The head was rather larger than that of a cow; the teeth entirely resembled those of that animal, and the tongue was rough in like manner. It fed upon hay, and consequently its internal conformation must have resembled that of the cow kind more than the hog, whose food is always chosen of a kind more succulent. The eyes were placed in the head as with the cow, and were much of the same colour; the horns were black and flattish, but bent rather backwards towards the neck, as in the goat kind; the neck was short and thick, and the back rather rising in the middle; it was cloven footed, like the cow, without those hinder claws that are found in the hog kinds. But the greatest variety of all in this extraordinary creature, which was a female, was, that it had but two teats, and consequently in that respect resembled neither of the kinds to which in other circumstances it bore so strong a similitude. Whether this animal was a distinct kind or a monster I will not pretend to say: it was shown under the name of the bonasus; and it was said by the person who showed it to have come from India. But no credit is to be given to interested ignorance; the person only wanted to make the animal appear as extraordinary as possible; and, I believe, would scarcely scruple a lie or two to increase that wonder in us by which he found the means of living.





CHAP. III.

OF ANIMALS OF THE SHEEP AND GOAT KIND.

As no two animals are found entirely the same, so it is not to be expected that any two races of animals should exactly correspond in every particular. The goat and the sheep are apparently different in the form of their bodies, in their covering, and in their horns. They may from hence be considered as two different kinds, with regard to all common and domestic purposes. But if we come to examine them closer, and observe their internal conformation, no two animals can be more alike; their feet, their four stomachs, their sweet, their appetites, all are entirely the same, and show the similitude between them; but what makes a much stronger connection is, that they propagate with each other. The buck-goat is found to produce with the ewe an animal that in two or three generations returns to the sheep, and seems to retain no marks of its ancient progenitor. The sheep and the goat, therefore, may be considered as belonging to one family; and were the whole races reduced to one of each they would quickly replenish the earth with their kind.

If we examine the sheep and the goat internally, we shall find, as was said, that their conformation is entirely the same; nor is their structure very remote from that of the cow kind, which they resemble in their hoofs and in their chewing the cud. Indeed, all ruminant animals are internally very much alike. The goat, the sheep, and the deer exhibit to the eye of the anatomist the same parts in miniature which the cow or the bison exhibit in the great. But the differences in these animals are nevertheless sufficiently apparent. Nature has obviously marked the distinctions between the cow and the sheep kind by their form and size; and they are also distinguished from those of the deer kind by never shedding their horns. Indeed, the form and figure of these animals, if there were nothing else, would seldom fail of guiding us to the kind; and we might almost upon sight tell which belong to the deer kind and which are degraded into that of the goat. However, the annually shedding the horns in the deer and the permanence in the sheep draws a pretty exact line between the two kinds; so that we may hold to this distinction only, and define the sheep and goat kind as ruminant animals of a smaller size that never shed their horns.

If we consider these harmless and useful animals in one point of view, we shall find that both have been long reclaimed, and brought into a state of domestic servitude. Both seem to require protection from man, and are in some measure pleased with his society. The sheep, indeed, is the more serviceable creature of the two; but the goat has more sensibility and attachment. The attending upon both was once the employment of the wisest and best of men; and those have been ever supposed the happiest times in which these harmless creatures were considered as the chief objects of human attention. In the earliest ages the goat seemed rather the greater favourite; and, indeed, in some countries it continues such to this day among the poor. However, the sheep has long since become the principal object of human care; while the goat is disregarded by the generality of mankind, or become the possession only of the lowest of the people. The sheep, therefore, and its varieties may be considered first; and the goat, with all its kind, will then properly follow.

THE SHEEP.—Those animals that take refuge under the protection of man in a few generations become indolent and helpless. Having lost the habit of self-defence, they seem to lose also the instincts of Nature. The sheep, in its present domestic state, is of all animals the most defenceless and inoffensive. With its liberty it seems to have been deprived of its swiftness and cunning;

and what in the ass might rather be called patience in the sheep appears to be stupidity. With no one quality to fit it for self-preservation, it makes vain efforts at all. Without swiftness, it endeavours to fly; and without strength, sometimes offers to oppose. But these feeble attempts rather incite than repress the insults of every enemy; and the dog follows the flock with greater delight upon seeing them fly, and attacks them with more fierceness upon their unsupported attempts at resistance. Indeed, they run together in flocks rather with the hopes of losing their single danger in the crowd than uniting to repress the attack by numbers. The sheep, therefore, were it exposed in its present state to struggle with its natural enemies of the forest, would soon be extirpated. Loaded with a heavy fleece, deprived of the defence of its horns, and rendered heavy, slow, and feeble, it can have no other safety than what it finds from man. This animal is now, therefore, obliged to rely solely upon that art for protection to which it originally owes its degradation.

But we are not to impute to Nature the formation of an animal so utterly unprovided against its enemies and so unfit for defence. The moufflon, which is the sheep in a savage state, is a bold, fleet creature, able to escape from the greater animals by its swiftness, or to oppose the smaller kinds with the arms it has received from Nature. It is by human art alone that the sheep has become the tardy, defenceless creature we find it. Every race of quadrupeds might easily be corrupted by the same allurements by which the sheep has been thus debilitated and depressed. While undisturbed and properly supplied, none are found to set any bounds to their appetite. They all pursue their food while able, and continue to graze, till they often die of disorders occasioned by too much fatness. But it is very different with them in a state of nature: they are in the forest surrounded by dangers and alarmed with unceasing hostilities; they are pursued every hour from one tract of country to another, and spend a greater part of their time in attempts to avoid their enemies. Thus constantly exercised, and continually practising all the arts of defence and escape, the animal at once preserves its life and native independence, together with its swiftness and the slender agility of its form.

The sheep in its servile state seems to be divested of all inclination of its own; and of all animals it appears the most stupid. Every quadruped has a peculiar turn of countenance—a physiognomy, if we may so call it, that generally marks its nature. The sheep seems to have none of those traits that betoken either courage or cunning; its large eyes separated from each other—its ears sticking out on each side—and its narrow nostrils, all testify the extreme simplicity of this creature; and the position of its horns, also, show that Nature designed the sheep rather for flight than combat. It appears a large mass of flesh supported upon four small, straight legs, ill fitted for carrying such a burden; its motions are awkward; it is easily fatigued, and often sinks under the weight of its own corpulency. In proportion as these marks of human transformation are more numerous, the animal becomes more helpless and stupid. Those which live upon a more fertile pasture and grow fat become entirely feeble; those that want horns are found more dull and heavy than the rest; those whose fleeces are longest and finest are most subject to a variety of disorders; and, in short, whatever changes have been wrought in this animal by the industry of man are entirely calculated for human advantage, and not for that of the creature itself. It might require a succession of ages before the sheep could be restored to its primitive state of activity, so as to become a match for its pursuers of the forest.

The goat, which it resembles in so many other respects, is much its superior. The one has its particular attachments, sees danger, and generally tries to escape it; but

the other is timid without a cause, and secure when real danger approaches. Nor is the sheep, when bred up tame in the house and familiarised with its keepers, less obstinately absurd: from being dull and timid it then acquires a degree of pert familiarity—butts with its head, becomes mischievous, and shows itself every way unworthy of being singled out from the rest of the flock. Thus it seems rather formed for slavery than friendship, and framed more for the necessities than the amusements of mankind. There is but one instance in which the sheep shows any attachment to its keeper; and that is seen rather on the continent than among us in Great Britain. What I allude to is, their following the sound of the shepherd's pipe. Before I had seen them trained in this manner I had no conception of those descriptions in the old pastoral poets—of the shepherd leading his flock from one country to another. As I had been used to see these harmless creatures driven before their keepers, I supposed that all the rest was but invention; but in many parts of the Alps, and even some provinces of France, the shepherd and his pipe are still continued with true antique simplicity. The flock is regularly penned every evening to preserve them from the wolf; and the shepherd returns homeward at sunset with his sheep following him, and apparently pleased with the sound of the pipe, which is blown with a reed, and resembles the chanter of the bagpipe. In this manner, in those countries that still continue poor, the Arcadian life is preserved in all its purity; but in countries where a greater inequality of conditions prevail the shepherd is generally some poor wretch who attends a flock from which he is to derive no benefits, and only guards those luxuries which he is not fated to share.

It does not appear from early writers that the sheep was bred in Britain; and it was not till several ages after this animal was cultivated that the woollen manufacture was carried on among us. That valuable branch of business lay for a considerable time in foreign hands; and we were obliged to import the cloth manufactured from our own materials. There were, notwithstanding, many unavailing efforts among our kings to introduce and preserve the manufacture at home. Henry II., by a patent granted to the weavers of London, directed that if any cloth was found made of a mixture of Spanish wool it should be burned by the mayor. Such edicts at length, although but slowly operated towards establishing this trade among us. The Flemings—who at the revival of arts possessed the art of cloth-working in a superior degree—were invited to settle here; and soon afterwards foreign cloth was prohibited from being worn in England. In the time of Queen Elizabeth this manufacture received every encouragement; and many of the inhabitants of the Netherlands being forced, by the tyranny of Spain, to take refuge in this country, they improved us in those arts in which we at present excel the rest of the world. Every art, however, has its rise, its meridian, and its decline: and it is supposed by many that the woollen manufacture has for some time been decaying amongst us. The cloth now made is thought to be much worse than that of some years past, being neither so firm nor so fine, neither so much liked abroad nor so serviceable at home.

No country, however, produces such sheep as England, either with larger fleeces or better adapted for the business of clothing. Those of Spain, indeed, are finer, and we generally require some of their wool to work up with our own; but the weight of a Spanish fleece is no way comparable to that of Lincolnshire or Warwickshire; and in those counties it is no uncommon thing to give a hundred guineas for a ram.

The sheep without horns are counted the best sort, because a great part of the animal's nourishment is supposed to go up into the horns. Sheep like other ruminant animals, want the upper fore-teeth, but have eight in the lower jaw: two of these drop, and are replaced at two

years old; four of them are replaced at three years old; and all at four. The new teeth are easily known from the rest by their freshness and whiteness. There are some breeds, however, in England that never change their teeth at all; these the shepherds call the "leather-mouthed cattle;" and as their teeth are thus longer wearing, they are generally supposed to grow old a year or two before the rest. The sheep brings forth one or two at a time, and sometimes three or four. The first lamb of an ewe is generally pot-bellied, short, and thick, and of less value than those of a second or third production, the third being supposed the best of all. They bear their young five months; and, by being housed, they bring forth at any time of the year.

But this animal in its domestic state is too well known to require a detail of its peculiar habits, or of the arts which have been used to improve the breed. Indeed, in the eye of an observer of Nature every art which tends to render the creature more helpless and useless to itself may be considered rather as an injury than an improvement; and if we are to look for this animal in its noblest state we must seek for it in the African desert, or the extensive plains of Siberia. Among the degenerate descendants of the wild sheep there have been so many changes wrought as entirely to disguise the kind, and often to mislead the observer. The variety is so great that scarce any two countries has its sheep of the same kind; but there is found a manifest difference in all, either in the size, the covering, the shape, or the horns.

The woolly sheep, as it is seen among us, is found only in Europe, and some of the temperate provinces of Asia. When transported into warmer countries, either into Florida or Guinea, it loses its wool, and assumes a covering fitted to the climate, becoming hairy and rough; it there also loses its fertility, and its flesh no longer has the same flavour. In the same manner, in the very cold countries it seems equally helpless and a stranger; it still requires the unceasing attention of mankind for its preservation; and although it is found to subsist as well in Greenland as in Guinea, yet it seems a natural inhabitant of neither.

Of the domestic kinds to be found in the different parts of the world besides our own, which is common in Europe, the first variety is to be seen in Iceland, Muscovy, and the coldest climates of the north. This, which may be called the Iceland sheep, resembles our breed in the form of the body and the tail, but differs in a very extraordinary manner in the number of the horns, being generally found to have four, and sometimes even eight, growing from different parts of the forehead. These are large and formidable; and the animal seems thus fitted by Nature for a state of war: however, it is of the nature of the rest of its kind, being mild, gentle, and timid. Its wool is very different, also, from that of the common sheep, being long, smooth, and hairy. Its colour is of a dark brown; and under its outward coat of hair it has an internal covering that rather resembles fur than wool, being fine, short, and soft.

The second variety to be found in this animal is that of the broad-tailed sheep, so common in Tartary, Arabia, Persia, Barbary, Syria, and Egypt. This sheep is only remarkable for its large and heavy tail, which is often found to weigh from twenty to thirty pounds. It sometimes grows a foot broad, and is obliged to be supported by a small kind of board that goes upon wheels. This tail is not covered underneath with wool like the upper part, but is bare; and the natives, who consider it as a great delicacy, are very careful in attending and preserving it from injury. Mr. Buffon supposes that the fat which falls into the caul in our sheep goes in these to furnish the tail, and that the rest of the body is from thence deprived of fat in proportion. With regard to their fleeces, in the temperate climates they are, as in our own breed, soft and woolly, but in the warmer lati-

trades they are hairy; yet in both they preserve the enormous size of their tails.

The third observable variety is that of the sheep called "*strepicheros*." This animal is a native of the islands of the Archipelago, and only differs from our sheep in having straight horns surrounded with a spiral furrow.

The last variety is that of the Guinea sheep, which is generally found in all the tropical climates both of Africa and the East Indies. They are of a larger size with a rough hairy skin, short horns, and ears hanging down, with a kind of dewlap under the chin. They differ greatly in form from all the rest, and might be considered as animals of another kind were they not known to breed with other sheep. These, of all the domestic kinds, seem to approach the nearest to the state of nature. They are larger, stronger, and swifter than the common race, and consequently better fitted for the precarious forest life. However, they seem to rely, like the rest, on man for support—being entirely of a domestic nature, and subsisting only in the warmer climates.

Such are the varieties of this animal which have been reduced to a state of domestic servitude. These are all capable of producing among each other; all the peculiarities of their form have been made by climate and human cultivation; and none of them seem sufficiently independent to live in a state of savage nature. They are therefore to be considered as a degenerate race formed by the hand of man, and propagated merely for his benefit. At the same time, while man thus cultivates the domestic kinds he drives away and destroys the savage race, which are less beneficial and more headstrong. These, therefore, are to be found in but a very small number, in the most uncultivated countries, where they have been able to subsist by their native swiftness and strength. It is in the more uncultivated parts of Greece, Sardinia, Corsica, and particularly in the deserts of Tartary, that the moufflon is to be found that bears all the marks of being the primitive race, and which has been actually known to breed with the domestic animal.

The moufflon, or musmon, though covered with hair, bears a stronger similitude to the ram than to any other animal; like the ram it has the eyes placed near the horns; and its ears are shorter than those of the goat; it also resembles the ram in its horns, and in all the particular contours of its form. The horns also are alike; they are of a yellow colour; they have three sides, as in the ram, and bend backwards in the same manner behind the ears; the muzzle and inside of the ears are of a whitish colour tinged with yellow; the other parts of the face are of a brownish grey. The general colour of the hair over the body is of a brown, approaching to that of the red deer. The inside of the thighs and belly are of a white tinged with yellow. The form upon the whole seems more made for agility and strength than that of the common sheep; and the moufflon is actually found to live in a savage state, and maintain itself either by force or swiftness, against all the animals that live by rapine. Such is its extreme speed, that many have been inclined rather to rank it among the deer kind than the sheep. But in this they are deceived, as the musmon has a mark that entirely distinguishes it from that species, being known never to shed its horns. In some these are seen to grow to a surprising size—many of them measuring in their convolutions above two ells long. They are of a yellow colour, as was said; but the older the animal grows the darker the horns become: with these they very often maintain very furious battles between each other; and sometimes they are found broken off in such a manner that the small animals of the forest creep into the cavity for shelter. When the musmon is seen standing on the plain his fore-legs are always straight, while his hinder-legs seem bent under him; but in cases of more active necessity this seeming deformity is removed, and he moves with great swiftness

and agility. The female very much resembles the male of this species, but that she is less, and her horns also are never seen to grow to that prodigious size they are of in the wild ram. Such is the sheep in its savage state—a bold, noble, and even beautiful animal; but it is not the most beautiful creatures that are always found most useful to man. Human industry has therefore destroyed its grace to improve its utility.

THE GOAT, AND ITS NUMEROUS VARIETIES.—There are some domestic animals that seem as auxiliaries to the more useful sorts, and which, by ceasing to be the first, are considered as nothing. We have seen the services of the ass slighted because they are inferior to those of the horse; and in the same manner the services of the goat are held cheap because the sheep so far exceeds it. Were the horse or the sheep removed from Nature the inferior kinds would then be invaluable, and the same arts would probably be bestowed in perfecting their kinds that the higher order of animals have experienced. But in their present neglected state they vary but little from the wild animals of the same kind; man has left them their primitive habits and forms; and the less they owe to his assiduity the more they receive from Nature.

The goat seems in every respect more fitted for a life of savage liberty than the sheep. It is naturally more lively, and more possessed with animal instinct. It easily attaches itself to man, and seems sensible of his caresses. It is also stronger, swifter, more courageous, and more playful—lively, capricious, and vagrant; it is not easily confined to its flock, but chooses its own pastures, and loves to stray remote from the rest. It chiefly delights in climbing precipices—in going to the very edge of danger; it is often seen suspended upon an eminence hanging over the sea upon a very little base, and even sleeps there in security. Nature has in some measure fitted it for traversing these declivities with ease: the hoof is hollow underneath, with sharp edges, so that it walks as securely on the ridge of a house as on the level ground. It is a hardy animal, and easily sustained; for which reason it is chiefly the property of the poor, who have no pastures with which to supply it. Happily, however, it seems better pleased with the neglected wild than the cultivated fields of Art; it chooses the heathy mountain or the shrubby rock; its favourite food is the tops of the boughs, or the tender bark of young trees; it seems less afraid of immoderate heat, and bears the warm climates better than the sheep. It sleeps exposed to the sun, and seems to enjoy its warmest fervours. Neither is it terrified at the storm or incommoded by the rain: immoderate cold alone seems to affect it, and is said to produce a vertigo, with which this animal is sometimes troubled. The inconstancy of its nature is perceivable in the irregularity of its gait; it goes forward, stops, runs, approaches, flies, merely from caprice, and with no other seeming reason than the extreme vivacity of its disposition.

There are proofs of this animal's being naturally the friend of man; and that the goat seldom resumes its primordial wildness when once reduced into a state of servitude. In the year 1698, an English vessel happening to touch at the islands of Bonavista, two Negroes came and offered the sailors as many goats as they chose to take away. Upon the captain's expressing his astonishment at this offer, the Negroes assured him that there were but twelve persons on the island, and that the goats were multiplied in such a manner as even to become a nuisance; they added, that instead of giving any trouble to catch them, they followed the few inhabitants that were left with a sort of obstinacy, and were importunate with their tameness.

The goat produces but two at a time, and three at the most; but in the warmer climates, although the animal degenerates and grows less, yet it becomes more fruitful,

being generally found to bring forth three, four, and five at a single delivery. The buck is capable of propagating at the age of one year, and the female at seven months; the fruits of this premature generation, however, are weak and defective; and their best breeding time is generally delayed till the age of two years, or at least eighteen months. One buck is sufficient for a hundred and fifty goats. His appetites are excessive; but this ardour brings on a speedy decay, so that he is enervated in four years at most, and even becomes old before he reaches his seventh year. The goat, like the sheep, continues five months with young, and in some places bears twice a year.

The milk of the goat is sweet, nourishing, and medicinal—not so apt to curdle upon the stomach as that of the cow, and therefore preferable to those whose digestion is but weak. The peculiarity of this animal's food gives the milk a flavour different from that either of the cow or the sheep; for as it generally feeds upon shrubby pastures and heathy mountains, there is an agreeable wildness in the taste very pleasing to such as are fond of that aliment. In several parts of Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland the goat makes the chief possession of the inhabitants. On those mountains where no other useful animal could find subsistence, the goat continues to glean a sufficient living, and supplies the hardy natives with what they consider as varied luxury. They lie upon beds made of their skins, which are soft, clean, and wholesome; they live upon their milk, with oat bread; they convert a part of it into butter, and some into cheese; the flesh, indeed, they seldom taste of, as it is a delicacy which they find too expensive; however, the kid is considered, even by the city epicure, as a great rarity; and the flesh of the goat when properly prepared is ranked by some as no way inferior to venison. In this manner, even in the wildest solitudes, the poor find comforts of which the rich do not think it worth their while to dispossess them; in their mountainous retreats, where the landscape presents only a scene of rocks, heaths, and shrubs that speak the wretchedness of the soil, these simple people have their feasts and their pleasures; their faithful flock of goats attends them to these awful solitudes, and furnishes them with all the necessities of life; while their remote situation happily keeps them ignorant of greater luxury.

As these animals are apt to stray from the flock, no man can attend above fifty of them at a time. They are fattened in the same manner as sheep; but, taking every precaution, their flesh is never so good or so sweet in our climate as that of mutton. It is otherwise between the tropics. The mutton there becomes flabby and lean, while the flesh of the goat rather seems to improve; and in some places the latter is cultivated in preference to the former. We therefore find this animal in almost every part of the world, as it seems fitted for the necessities of man in both extremes. Towards the north, where the pasture is coarse and barren, the goat is fitted to find a scanty subsistence; between the tropics, where the heat is excessive, the goat is fitted to bear the climate; and its flesh is found to improve.

One of the most remarkable varieties we find in the goat is that of Natolia. The Natolian goat (or, as Mr. Buffon calls it, the goat of "Angora") has the ears longer than ours, and broader in proportion. The male has horns of about the same length with the goat of Europe, but black, and turned very differently, going out horizontally on each side of the head, and twisted round in the manner of a corkscrew. The horns of the female are shorter, and encircle the ear somewhat like those of the ram. They are of a dazzling white colour, and in all the hair is very long, thick, fine, and glossy—which, indeed, is the case with almost all the animals of Syria. There are a great number of these animals about Angora, where the inhabitants drive a trade with their hair, which is sold either raw or manufactured into

all parts of Europe. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the stuffs which are made from the hair of almost all the animals of that country. These are well known among us by the name of "camblet."

A second variety is the Assyrian goat of Gesner, which is somewhat larger than ours, with ears almost hanging down to the ground, and broad in proportion. The horns, on the contrary, are not above two inches and a half long, black, and bending a little backwards. The hair is of a fox colour, and under the throat there are two excrescences like the gills of a cock. These animals are chiefly kept round Aleppo for the sake of their milk. They are driven through the streets, and their milk is sold to the inhabitants as they pass along.

In the third variety may be reckoned the little goat of America, which is of the size of a kid, but the hair is as long as that of the ordinary breed. The horns, which do not exceed the length of a man's finger, are thick, and bent downwards so close to the head that they almost enter the skin.

There is an animal of this kind at the Cape of Good Hope, called the "blue goat," which may be ranked as the fourth variety. It is in shape like the domestic, but much larger, being nearly of the size of a stag. Its hair is very short, and of a delightful blue; but it loses a great deal of its beauty when dead. It has a very long beard; but the horns are not so long in proportion as in other goats, being turned spirally in the manner of a corkscrew. It has very long legs, but well proportioned; and the flesh is well tasted, but lean. For this reason, in that plentiful country it is chiefly killed on account of its skin. It is a very shy animal, and seldom comes near the Dutch settlements; but they are found in great abundance in the more uncultivated parts of the country. Besides these, they are found in this extensive region of various colours, and many of them are beautifully spotted with red, white, and brown.

In fine, the Juda goat resembles ours in most parts except in size, it being much smaller. This animal is common in Guinea, Angola, and all along the coast of Africa; it is not much larger than the hair, but extremely fat, and its flesh admirably tasted. It is in that country universally preferred to mutton.

These animals seem all of one kind, with very trifling distinctions between them. It is true that they differ in some respects, such as having neither the same colour, hair, ears, nor horns. But it ought to be considered as a rule in natural history, that neither the horns, the colour, fineness, or length of the hair, nor the position of the ears, are to be considered as making an actual distinction in the kinds. These are actual varieties produced by climate and food, which are known to change even in the same animal, and give it a seeming difference of form. When we see the shapes, the inclinations, and the internal conformation of seemingly different creatures nearly the same, and, above all, when we see them producing among each other, we then have no hesitation in pronouncing the species to be unquestionably of the goat kind, with which they are so materially connected.

But although these evidently belong to the goat kind, there are others nearly resembling the goat of whose kindred we cannot be certain. These are such as, being found in a state of nature, have not as yet been sufficiently subjected to human observation. Hence it is impossible to determine with precision to which class they belong—whether they be animals of a particular kind, or merely the goat in its state of savage freedom. Were there but one of these wild animals the inquiry would soon be ended, and we might readily allow it for the parent stock; but in the present case there are two kinds that have almost equal pretensions to this honour, and the claims of which it has been found difficult to determine. The animals in question are the chamois and the ibex. They both bear very near approaches to

+ hare

the goat in figure—have horns that never shed, and at the same time are more different from each other than from the animal in question. From which of these two sources our domestic goat is derived is not easy to settle. Instead, therefore, of entering into the discussion, I will content myself with the result of Mr. Buffon's inquiries. He is of opinion that the ibex is the principal source; that our domestic goat is the immediate descendant; and that the chamois is but a variety from that stock—a sort of collateral branch of the same family. His principal reason for giving the preference to the ibex is its having a more masculine figure, large horns, and a large beard; whereas the chamois wants these marks of primitive strength and wildness. He supposes, therefore, in their original savage state that our goat has taken after the male of the parent stock, and the chamois after the female; and that this has produced a variety in these animals even before they underwent cultivation.

However this be, the two animals in question seem both well fitted for their precarious life, being extremely swift, and capable of running with ease along the ledges of precipices, where even the wolf or the fox, though instigated by hunger, dare not pursue them. They are both natives of the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the mountains of Greece; there they propagate in vast numbers, and continue to exist in spite of the hunter and every beast of prey that is found incessantly to pursue them.

The ibex resembles the goat in the shape of its body, but differs in the horns, which are much larger. They are bent backward, full of knots; and it is generally asserted that there is a knot added every year. There are some of these found, if we may believe Bellonius, at least two yards long. The ibex has a black beard, is of a brown colour, with a thick warm coat of hair. There is a streak of black runs along the top of the back; and the belly and back of the thighs are of a fawn colour.

The chamois, though a wild animal, is very easily tamed, and is found only in rocky and mountainous places. It is about the size of a domestic goat, and resembles one in many respects. It is most agreeably lively, and active beyond expression. The chamois' hair is short like that of the doe; in spring it is of an ash colour, in autumn a dun colour, inclining to black, and in winter of a blackish brown. This animal is found in great plenty in the mountains of Dauphiny, of Piedmont, Savoy, Switzerland, and Germany. They are peaceful, gentle creatures, and live in society with each other. They are found in flocks of from four to four score, and even a hundred, dispersed upon the crags of the mountains. The large males are seen feeding detached from the rest, except in rutting time, when they approach the females, and drive away the young. The time for their coupling is from the beginning of September to the end of October; and they bring forth in April and March. The young keeps with the dam for about five months, and sometimes longer, if the hunters and the wolves do not separate them. It is asserted that they live between twenty and thirty years. Their flesh is good to eat; and they are found to have ten or twelve pounds of suet, which far surpasses that of the goat in hardness and goodness. The chamois has scarce any cry, as most animals are known to have; if it has any, it is a kind of feeble bleat, by which the parent calls its young. But in cases of danger, and when it is to warn the rest of the flock, it uses a hissing noise, which is heard at a great distance—for it is to be observed that this creature is extremely vigilant, and has an eye the quickest and most piercing in Nature. Its smell, also, is not less distinguishing. When it sees its enemy distinctly it stops for a moment; and then, if the person be near, in an instant after it flies off. In the same manner, by its smell it can discover a man at half a league distance, and gives the earliest notice. Upon any alarm, therefore,

or any apprehensions of danger, the chamois begins his hissing note with such force that the rocks and the forests re-echo to the sound. The first hiss continues as long as the time of one inspiration. In the beginning it is very sharp, and deeper towards the close. The animal, having after this first alarm reposed a moment, again looks round, and, perceiving the reality of its fears, continues to hiss by intervals, until it has spread the alarm to a very great distance. During this time it seems in the most violent agitation; it strikes the ground with its fore-foot, and sometimes with both; it bounds from rock to rock; it turns and looks round; it runs to the edge of the precipice; and, still perceiving the enemy, flies with all its speed. The hissing of the male is much louder and sharper than that of the female; it is performed through the nose, and is properly no more than a very strong breath driven violently through a small aperture. The chamois feeds upon the best herbage, and chooses the most delicate parts of the plants—the flower and the tender buds. It is not less delicate with regard to several aromatic herbs which grow upon the sides of the mountains. It drinks but very little while it feeds upon the succulent herbage, and chews the cud in the intervals of feeding. This animal is greatly admired for the beauty of its eyes, which are round and sparkling, and which mark the warmth of its constitution. Its head is furnished with two small horns, of about half a foot long, of a beautiful black, and rising from the forehead almost betwixt the eyes. These, contrary to what they are found in other animals, instead of going backwards or sideways, jet out forward, and bend a little at their extremities backward in a small circle, and end in a very sharp point. The ears are placed in a very elegant manner near the horns; and there are two stripes of black on each side of the face, the rest being of a whitish yellow, which never changes. The horn of this animal is often used as the head of a cane. Those of the female are less, and not so much bent; and some farriers are seen to bleed cattle with them. These animals are so much incommoded by heat that they are never found in summer, except in the caverns or rocks, amidst fragments of unmelted ice, under the shade of high and spreading trees, or of rough and hanging precipices that face the north, and which keep off entirely the rays of the sun. They go to pasture both morning and evening, and seldom during the heat of the day. They run along the rocks with great ease and seeming indifference, and leap from one to another so that no dogs are able to pursue them. There is nothing more extraordinary than to see them climbing and descending precipices that to all other quadrupeds are inaccessible. They always mount or descend in an oblique direction, throw themselves down a rock of thirty feet, and light with great security upon some excrescence or fragment on the side of the precipice, which is just large enough to place their feet upon; in their descent, however, they strike the rock with their feet three or four times to stop the velocity of their motion, and when they have got upon the base below they at once seem fixed and secure. In fact, to see them jump in this manner, they seem rather to have wings than legs; some, indeed, pretend to say that they use their horns in climbing, but this wants confirmation. Certain it is that their legs alone are formed for this arduous employment, the hinder being rather longer than the fore-legs, and bending in such a manner that, when they descend upon them, they break the force of the fall. It is also asserted that when they feed one of them always stands as sentinel, but how far this may be true is questionable: for certain, while they feed there are some of them that keep continually gazing round the rest; but this is practised among all gregarious animals—so that when they see any danger they warn the rest of the herd of its approach. During the rigours of winter the chamois sleeps in the thicker

forests, and feeds upon the shrubs and buds of the pine-tree. It sometimes turns up the snow with its foot to look for herbage, and where it is green makes a delicious repast. The more craggy and uneven the forest the more this animal is pleased with the abode, which thus adds to its security. The hunting the chamois is very laborious and extremely difficult. The most usual way is to hide behind the clefts of the rocks and shoot them. This, however, must be done with great precaution; the sportsman must creep for a vast way upon his belly in silence, and also take advantage of the wind, which if it blow from him they would instantly perceive. When arrived at a proper distance he then advances his piece (which should be rifle-barrelled, and carry but one ball) and tries his fortune among them. Some also pursue this animal as they do the stag, by placing proper persons at all the passages of a glade or valley, and then sending others to rouse the game. Dogs are quite useless in this chase, as they rather alarm than overtake. Nor is it without danger even to the men; for it often happens that when the animal finds itself over-pressed it darts at the hunter with its head, and often tumbles him down the neighbouring precipice. This animal cannot go upon ice when smooth; but if there be the least inequalities on its surface it then bounds along in security, and quickly evades all pursuit.

The skin of the chamois was once famous when tanned or its softness and warmth; at present, however, since the art of tanning has been brought to greater perfection, the leather called "shammy" is made also from those of the tame goat, the sheep, and the deer. Many medicinal virtues also were said to reside in the blood, fat, gall, and the concretion sometimes found in the stomach of this animal, called the "German bezoar." The fat, mixed with milk, was said to be good in ulcers of the lungs. The gall was said to be useful in strengthening the sight; the stone, which is generally about the size of a walnut, and blackish, was formerly in great request for having the same virtues with oriental bezoar. However, in the present enlightened state of physic, all those medicines are quite out of repute; and although we have the names of several medicines procurable from quadrupeds, yet, except the musk or hartshorn alone, I know of none in any degree of reputation. It is true, the fat, the urine, the beak, and even the dung of various animals may be found efficacious where better remedies are not to be had; but they are far surpassed by many at present in use, whose operations we know, and whose virtues are confirmed by repeated experience.

Such are the quadrupeds that more peculiarly belong to the goat kind. Each of these in all probability can engender and breed with the other; and were the whole race extinguished except any two, these would be sufficient to replenish the world and continue the kind. Nature, however, proceeds in her variations by slow and insensible degrees, and scarce draws a firm, distinguished line between any two neighbouring races of animals whatsoever. Thus it is hard to discover where the sheep ends and the goat begins; and we shall find it still harder to fix precisely the boundaries between the goat kind and the deer. In all transitions from one kind to the other, there are found to be a middle race of animals that seem to partake of the nature of both, and that can precisely be referred to neither. That race of quadrupeds called the "gazelles" are of this kind; they are properly neither goat nor deer, and yet they have many of the marks of both; they make the shade between these two kinds, and fill up the chasm in Nature.

THE GAZELLES.—The gazelles, of which there are several kinds, can with propriety be referred neither to the goat nor the deer; and yet they partake of both natures. Like the goat, they have hollow horns that never fall, which is otherwise in the deer. They have a gall-bladder, which is found in the goat and not in the

deer; and, like that animal, they feed rather upon shrubs than grassy pasture. On the other hand, they resemble the roebuck in size and delicacy of form; they have deep pits under the eyes like that animal; they resemble the roebuck in the colour and nature of their hair; they resemble him in the bunches upon their legs, which only differ in being upon the fore-legs in these and on the hind-legs in the other. They seem, therefore, to be of a middle nature between these two kinds, or, to speak with greater truth and precision, they form a distinct kind by themselves.

The distinguishing marks of this tribe of animals, by which they differ both from the goat and the deer, are these:—Their horns are made differently, being annulated or ringed round, at the same time that there are longitudinated depressions running from the bottom to the point. They have bunches of hair upon their fore-legs; they have a streak of black, red, or brown running along the lower part of their sides, and three streaks of whitish hair in the internal side of the ear. These are characters that none of them are without; besides these, there are others which in general they are found to have, and which are more obvious to the beholder. Of all animals in the world, the gazelle has the most beautiful eye, extremely brilliant, and yet so meek, that all the eastern poets compare the eyes of their mistresses to those of this animal. A gazelle-eyed beauty is considered as the highest compliment that a lover can pay; and, indeed, the Greeks themselves thought it no insignificant piece of flattery to resemble the eyes of a beautiful woman to those of a cow. The gazelle for the most part is more delicately and finely limbed than even the roebuck; its hair is as short, but finer and more glossy. Its hinder legs are longer than those before, as in the hare, which gives it great security in ascending or descending steep places. Their swiftness is equal, if not superior, to that of the roe; but as the latter bounds forward, so these run along in an even uninterrupted course. Most of them are brown upon the back, white under the belly, with a black stripe separating those colours between. Their tail is of various lengths, but in all covered with pretty long hair; and their ears are beautiful, well-placed, and terminating in a point. They all have a cloven hoof, like the sheep; they all have permanent horns; and the female has them smaller than the male.

Of these animals Mr. Buffon makes twelve varieties, which, however, is much fewer than what other naturalists have made them. The first is the "gazelle," properly so called, which is of the size of the roebuck, and much resembling it in all the proportions of its body, but entirely differing in the nature and fashion of the horns, which are black and hollow, like those of the ram or the goat, and never fall. The second he calls the "kevel," which is rather less than the former; its eyes seem larger; and its horns, instead of being round, are flatted on the sides, as well in the male as the female. The third he calls the "corin," which greatly resembles the two former, but that it is still less than either. Its horns, also, are smaller in proportion, smoother than those of the other two, and the annular prominences belonging to the kind are scarce discernible, and may be rather called wrinkles than prominences. Some of these animals are often seen streaked like the tiger. These three are supposed to be of the same species. The fourth he calls the "zeiran," the horns only of which he has seen, which, from their size and the description of travellers, he supposes to belong to a larger kind of the gazelle, found in India and Persia under that denomination.

The fifth he calls the "koba," and the sixth the "kob;" these two differ from each other only in size, the former being much larger than the latter. The muzzle of these animals is much longer than those of the ordinary gazelle; the head is differently shaped, and they have no depressions under the eyes. The seventh he calls

after its Egyptian name, the "algalzel," which is shaped pretty much like the ordinary gazelle, except that the horns are much longer, being generally three feet from the point to the insertion; whereas, in the common gazelle they are not above a foot; they are, also, smaller and straighter till near the extremities, when they turn short, with a very sharp flexure: they are black and smooth, and the annular prominences are scarcely observable. The eighth is called the "pazan," or by some the "bezoar goat," which greatly resembles the former, except a small variety in their horns; and also with this difference, that as the algalzel feeds upon the plains this is only found in the mountains. They are both inhabitants of the same countries and climates, being found in Egypt, Arabia, and Persia. This last is the animal famous for that concretion in the intestines or stomach, called the "oriental bezoar," which was once in such repute all over the world for its medicinal virtues. The word bezoar is supposed to take its name either from the pazan or pazar, which is the animal that produces it; or from a word in the Arabic language, which signifies antidote, or counter-poison. It is a stone of a glazed blackish colour, found in the stomach or the intestines of some animal, and brought over to us from the East Indies. Like all other animal concretions, it is found to have a kind of nucleus, or hard substance within, upon which the external coatings were formed: for, upon being sawed through, it is seen to have layer over layer, as in an onion. This nucleus is of various kinds; sometimes the buds of a shrub, sometimes a piece of stone, and sometimes a marcasite. This stone is from the size of an acorn to that of a pigeon's egg; the larger the stone the more valuable it is held—its price increasing like that of a diamond. There was a time when a stone of four ounces sold in Europe for above two hundred pounds, but at present the price is greatly fallen, and they are in very little esteem. The bezoar is of various colours—sometimes of a blood colour, sometimes of a pale yellow, and of all the shades between these two. It is generally glossy, smooth, and has a fragrant smell, like that of ambergris, probably arising from the aromatic vegetables upon which the animal that produces it feeds. It has been given in vertigoes, epilepsia, palpitations of the heart, cholic, jaundice, and, in those places where the dearness and not the value of medicines is consulted, in almost every disorder incident to man. In all, perhaps, it is equally efficacious, acting only as an absorbent powder, and possessing virtues equal to common chalk or crabs-claws. Judicious physicians have therefore discarded it; and this celebrated medicine is now chiefly consumed in countries where the knowledge of Nature has been but little advanced. When this medicine was in its highest reputation many arts were used to adulterate it; and many countries endeavoured to find out a bezoar of their own. Thus we had occidental bezoar brought from America; German bezoar, which has been mentioned before; cow bezoar, and monkey bezoar. In fact, there is scarce an animal, except of the carnivorous kinds, that does not produce some of these concretions in the stomach, intestines, kidneys, bladder, and even in the heart. To these ignorance may impute virtues that they do not possess—experience has found but few cures wrought by their efficacy; but it is well known that they often prove fatal to the animal that bears them. These concretions are generally found in cows, by their practice of licking off their hair, which gathers in the stomach into the shape of a ball, acquires a surprising degree of hardness, and sometimes a polish like leather. They are often as large as a goose-egg; and, when become too large to pass, block up the passage of the food, and the animal dies. The substance of these balls, however, is different from the bezoar mentioned above—being rather a concretion of hair than of stone. There is a bezoar found in the gall-bladder of a boar, and thence called

"hog bezoar," in great esteem, but perhaps with as little justice as any of the former. In short, as we have already observed, there is scarce an animal or scarce a part of their bodies in which concretions are not formed; and it is more than probable, as Mr. Buffon justly remarks, that the bezoar so much in use formerly was not the production of the pazan, or any one animal only, but that of the whole gazelle kind, who, feeding upon odoriferous herbs and plants, gave this admirable fragrance to the accidental concretions which they were found to produce. As this medicine, however, is but little used at present, our curiosity is much abated as to the cause of its formation. To return, therefore, to the varieties in the gazelle tribe. The ninth is called the "ranguer," and is a native of Senegal. This differs somewhat in shape and colour from the rest; but particularly in the shape of its horns, which are straight near to the points, where they crook forward, much in the same manner as in the chamois they crook backward. The tenth variety of the gazelle is the "antelope"—so well known to the English, who have given it the name. It is of the size of the roebuck, and resembles the gazelle in many particulars, but differs in others: it has deeper eye-pits than the former; the horns are also formed differently, being about sixteen inches long, almost touching each other at the bottom, and spreading as they rise, so as at their tips to be sixteen inches asunder. They have the annular prominences of their kind, but not so distinguishable as in the gazelle; however, they have a double flexure, which is very remarkable, and serves to distinguish them from all others of their kind. At the root they have a tuft of hair, which is longer than that of any other part of the body. Like others of the same kind, the antelope is brown on the back and white under the belly; but these colours are not separated by the black streak which is to be found in all the rest of the gazelle kinds. There are different sorts of the animal—some with larger horns than others, and others with less. The one which makes the eleventh variety in the gazelle kind Mr. Buffon calls the "lidme," which has very long horns; and the other, which is the twelfth and last, he calls the "Indian antelope," the horns of which are very small.

To these may be added three or four varieties more, which it is not easy to tell whether to refer to the goat or the gazelle, as they equally resemble both. The first of these is the "bubalus," an animal that seems to partake of the mixed natures of the cow, the goat, and the deer. It resembles the stag in the size and the figure of its body, and particularly in the shape of its legs. But it has permanent horns, like the goat, and made entirely like those of the gazelle kind. It also resembles that animal in its way of living; it differs, however, in the make of its head, being exactly like the cow in the length of its muzzle and in the disposition of the bones of its skull—from which similitude it has taken its name. This animal has a long, narrow head; the eyes are placed very high; the forehead short and narrow; the horns permanent, about a foot long, black, thick, annulated, and the rings of the gazelle kind, very large; its shoulders are very high, and it has a kind of bunch on them, which terminates at the neck; the tail is about a foot long, and tufted with hair at the extremity. The hair of this animal is remarkable in being thicker at the middle than at the root: in all other quadrupeds, except the elk and this, the hair tapers off from the bottom to the point; but in these, each hair seems to swell in the middle like a nine-pin. The bubalus also resembles the elk in size and the colour of its skin; but these are the only similitudes between them: as the one has a large branching head of solid horns that are annually deciduous, the other has black unbranching hollow horns that never fall. The bubalus is common enough in Barbary, and has often been called by the name of the "barbary cow" from which animal

it differs so widely. It partakes pretty much of the nature of the antelope—like that animal having the hair short, the hide black, the ears pointed, and the flesh good for food.

The second anomalous animal of the goat kind Mr. Buffon calls the "condoma." It is supposed to be equal in size to the largest stag, but with hollow horns like those of the goat kind, and with varied flexures like those of the antelope. They are above three feet long, and at their extremities about two feet asunder. All along the back there runs a white list, which ends at the insertion of the tail; another of the same colour crosses this at the bottom of the neck, which it entirely surrounds: there are two more of the same kind running round the body, one behind the fore-legs, and the other running parallel to it before the hinder. The colour of the rest of the body is greyish, except the belly, which is white: it has also a long grey beard; and its legs, though long, are well proportioned.

The third that may be mentioned he calls the "gruba." It resembles the gazelle in every particular, except in the colour of the belly, which, as we have seen, is white in them, but in this is of a deep brown. Its horns, also, are not marked with annular prominences, but are smooth and polished. It is also remarkable for white lists on a brown ground, that are disposed along the animal's body as if it were covered with harness. Like the former, it is a native of Africa.

The "African wild goat" of Grimmus is the fourth. It is of a dark ash-colour; and in the middle of the head is a hairy tuft standing upright; on both sides, between the eyes and the nose, there are very deep cavities greater than those of the other kinds, which contain a yellow oily liquor, which coagulates into a black substance, and has a smell between musk and civit. This being taken away the liquor again runs out, and coagulates as before. These cavities have no communication with the eyes, and consequently this oozing substance can have nothing of the nature of tears.

To this we may had the "chevrotin," or little Guinea deer, which is the least of all cloven-footed quadrupeds, and perhaps the most beautiful; its legs at the smallest part are not much thicker than the shank of a tobacco-pipe; it is about seven inches high, and about twelve from the point of the nose to the insertion of the tail. It is the most delicately shaped in the world, being completely formed like a stag in miniature; except that its horns, when it has any, are more of the gazelle kind, being hollow and annulated in the same manner. It has two canine teeth in the upper jaw; in which respect it differs from all other animals of the goat or deer kind, and thus makes a species entirely distinct by itself. This wonderful animal's colour is not less pleasing—the hair, which is short and glossy, being in some of a beautiful yellow, except on the neck and belly, which is white. They are natives of India, Guinea, and the warm climates between the tropics, and are found in great plenty. But though they are amazingly swift for their size, yet the Negroes often overtake them in the pursuit, and knock them down with their sticks. They may be easily tamed, and then they become familiar and pleasing; but they are of such delicate constitutions that they can bear no climate but the hottest; and they always perish with the rigours of ours when they are brought over. The male in Guinea has horns—the female is without any; as are all the kinds of this animal to be found either in Java or Ceylon, where they chiefly abound.

Such is the list of the gazelles—all which pretty nearly resemble the deer in form and delicacy of shape, but have the horns hollow, single, and permanent like those of the goat. They properly fill up, as has been already observed, the interval between these two kinds of animals; so that it is difficult to tell where the goat ends and the deer may be said to begin. If we compare the gazelles with each other we shall find but very slight

distinctions between them. The turn or the magnitude of the horns, the different spots on the skin, or a difference of size in each, are chiefly the marks by which their varieties are to be known; but their way of living, their nature, and their peculiar swiftness, all come under one description.

The gazelles are in general inhabitants of the warmer climates, and contribute, among other embellishments, to add beauty to those forests that are for ever green. They are often seen feeding in herds on the sides of the mountain, or in the shade of the woods, and fly altogether on the slightest approach of danger. They bound with such swiftness and are so very shy, that dogs or men vainly attempt to pursue them. They traverse those precipices with ease and safety which to every quadruped else are quite impracticable; nor can any animals but of the winged kind overtake them. Accordingly, in all those countries where they are chiefly found they are pursued by falcons; and this admirable manner of hunting makes one of the principal amusements of the upper ranks of people all over the East. The Arabians, Persians, and Turks breed up for this purpose that kind of hawk called the "falcon gentle," with which, when properly trained, they go forth upon horseback among the forests and the mountains, the falcon perching upon the hand of the hunter. Their expedition is conducted with profound silence; their dogs are taught to hang behind; while the men, on the fleetest coursers, look round for the game. Whenever they spy a gazelle at the proper distance then they point the falcon to its object, and encourage it to pursue. The falcon, with the swiftness of an arrow, flies to the animal—which, knowing its danger, endeavours, but too late, to escape. The falcon, soon coming up with its prey, fixes its talons, one into the animal's cheek and the other into its throat, and deeply wounds it. On the other hand, the gazelle attempts to escape, but is generally wounded too deep to run far. The falcon clings with the utmost perseverance, nor ever leaves its prey till it falls; upon which the hunters from behind approaching they take up both, and reward the falcon with the blood of the spoil. They also teach the young ones by applying them to the dead animal's throat, and accustoming them betimes to fix upon that particular part; for if it should happen that the falcon fixed upon any other part of the gazelle, either its back or its haunches, the animal would easily escape among the mountains, and the hunter would also lose his falcon. They sometimes hunt this animal with the ounce. This carnivorous and fierce creature, being domesticated, generally sits on horseback behind the hunter, and remains there with the utmost composure until the gazelle is shown; it is then that it exerts all its arts and fierceness; it does not at once fly at its prey, but approaches slyly, turning and winding about until it comes within the proper distance, when all at once it bounds upon the heedless animal, and instantly kills it and sucks its blood. If, on the other hand, it misses its aim, it remains in its place without attempting to pursue any further, but seems ashamed of its own inability.

There is still another way of taking the gazelle, which seems not so certain nor so amusing as either of the former. A tame gazelle is bred up for this purpose, who is taught to join those of its kind wherever it perceives them. When the hunter, therefore, sees a herd of these together, he fixes a noose round the horns of the tame gazelle in such a manner that if the rest but touch it they are entangled; and, thus prepared, he sends his gazelle among the rest. The tame animal no sooner approaches but the males of the herd instantly rally forth to oppose him, and in butting with their horns are caught in the noose. In this, both struggling for some time, at length fall together to the ground; when the hunter coming up he disengages the one and kills the other. Upon the whole, however, these animals, what

ever be the arts used to pursue them, are very difficult to be taken. As they are continually subject to alarms from carnivorous beasts or from man, they keep chiefly in the most solitary and inaccessible places, and find their only protection from situations of the greatest danger.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE MUSK ANIMAL.

The more we search into Nature the more we shall find how little she is known; and we shall more than once have occasion to find that protracted inquiry is more apt to teach us modesty than to produce information. Although the number and nature of quadrupeds at first glances seem very little known; yet, when we come to examine closer, we find some with which we are only partially acquainted, and others that are quite unknown. There is scarce a cabinet of the curious but what has the spoils of animals or the horns or the hoofs of quadrupeds which do not come within former descriptions. There is scarce a person whose trade is to dress or improve furs but knows several creatures by their skins which no naturalist has hitherto had notice of. But of all quadrupeds, there is none so justly deserving the reproach of natural historians as that which bears the musk. This perfume—so well known to the elegant and so very useful in the hands of the physician; a medicine that has for more than a century been imported from the East in great quantities, and during all that time has been improving in its reputation—is, nevertheless, so little understood, that it remains a doubt whether the animal that produces it be a hog, an ox, a goat, or a deer. When an animal with which we are so nearly connected is so utterly unknown, how little must we know of many that are more remote and unserviceable! Yet naturalists proceed in the same train, enlarging their catalogues and their names without endeavouring to find out the nature and fix the precise history of those with which we are but very partially acquainted. It is the spirit of the scholars of the present age to be fond of increasing the bulk of our knowledge than its utility—of extending their conquests rather than improving their empire.

The musk which comes to Europe is brought over in small bags about the size of a pigeon's egg, which, when cut open, appear to contain a kind of dusky reddish substance like coagulated blood, and which in large quantities has a very strong smell, but when mixed and diffused becomes a very agreeable perfume. Indeed, no substance now known in the world has a stronger or more permanent smell. A grain of musk perfumes a whole room; and its odour continues for some days without diminution. But in a larger quantity it continues for years together, and seems scarce wasted in its weight, although it has filled the atmosphere to a great distance with its parts. It is particularly used in medicine in nervous and hysteric disorders, and is found in such cases to be the most powerful remedy now in use; however, the animal that furnishes this admirable medicine has been variously described, and is known but very imperfectly.

The description given of this animal by Grew is as follows:—"The musk animal is properly neither of the goat nor the deer kind, for it has no horns, and it is uncertain whether it ruminates or not; however, it wants the fore-teeth in the upper jaw in the same manner as in ruminating animals: but at the same time it has tusks like those of a hog. It is three feet six inches in length from the head to the tail; and the head is above half a foot long. The fore-part of the head is like that of a greyhound; and the ears are three inches long, and

erect, like those of a rabbit; but the tail is not above two inches. It is cloven-footed, like beasts of the goat kind; the hair on the head and legs is half an inch long, on the belly an inch and a half, and on the back and buttocks three inches, and proportionably thicker than in any other animal. It is brown and white alternately from the root to the point; on the head and thighs it is brown, but under the belly and tail white, and a little curled, especially on the back and belly. On each side of the lower jaw under the corners of the mouth there is a tuft of thick hair, which is short and hard, and about three quarters of an inch long. The hair in general of this animal is remarkable for its softness and fine texture; but what distinguishes it particularly are the tusks, which are an inch and a half long, and turn back in the form of a hook; and more particularly the bag which contains the musk, which is three inches long, two broad, and stands out from the belly an inch and a half. It is a very fearful animal, and therefore it has long ears; and the sense of hearing is so quick that it can discover an enemy at a great distance."

After so circumstantial a description of this animal its nature is but very little known; nor has any anatomist as yet examined its internal structure, or been able to inform us whether it be a ruminant animal or one of the hog kind; how the musk is formed, or whether those bags in which it comes to us be really belonging to the animal or are only the sophistications of the venders. Indeed, when we consider the immense quantities of this substance which are consumed in Europe alone, not to mention the East, where it is in still greater repute than here, we can hardly suppose that any one animal can furnish the supply—and particularly when it must be killed before the bag can be obtained. We are told, it is true, that the musk is often deposited by the animal upon trees and stones, against which it rubs itself when the quantity becomes uneasy; but it is not in that form which we receive it, but always in what seems to be its own natural bladder. Of these, Taverner brought home near two thousand in one year; and, as the animal is wild, so many must during that space have been hunted and taken. But as the creature is represented very shy, and as it is found but in some particular provinces of the East, the wonder is how its bag should be so cheap, and furnished in such great plenty. The bag in common does not cost (if I do not forget) above a crown by retail, and yet this is supposed the only one belonging to the animal, and for the obtaining of which it must have been hunted and killed. The only way of solving this difficulty is to suppose that these bags are in a great measure counterfeit, taken from some other animal, or from some part of the same, filled with its blood and a very little of the perfume, but sufficient to impregnate the rest with a strong and permanent odour. It comes to us from different parts of the East—from China, Tonquin, Bengal, and often from Muscovy. That of Thibet is reckoned the best, and sells for fourteen shillings an ounce; that of Muscovy the worst, and sells but for three—the odour of this, though very strong at first, being quickly found to evaporate. Musk was some years ago in the highest request as a perfume, and but little regarded as a medicine; but at present its reputation is totally changed; and having been found of great benefit in physic, it is, but little regarded for purposes of elegance. It is thus that things which become necessary cease to continue pleasing, and the consciousness of their use destroys their power of administering delight.



CHAP. V.

ANIMALS OF THE DEER KIND.

If we compare the stag and the bull, as to shape and form, no two animals can be more unlike; and yet, if we examine their internal structure we shall find a striking similitude between them. Indeed, their differences, except to a nice observer, will scarcely be perceivable. All of the deer kind want the gall-bladder; their kidneys are formed differently; their spleen is also proportionably larger; their tail is shorter; and their horns, which are solid, are renewed every year. Such are the slight internal discriminations between two animals, one of which is among the swiftest and the other the heaviest of the brute creation.

The stag is one of those innocent and peaceable animals that seems made to embellish the forest and animate the solitudes of Nature. The easy elegance of his form—the lightness of his motions—those large branches that seem made rather for the ornament of his head than its defence—the size, the strength, and the swiftness of this beautiful creature—all sufficiently rank him among the first of quadrupeds, among the most noted objects of human curiosity.

The stag, or hart, whose female is called a "hind," and the young a "calf," differs in size and horns from a fallow-deer. He is much larger, and his horns are round; whereas in the fallow kind they are broad and palmated. By these the animal's age is known. The first year the stag has no horns, but a horny excrescence, which is short, rough, and covered with a thin, hairy skin. The next year the horns are single and straight; the third year they have two antlers, three the fourth, four the fifth, and five the sixth; this number is not always certain, for sometimes there are more and often less. When arrived at the sixth year the antlers do not always increase; and although the number may amount to six or seven on each side, yet the animal's age is estimated rather from the size of the antlers and the thickness of the branch that sustains them than from their variety. These horns, large as they seem, are, notwithstanding, shed every year, and new ones come in their place. The old horns are of a firm, solid texture, and usually employed in making handles for knives and other domestic utensils: but while young, nothing can be more soft and tender; and the animal, as if conscious of his own imbecility, at those times, instantly upon shedding his former horns, retires from the rest of his fellows, and hides himself in solitudes and thickets, never venturing out to pasture except by night. During this time, which most usually happens in the spring, the new horns are very painful, and have a quick sensibility of any external impression. The flies, also, are extremely troublesome to him. When the old horn is fallen off the new does not begin immediately to appear; but the bones of the skull are seen covered only with a transparent periosteum of skin, which, as anatomists teach us, covers the bones of all animals. After a short time, however, this skin begins to swell, and to form a soft tumour which contains a great deal of blood, and which begins to be covered with a downy substance that has the feel of velvet, and appears nearly of the same colour with the rest of the animal's hair. This tumour every day buds forward from the point like the graft of a tree, and, rising by degrees from the head, shoots out the antlers on either side, so that in a few days, in proportion as the animal is in condition, the whole head is completed. However, as was said above, in the beginning its consistence is very soft, and has a sort of bark, which is no more than a continuation of an integument of the skull. It is velveted and downy, and everywhere furnished with blood-vessels that supply the growing horns with nourishment. As they creep along the sides of the branches the print

is marked over the whole surface—and the larger the blood-vessels the deeper these marks are found to be. From hence arises the inequality of the surface of the deer's horns—which, as we see, are furrowed all along the sides, the impressions diminishing towards the point, where the substance is as smooth and as solid as ivory. But it ought to be observed, that this substance of which the horns are composed begins to harden at the bottom while the upper part remains soft, and still continues growing; from whence it appears that the horns grow differently in deer from those of sheep or cows—in which they are always seen to increase from the bottom. However, when the whole head has received its full growth the extremities then begin to acquire their solidity; the velvet covering or bark, with its blood-vessels, dry up, and then begin to fall; and this the animal hastens by rubbing its antlers against every tree it meets. In this manner, the whole external surface being stripped off by degrees, at length the whole head acquires its complete hardness, expansion, and beauty.

It would be a vain task to inquire into the cause of the animal production of these horns; it is sufficient to observe, that if a stag be castrated when its horns are fallen off they will never grow again; and on the contrary, if the same operation is performed when they are on, they will never fall off. If only one of his testicles is taken out he will want the horn on that side; if one of the testicles only be tied up he will want the horn on the opposite side. The increase of their provision also tends to facilitate the growth and the expansion of the horns; and Mr. Buffon thinks it possible to retard their growth entirely by greatly retrenching their food. As a proof of this, nothing can be more obvious than the difference between a stag bred in fertile pastures and undisturbed by the hunter, and one often pursued and ill nourished. The former has his head expanded, his antlers numerous, and the branches thick; the latter has but few antlers, the traces of the blood-vessels upon them are but slight, and the expansion but little. The beauty and size of their horns, therefore, mark their strength and their vigour—such of them as are sickly or have been wounded never shooting out that magnificent profusion so much admired in this animal. Thus the horns may in every respect be compared to a vegetable substance grafted upon the head of an animal. Like a vegetable, they grow from the extremities; like a vegetable, they are for a while covered with a bark that nourishes them; like a vegetable, they have their annual production and decay; and a strong imagination might suppose that the leafy productions on which the animal feeds go once more to vegetate in his horns.

The stag is usually twelve months old before the horns begin to appear, and then a single branch is all that is seen for the ensuing year. About the beginning of spring all of this kind are seen to shed their horns, which fall off of themselves; though sometimes the animal assists the efforts of Nature by rubbing them against a tree. It seldom happens that the branches on both sides fall off at the same time, there often being two or three days between the dropping of the one and the other. The old stags usually shed their horns first, which generally happens towards the latter end of February or the beginning of March. Those of the second head—namely, such as are between five and six years old—shed their horns about the middle or latter end of March; those still younger, in the month of April; and the youngest of all not till the middle or the latter end of May; they generally shed them in pools of water, whither they retire from the heat; and this has given rise to the opinion of their always hiding their horns. These rules, though true in general, are yet subject to many variations; and it is universally known that a severe winter retards the shedding of the horns. The horns of the stag generally increase in thickness and in height from the second year of its age to the

eight. In this state of perfection they continue during the vigour of life; but as the animal grows old the horns feel the impressions of age, and shrink like the rest of the body. No branch bears more than twenty or twenty-two antlers, even in the highest state of vigour; and the number is subject to great variety; for it happens that the stag at one year has either less or more than the year preceding, in proportion to the goodness of his pasture or the continuance of his security, as these animals seldom thrive when often roused by the hunters. The horns are also found to partake of the nature of the soil; in the more fertile pastures they are large and tender; on the contrary, in the barren soil they are hard, stunted, and brittle. As soon as the stags have shed their horns they separate from each other, and seek the plainer parts of the country, remote from every other animal, which they are utterly unable to oppose. They then walk with their heads stooping down, to keep their horns from striking against the branches of the trees above. In this state of imbecility they continue near three months before their heads have acquired their full growth and solidity; and then, by rubbing them against the branches of every thicket, they at length clear them of the skin which had contributed to their growth and nourishment. It is said by some that the horn takes the colour of the sap of the tree against which it is rubbed; and that some thus become red when rubbed against the heath, and others brown by rubbing against the oak; this, however, is a mistake, since stags kept in parks where there are no trees have a variety in the colour of their horns, which can be ascribed to nothing but Nature. A short time after they have furnished their horns they begin to feel the impressions of the rut, or the desire of copulation. The old ones are the most forward; and about the end of August or the beginning of September they quit their thickets, and return to the mountain in order to seek the hind, to whom they call with a loud, tremulous note. At this time their neck is swollen; they appear bold and furious—fly from country to country—strike with their horns against the trees and other obstacles, and continue restless and fierce until they have found the female, who at first flies from them, but is at last overtaken and subdued. When two stags contend for the same female, how timorous soever they may appear at other times, they then seem agitated with an uncommon degree of ardour. They paw the earth, menace each other with their horns, bellow with all their force, and, striking in a desperate manner against each other, seem determined upon death or victory. This combat continues till one of them is defeated or flies; and it often happens that the victor is obliged to fight several of these battles before he remains undisputed master of the field. The old ones are generally the conquerors on these occasions, as they have more strength and greater courage; and these are also preferred by the hind to the young ones, as the latter are more feeble and less ardent. However, they are all equally inconstant, keeping to the female but a few days, and then seeking out for another—not to be enjoyed, perhaps, without a repetition of their former danger.

In this manner the stag continues to range from one to the other for about three weeks—the time the rut continues; during which he scarce eats, sleeps, or rests, but continues to pursue, to combat, and to enjoy. At the end of this period of madness—for such in this animal it seems to be—the creature that was before fat, sleek, and glossy becomes lean, feeble, and timid. He then retires from the herd to seek plenty and repose; he frequents the side of the forest, and chooses the most nourishing pastures, remaining there till his strength is renewed. Thus is his whole life passed in the alternations of plenty and want, of corpulence and inanition, of health and sickness, without having his constitution much affected by the violence of the change. As he is

above five years coming to perfection, he lives about forty years; and it is a general rule, that every animal lives about seven or eight times the number of years which it continues to grow. What, therefore, is reported concerning the life of this animal has arisen from the credulity of ignorance; some say that a stag having been taken in France, with a collar on which were written these words, "Cæsar hoc me donavit," this was interpreted of Julius Cæsar; but it is not considered that Cæsar is a general name for kings, and that one of the emperors of Germany, who are always styled Cæsars, might have ordered the inscription.

This animal may differ in the term of his life according to the goodness of his pasture or the undisturbed repose he happens to enjoy. These are advantages that influence not only his age but his size and vigour. The stags of the plains, the valleys, and the little hills which abound in corn and pasture, are much more corpulent and much taller than such as are bred on the rocky waste or the heathy mountain. The latter are low, small, and meagre, incapable of going so swift as the former, although they are found to hold out much longer. They are also more artful in evading the hunters; their horns are generally black and short, while those of the lowland stags are reddish and flourishing; so that the animal seems to increase in beauty and stature in proportion to the goodness of the pasture which he enjoys in security.

The usual colour of the stag in England was red; nevertheless, the greater number in other countries are brown. There are some few that are white; but these seem to have obtained this colour in a former state of domestic tameness. Of all the animals that are natives of this climate, there are none that have such a beautiful eye as the stag; it is sparkling, soft, and sensible. His senses of smelling and hearing are in no less perfection. When he is in the least alarmed, he lifts the head and erects the ears, standing for a few minutes as if in a listening posture. Whenever he ventures upon some unknown ground, or quits his native covering, he first stops at the skirt of the plain to examine all around; he next turns against the wind to examine by the smell if there be any enemy approaching. If a person should happen to whistle or call out at a distance, the stag is seen to stop short in a slow measured pace, and gazes upon the stranger with a kind of awkward admiration: if the cunning animal perceives neither dogs nor fire-arms preparing against him, he goes forward, quite unconcerned, and slowly proceeds without offering to fly. Man is not the enemy he is most afraid of; on the contrary, he seems to be delighted with the sound of a shepherd's pipe; and the hunters sometimes make use of that instrument to allure the poor animal to his destruction.

The stag eats slowly, and is very delicate in the choice of his pasture. When he has eaten a sufficiency, he then retires to the covert of some thicket to chew the cud in security. His rumination, however, seems performed with much greater difficulty than with the cow or sheep; for the grass is not returned from the first stomach without much straining and a kind of hiccup, which is easily perceived during the whole time it continues. This may proceed from the greater length of the neck and the narrowness of the passage, all those of the cow and the sheep kind having it much wider.

This animal's voice is much stronger, louder, and more tremulous in proportion as he advances in age; in the time of rut it is even terrible. At that season he seems so transported with passion that nothing obstructs his fury; and, when at bay, he keeps the dogs off with great intrepidity. Some years ago, William, Duke of Cumberland, caused a tiger and a stag to be enclosed in the same area, and the stag made so bold a defence that the tiger was at last obliged to fly. The stag seldom drinks in the winter, and still less in the spring, while the plants

are tender and covered over with dew. It is in the heat of summer and during the time of rut that he is seen constantly frequenting the side of rivers and lakes, as well to slake his thirst as to cool his ardour. He swims with great ease and strength, and best at those times when he is fattest, his fat keeping him buoyant, like oil upon the surface of the water. During the time of rut he even ventures out to sea, and swims from one island to another, although there may be some leagues distance between them.

The cry of the hind or female is not so loud as that of the male, and is never excited but by apprehension for herself or her young. It need scarce be mentioned that she has no horns, or that she is more feeble and unfit for hunting than the male. When once they have conceived they separate from the male, and then they both herd apart. The time of gestation continues from eight to nine months, and they generally produce but one at a time. Their usual season for bringing forth is about the month of May or the beginning of June, during which time they take great care to hide their young in the most obscure thickets. Nor is this precaution without reason, since almost every creature is then a formidable enemy. The eagle, the falcon, the osprey, the wolf, the dog, and all the rapacious family of the cat kind, are in continual employment to find out her retreat. But what is more unnatural still, the stag himself is a professed enemy, and the hind is obliged to use all her arts to conceal her young from him as from the most dangerous of all her pursuers. At this season, therefore, the courage of the male seems transferred to the female: she defends her young against her less formidable opponents by force; and, when pursued by the hunter, she ever offers herself to mislead him from the principal objects of her concern. She flies before the hounds for half the day, and then returns to her young, whose life she has thus preserved at the hazard of her own. The "calf" for so the young of this animal is called, never quits the dam during the whole summer; and in winter the hind and all the males under a year old keep together and assemble in herds, which are more numerous in proportion as the season is more severe. In the spring they separate—the hind to bring forth, while none but the year olds remain together. These animals are, however, in general fond of herding and grazing in company; it is danger or necessity alone that separates them.

The dangers they have to fear from other animals are nothing when compared to those from man. The men of every age and nation have made the chase of the stag one of their most favourite pursuits; and those who first hunted from necessity have continued it for amusement. In our own country, in particular, hunting was ever esteemed as one of the principal diversions of the great. At first, indeed, the beasts of chase had the whole island for their range, and knew no other limits than those of the ocean.

The Roman jurisprudence, which was formed on the manners of the first ages, established it as a law that, as the natural right of things that have no master belongs to the first possessor, wild beasts, birds, and fishes are the property of whosoever should first take them. But the northern barbarians, who overran the Roman empire, bringing with them the strongest relish for this amusement, and being now possessed of more easy means of subsistence from the lands they had conquered, their chiefs and leaders began to appropriate the right of hunting, and instead of a natural right to make it a royal one. When the Saxon kings, therefore, had established themselves into a heptarchy, the chases were reserved by each sovereign for his own particular amusement. Hunting and war in those uncivilised ages were the only enjoyment of the great. Their active but uncultivated minds were susceptible of no pleasures but those of a violent kind, such as gave exercise to their bodies,

and prevented the trouble of thinking. But as the Saxon kings only appropriated those lands to the business of the chase which were unoccupied before, so no one received any injury. But it was otherwise when the Norman kings were settled upon the throne. The passion for hunting was then carried to excess, and every civil right was involved in general ruin. This ardour for hunting was stronger than the consideration of religion even in a superstitious age. The village communities, nay, even the most sacred edifices, were thrown down, and all turned into one vast waste, to make room for animals the objects of a lawless tyrant's pleasure. sanguinary laws were enacted to preserve the game: in the reigns of William Rufus and Henry I. it was less criminal to destroy a human being than a beast of chase. Thus it continued while the Norman line filled the throne; but when the Saxon line was restored under Henry II. the rigours of the forest laws were softened. The barons, also, for a long time imitated the encroachments as well as the amusements of the monarch; but when property became more equally divided by the introduction of arts and industry, these extensive hunting-grounds became more limited; and as tillage and husbandry increased, the beasts of chase were obliged to give way to others more useful to the community. Those vast tracts of land, before dedicated to hunting, were then contracted; and in proportion as the useful arts gained ground they protected and encouraged the labours of the industrious, and repressed the licentiousness of the sportsman. It is, therefore, among the subjects of a despotic government only that these laws remain in full force; where large wastes lie uncultivated for the purposes of hunting; where the husbandman can find no protection from the invasion of his lord, or the continual depredations of these animals which he makes the objects of his pleasure.

In the present cultivated state of this country, therefore, the stag is unknown in its wild natural state; and such of them as remain among us are kept, under the name of "red deer," in parks among the fallow deer. But they are become less common than formerly—its excessive viciousness during the rutting season and the badness of its flesh inducing most people to part with the species. The few that still remain wild are to be found on the moors that border on Cornwall and Devonshire, and in Ireland, on most of the large mountains of that country.

In England, the hunting the stag and the buck are performed in the same manner; the animal is driven from some gentleman's park, and then hunted through the open country. But those who pursue the wild animal have a much higher object, as well as a greater variety in the chase. To let loose a creature that was already in our possession in order to catch it again is, in my opinion, but a poor pursuit, as the reward when obtained is only what we before had given away. But to pursue an animal that owns no proprietor, and which he that first seizes may be said to possess, has something in it that seems at least more rational; this rewards the hunter for his toil, and seems to repay his industry. Besides, the superior strength and swiftness of the wild animal prolongs the amusement; it is possessed of more various arts to escape the hunter, and leads him to precipices where the danger ennobles the chase. In pursuing the animal let loose from a park, as it is unused to danger, it is but little versed in the stratagems of escape; the hunter follows as sure of overcoming, and feels none of those alternations of hope and fear which arise from the uncertainty of success. But it is otherwise with the mountain stag: having spent his whole life in a state of continual apprehension—having frequently been fallowed and as frequently escaped, he knows every trick to mislead, to confound, or intimidate his pursuers, to stimulate their ardour, and enhance their success.

Those who hunt this animal have their peculiar terms

for the different objects of their pursuit. The professors in every art take a pleasure in thus employing a language known only to themselves, and thus accumulate words which to the ignorant have the appearance of knowledge. In this manner, the stag is called the first year, a calf, or hind calf; the second year, a knobber; the third, a brook; the fourth, a staggar; the fifth, a stag; the sixth, a hart. The female is called the hind; the first year she is a calf; the second, a hearse; the third, a hind. This animal is said to harbour in the place where it resides. When he cries, he is said to bell; the print of his hoof is called the slot; his tail is called the single; his excrement the fewmet; his horns are called his head; when simple, the first year, they are called brooches; the third year, spears; the fourth year, that part which bears the antlers is called the beam, and the little impressions upon its surface glitters; those which rise from the crust of the beam are called pearls. The antlers, also, have distinct names: the first that branches off is called the antler; the second, the sur-antler; all the rest which grow afterwards, till you come to the top, which is called the crown, are called royal antlers. The little buds about the tops are called croches. The impression on the place where the stag has lain is called the layer. If it be in covert or thicket, leaving marks whereby his bulk may be guessed, it is called an entry. When they cast their heads they are said to mew. When they rub their heads against trees to bring off the peel of their horns they are said to fray. When a stag hard-hunted takes to swimming in the water he is said to go sail; when he turns his head against the hounds he is said to bay; and when the hounds pursue upon the scent until they have unharboured the stag they are said to draw on the slot.

Such are but a few of the many terms used by hunters in pursuing the stag, most of which are now laid aside, or in use only among gamekeepers. The chase, however, is continued in many parts of the country where the red deer is preserved, and still makes amusement for such as have not found out more liberal entertainments. In those few places where the animal is perfectly wild the amusement, as was said above, is superior. The first great care of the hunter when he leads out his hounds to the mountain side, where the deer are generally known to harbour, is to make choice of a proper stag to pursue. His ambition is to unharbour the largest and the boldest of the whole herd; and for this purpose he examines the track, if there be any, which if he finds long and large, he concludes that it must have belonged to a stag and not a hind, the print of whose foot is rounder. Those marks, also, which he leaves on trees by the rubbing of his horns show his size, and point him out as the proper object of pursuit. Now, to seek out a stag in his haunt, it is to be observed that he changes his manner of feeding every month. From the conclusion of rutting-time, which is November, he feeds in heaths and broomy places. In December they herd together, and withdraw into the strength of the forests to shelter themselves from the severer weather, feeding on holm, elder trees, and brambles. The three following months they leave herding, but keep four or five in a company, and venture out to the corners of the forest, where they feed on winter pasture, sometimes making their incursions into the neighbouring corn-fields, to feed upon the tender shoots which peep above ground. In April and May they rest in thickets and shady places, and seldom venture forth unless roused by approaching danger. In September and October their annual ardour returns; and then they leave the thickets, boldly facing every danger, without any certain place for food or harbour. When, by a knowledge of these circumstances, the hunter has found out the residence and the quality of his game, his next care is to uncouple and cast off his hounds in the pursuit: these no sooner perceive the timorous animal that flies before them but they altogether open in full cry, pursuing rather by the scent

than the view, encouraging each other to continue the chase, and tracing the flying animal with the most amazing sagacity. The hunters, also, are not less ardent in their speed on horseback, cheering up the dogs, and directing them where to pursue. On the other hand, the stag when unharboured flies at first with the swiftness of the wind, leaving his pursuers several miles in the rear; and at length having gained his former coverts, and no longer hearing the cries of the dogs and men that he had just left behind, he stops, gazes round him, and seems to recover his natural tranquillity. But this calm is of short duration, for his inveterate pursuers slowly and securely trace him along, and he once more hears the approaching destruction from behind. He again, therefore, renews his efforts to escape, and again leaves his pursuers at almost the former distance; but this second effort makes him more feeble than before, and when they come up a second time he is unable to outstrip them with equal velocity. The poor animal now, therefore, is obliged to have recourse to all his little arts of escape, which sometimes, though but seldom, avail him. In proportion as his strength fails him the ardour of his pursuers is inflamed; he tracks more heavily on the ground, and this, increasing the strength of the scent, redoubles the cries of the hounds and enforces their speed. It is then that the stag seeks for refuge among the herd, and tries every artifice to put off some other head for his own. Sometimes he will send forth some little deer in his stead, in the mean time lying close himself that the hounds may overshoot him. He will break into one thicket after another to find deer, arousing them, gathering them together, and endeavouring to put them upon the tracks he has made. His old companions, however, with a true spirit of ingratitude, now all forsake and shun him with the most watchful industry, leaving the unhappy creature to take his fate by himself. Thus abandoned of his fellows, he again tries other arts by doubling and crossing in some hard beaten highway, where the scent is least perceivable. He now also runs against the wind, not only to cool himself, but the better to hear the voice, and judge of the distance of his implacable pursuers. It is now easily perceivable how sorely he is pressed by his manner of running, which, from the bounding easy pace with which he began, is converted into a stiff and short manner of going; his mouth, also, is black and dry, without any foam on it; his tongue hangs out; and the tears, as some say, are seen starting from his eyes. His last refuge, when every other method of safety has failed him, is to take the water, and to attempt an escape by crossing whatever lake or river he happens to approach. While swimming he takes all possible care to keep in the middle of the stream, least, by touching the bough of a tree or the herbage on the banks, he may give scent to the hounds. He is also ever found to swim against the stream—whence the huntsmen have made it into a kind of proverb, that "He that would his chase find, must up with the river and down with the wind." On this occasion, too, he will often cover himself under water, so as to show nothing but the tip of his nose. Every resource and every art being at length exhausted, the poor creature tries the last remains of its strength by boldly opposing those enemies he cannot escape; he therefore faces the dogs and men, threatens with his horns, guards himself on every side, and for some time stands at bay. In this manner, quite desperate, he furiously aims at the first dog or man that approaches; and it often happens that he does not die unrevenged. At that time the more prudent, both of the dogs and men, seem wishful to avoid him; but the whole pack quickly coming up, he is soon surrounded and brought down, and the huntsman winds a "treble mort," as it is called, with his horn.

Such is the manner of pursuing this animal in England; but every country has a peculiar method of its

own, adapted either to the nature of the climate or the face of the soil. The ancient manner was very different from that practised at present; they used their dogs only to find out the game, but not to rouse it. Hence they were not curious as to the music of their hounds or the composition of their pack; the dog that opened before he had discovered his game was held in no estimation. It was their usual manner silently to find out the animal's retreat, surrounding it with nets and engines; then drove him up with boisterous cries, and thus forced him into the toils which they had previously prepared. In succeeding time the fashion seemed to alter; more particularly in Sicily, where the manner of hunting was as follows:—The nobles and gentry, being informed which way a herd of deer passed, gave notice to each other, and appointed a day of hunting. For this purpose everyone was to bring a cross-bow or a long-bow, and a bundle of staves shod with iron, the heads bored, with a cord passing through them all. Thus provided, they came to where the herd continued grazing, and, spreading themselves about in a large circle, surrounded the deer on every side; then, each taking his stand, unbound his faggot, set up his stake, and tied the end of the cord to that of his next neighbour, at the distance of about ten feet one from the other. Between each of these stakes was hung a bunch of crimson feathers, so disposed, that with the least breath of wind they would whirl round, and preserve a sort of fluttering motion. This done, the persons who set up the staves withdrew and hid themselves in the adjacent coverts; then the chief huntsman, entering with his hounds within the lines, roused the game with a full cry. The deer, frightened and flying on all sides, on approaching the lines were scared away by the fluttering of the feathers, and wandered about within this artificial paling, still awed by the shining and fluttering plumage that encircled their retreat—the huntsman, however, still pursuing, and, calling every person by name as he passed by their stand, commanded him to shoot the first, third, or sixth, as he pleased; and if any of them missed, or singled out another than that assigned him, it was considered a shameful mischance. In this manner, however, the whole herd was at last destroyed, and the day concluded with mirth and feasting.

The stags of China are of a particular kind, for they are no taller than a common house-dog; and hunting them is one of the principal diversions of the great. Their flesh while young is exceedingly good; but when they arrive at maturity it begins to grow hard and tough: however, the tongue, the muzzle, and the ears are in particular esteem among that luxurious people. Their manner of taking them is singular enough. They carry with them the heads of some of the females stuffed, and learn exactly to imitate their cry; upon this the male does not fail to appear, and, looking on all sides, perceives the head—which is all that the hunter (who is himself concealed) discovers. Upon their nearer approach the whole company rise, surround, and often take him alive.

There are very few varieties of the red deer in this country, and they are mostly found of the same size and colour. But it is otherwise in different parts of the world, where they are seen to differ in form, in size, in horns, and in colour.

The stag of Corsica is a very small animal, being not above half the size of those common among us. His body is short and thick, his legs short, and his hair of a dark brown.

There is in the forests of Germany a kind of stag, named by the ancients the "Tragelaphus," and which the natives call the "bran deer," or the "brown deer." This is of a darker colour than the common stag, of a lighter shade upon the belly, long hair upon the neck and throat, by which it appears bearded like the goat.

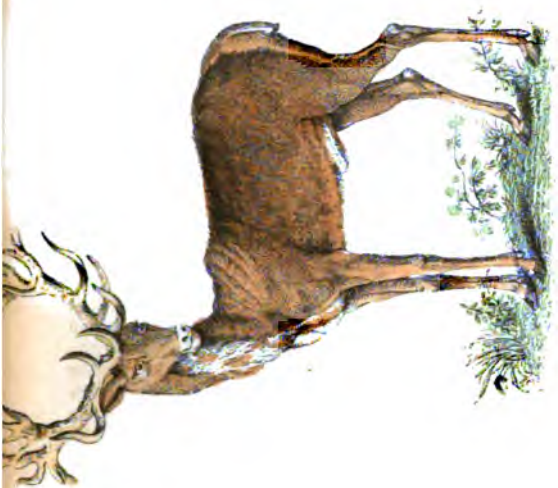
There is also a very beautiful stag, which by some is

said to be a native of Sardinia; but others (among whom is Mr. Buffon) are of opinion that it comes from Africa or the East Indies. He calls it the "axis," after Pliny; and considers it as making the shade between the stag and the fallow deer. The horns of the axis are round, like those of the stag; but the form of the body entirely resembles that of the buck, and the size also is exactly the same. The hair is of four colours; namely, fallow, white, black, and grey. The white is predominant under the belly on the inside of the thighs and the legs. Along the back there are two rows of spots in a right line; but those on other parts of the body are very irregular. A white line runs along each side of this animal while the head and neck are grey. The tail is black above and white beneath; and the hair upon it is six inches long.

Although there are but few individuals of the deer kind, yet the race seems diffused over all parts of the earth. The new continent of America, in which neither the sheep, the goat, nor the gazelle have been originally bred, nevertheless produces stags and other animals of the deer kind in sufficient plenty. The Mexicans have a breed of white stags in their parks, which they call "stags royal." The stags of Canada differ from ours in nothing except the size of the horns, which in them is greater, and the direction of the antlers, which rather turn back than project forward as in those of Europe. The same difference of size that obtains among our stags is also to be seen in that country; and, as we are informed by Ruysch, the Americans have brought them into the same state of domestic tameness that we have our sheep, goats, or black cattle. They send them forth in the daytime to feed in the forests; and at night they return home with the herdsman who guards them. The inhabitants have no other milk but what the hind produces, and use no other cheese but what is made from thence. In this manner we find that an animal which seems made only for man's amusement may be easily brought to supply his necessities. Nature has many stores of happiness and plenty in reserve, which only want the call of industry to be produced, and now remain as candidates for human approbation.

THE FALLOW DEER.—No two animals can be more nearly allied than the stag and the fallow deer. Alike in form, alike in disposition, in the superb furniture of their heads, in their swiftness and timidity; and yet no two animals keep more distinct, or avoid each other with more fixed animosity. They are never seen to herd in the same place; they never engender together, or form a mixed breed; and even in those countries where the stag is common the buck seems to be entirely a stranger; in short, they both form distinct families, which though so seemingly near are still remote; and although with the same habits, yet retain an unalterable aversion. The fallow deer, as they are much smaller, so they seem of a nature less robust and less savage than those of the stag kind. They are found but rarely wild in the forests; they are in general bred up in parks, and kept for the purposes of hunting or of luxury, their flesh being preferred to that of any other animal. It need scarce be mentioned that the horns of the buck make its principal distinction, being broad and palmated; whereas those of the stag are in every part round. In the one, they are flattened and spread like the palm of the hand; in the other they grow like a tree, every branch being of the shape of the stem that bears it. The fallow deer also has the tail longer and the hair lighter than the stag; in other respects they pretty near resemble one another.

The head of the buck, as of all other animals of this kind, is shed every year, and takes the usual time for repairing. The only differences between it and the stag is, that this change happens later in the buck; and its rutting time consequently falls most into the winter. It is not found so furious at this season as the former; nor does it so much exhaust itself by the violence of



RED DEER



ROE BUCK



ELK



FALLOW DEER



GAZELLE



REINDEER



its ardour. It does not quit its natural pastures in quest of the female, nor does it attack other animals with indiscriminate ferocity; however, the males combat for the female among each other; and it is not without many contests that one buck is seen to become master of the whole herd. It often happens, also, that a herd of fallow deer is seen to divide into two parties, and engage each other with great ardour and obstinacy. They both seem desirous of gaining some favourite spot of the park for pasture, and of driving the vanquished party into the coarser and more disagreeable parts. Each of these factions has its particular chief; namely, the two oldest and strongest of the herd. These lead on to the engagement; and the rest follow under their direction. These combats are singular enough, from the disposition and conduct which seems to regulate their mutual efforts. They attack with order, and support the assault with courage; they come to each other's assistance; they retire, they rally, and never give up the victory upon a single defeat. The combat is renewed for several days together; until at length the most feeble side is obliged to give way, and is content to escape to the most disagreeable part of the park, where only they can find safety and protection.

The fallow-deer is easily tamed, and feeds upon many things which the stag refuses. By this means it preserves its venison better; and even after rutting it does not appear entirely exhausted. It continues almost in the same state through the whole year, although there are particular seasons when its flesh is chiefly in esteem. This animal also browses closer than the stag; for which reason it is more prejudicial among young trees, which it often strips too close for recovery. The young deer eat much faster and more greedily than the old; they seek the female at their second year, and, like the stag, are fond of variety. The deer goes with young above eight months, like the hind, and commonly brings forth one at a time; but they differ in this, that the buck comes to perfection at three and lives till sixteen; whereas the stag does not come to perfection till seven, and lives till forty.

As this animal is a beast of chase, like the stag, so the hunters have invented a number of names relative to him. The buck is the first year called a fawn; the second, a pricket; the third, a sorel; the fourth, a sore; the fifth, a buck of the first head; and the sixth, a great bucky. The female is called a doe; the first year, a fawn; and the second, a tegg. The manner of hunting the buck is pretty much the same as stag-hunting, except that less skill is required in the latter. The buck is more easily roused; it is sufficient to judge by the view, and mark what grove or covert it enters—as it is not known to wander far from thence, nor, like the stag, to change its layer or place of repose. When severely hunted, it takes to some strong-hold or covert with which it is acquainted in the more gloomy parts of the wood or the steep of the mountain—not like the stag, flying before the hounds, nor crossing nor doubling, nor using any of the subtleties which the stag is accustomed to. It will take the water when sorely pressed, but seldom a great river; nor can it swim so long nor so swiftly as the former. In general, the strength, the cunning, and the courage of this animal are inferior to those of the stag; consequently it affords neither so long, so various, nor so obstinate a chase; besides, being lighter and not tracing so deeply, it leaves a less powerful and lasting scent, and the dogs in the pursuit are frequently at fault.

As the buck is a more delicate animal than the stag, so also it is subject to greater varieties. We have in England two varieties of the fallow deer, which are said to be of foreign origin—the beautiful spotted kind, which is supposed to have been brought from Bengal; and the very deep brown sort, that are now so common in several parts of this kingdom. These were introduced by King

James the First from Norway; for, having observed their hardiness, and that they could endure the winter even in that severe climate without fodder, he brought over some of them into Scotland, and disposed of them among his chases. Since that time they have multiplied in many parts of the British empire; and England is now become more famous for its venison than any other country in the world. Whatever pains the French have taken to rival us in this particular, the flesh of their fallow deer, of which they have but few, has neither the fatness nor the flavour of that fed upon English pasture.

However, there is scarce a country in Europe, except far to the northward, in which this animal is a stranger. The Spanish fallow deer are as large as stags, but of a darker colour and a more slender neck: their tails are longer than those of ours—they are black above and white below. The Virginian deer are larger and stronger than ours, with great necks, and their colour inclinable to grey. Other kinds have the hoofs of their hind-legs marked outwardly with a white spot, and their ears and tails much longer than the common. One of these has been seen full of white spots, with a black list down the middle of his back. In Guiana, a country of South America, according to Labat, there are deer without horns, which are much less than those of Europe, but resembling them in every other particular. They are very lively, light of course, and excessively fearful; their hair is of a redish fallow, their heads are small and lean, their ears little, their necks long and arched, the tail short, and the sight piercing. When pursued, they fly into places where no other animal can follow them. The Negroes who pursue them stand to watch for them in narrow paths which lead to the brook or the meadow where they feed, waiting in the utmost silence, for the slightest sound will drive them away; the Negro, when he perceives the animal within reach, shoots, and is happy if he can bring down his game. Their flesh, though seldom fat, is considered as a great delicacy, and the hunter is well rewarded for his trouble.

THE ROEBUCK.—The roebuck is the smallest of the deer kind known in our climate, and is now almost extinct among us, except in some parts of the Highlands of Scotland. It is generally about three feet long, and about two feet high. The horns are from eight to nine inches long, upright, round, and divided into only three branches. The body is covered with very long hair, well adapted to the rigour of its mountainous abode. The lower part of each hair is ash colour; near the ends is a narrow bar of black, and the points are yellow. The hairs on the face are black, tipped with ash colour. The ears are long, their insides of a pale yellow, and covered with long hair. The spaces bordering on the eyes and mouth are black. The chest, belly, and legs, and the inside of the thighs, are of a yellowish white; the rump is of a pure white, and the tail very short. The make of this little animal is very elegant; and its swiftness equals its beauty. It differs from the fallow-deer in having round horns, and not flattened like theirs. It differs from the stag in its smaller size, and the proportionable paucity of its antlers: and it differs from all of the goat kind, as it annually sheds its horns, and obtains new ones, which none of that kind are ever seen to do.

As the stag frequents the thickest forests and the sides of the highest mountains, the roebuck, with humbler ambition, courts the shady thicket and the rising slope. Although less in size and far inferior in strength to the stag, it is yet more beautiful, more active, and even more courageous. Its hair is always smooth, clean, and glossy; and it frequents only the driest places and inhales the purest air. Though but a very little animal, as we have already observed, yet when its young is attacked it faces even the stag himself, and often comes off victorious. All its motions are elegant and easy; it bounds without effort, and continues the course with but little fatigue.

It is also possessed of more cunning in avoiding the hunter, is more difficult to pursue, and although its scent is much stronger than that of the stag, it is more frequently found to make a good retreat. It is not with the roebuck as with the stag, who never offers to use art until his strength is beginning to decline; this more cunning animal, when it finds that its first efforts to escape are without success, returns upon its former track, again goes forward and again returns, until by its various windings it has entirely confounded the scent, and joined the last emanations to those of its former course. It then by a bound goes to one side, lies flat upon its belly, and permits the pack to pass by very near without offering to stir.

But the roebuck differs not only from the stag in superior cunning, but also in its natural appetites, its inclinations, and its whole habits of living. Instead of herding together, these animals live in separate families; the sire, the dam, and the young ones associate together, and never admit a stranger into their little community. All others of the deer kind are inconstant in their affection; but the roebuck never leaves its mate; and, as they have been generally bred up together from their first fawning, they conceive so strong an attachment the male for the female that they never after separate. Their rutting season continues but fifteen days—from the latter end of October to about the middle of November. They are not at that time, like the stag, overloaded with fat; they have not that strong odour which is perceived in all others of the deer kind; they have none of those furious excesses—nothing, in short, that alters their state: they only drive away their fawns upon these occasions—the buck forcing them to retire in order to make room for a succeeding progeny; however, when the copulating season is over the fawns return to their does, and remain with them some time longer; after which they quit them entirely, in order to begin an independent family of their own. The female goes with young but five months and a half, which alone serves to distinguish this animal from all others of the deer kind that continue pregnant more than eight. In this respect she approaches more nearly to the goat kind; from which, however, this race is separated by the male's annually casting its horns.

When the female is ready to bring forth she seeks a retreat in the thickest parts of the woods, being not less apprehensive of the buck, from whom she then separates, than of the wolf, the wild cat, and almost every ravenous animal of the forest; she generally produces two at a time, and three but very rarely. In about ten or twelve days these are able to follow their dam, except in cases of warm pursuit, when their strength is not equal to the fatigue. Upon such occasions the tenderness of the dam is very extraordinary; leaving them in the deepest thickets, she offers herself to the danger, flies before the hounds, and does all in her power to lead them from the retreat where she has lodged her little ones. Such animals as are nearly upon her own level she boldly encounters; attacks the stag, the wild cat, and even the wolf; and while she has life continues her efforts to protect her young. Yet all her endeavours are often vain; about the month of May, which is her fawning time, there is a greater destruction among those animals than at any other season of the year. Numbers of fawns are taken alive by the peasants; numbers are found out and worried by the dogs; and still more by the wolf, which has always been their most inveterate enemy. By these continual depredations upon this beautiful creature the roebuck is every day becoming scarcer; and the whole race in many countries is wholly worn out. They were once common in England; the huntsmen, who characterised only such beasts as they knew, have given names to the different kinds and ages as to the stag: thus they call it the first year the hind, the second a gyrlie, and the third a hemuse; but these names

at present are utterly useless, since the animal no longer exists among us. Even in France, where it was once extremely common, it is now confined to a few provinces; and it is probable that in an age or two the whole breed will be utterly extirpated. Mr. Buffon, indeed, observed that in those districts where it is mostly found it seems to maintain its usual plenty, and that the balance between its destruction and increase is held pretty even; however, the number in general is known to decrease; for wherever cultivation takes place the beasts of Nature are known to retire. Many animals that once flourished in the world may now be extinct; and the descriptions of Aristotle and Pliny, though taken from life, may be considered as fabulous, as their archetypes are no longer existing.

The fawns continue to follow the deer eight or nine months in all; and upon separating their horns begin to appear—simple and without antlers the first year, as in those of the stag kind. These they shed at the latter end of autumn, and renew during the winter—differing in this from the stag, who sheds them in spring and renews them in summer. When the roebuck's head is completely furnished it rubs its horns against trees in the manner of the stag, and thus strips them of the rough skin and the blood-vessels, which no longer contribute to their nourishment and growth. When these fall and new ones begin to appear, the roebuck does not retire like the stag to the covert of the wood, but continues its usual haunts, only keeping down its head to avoid striking its horns against the branches of trees, the pain of which it seems to feel with exquisite sensibility. The stag, who sheds his horns in summer, is obliged to seek a retreat from the flies, which at that time greatly incommode him; but the roebuck, who sheds them in winter, is under no such necessity, and consequently does not separate from his little family, but keeps with the female all the year round.

As the growth of the roebuck and its arrival at maturity are much speedier than that of the stag, so its life is proportionably shorter. It seldom is found to extend above twelve or fifteen years; and if kept tame it does not live above six or seven. It is an animal of a very delicate constitution, requiring variety of food, air, and exercise. It must be paired with a female, and kept in a park of at least a hundred acres. They may easily be subdued, but never thoroughly tamed. No arts can teach them to be on familiar terms with the feeder, much less attached to him. They still preserve a part of their natural wildness, and are subject to terrors without a cause. They sometimes, in attempting to escape, strike themselves with such force against the walls of their inclosure, that they break their limbs and become quite disabled. Whatever care is taken to tame them they are never entirely to be relied on, as they have capricious fits of fierceness, and sometimes strike at those they dislike with a degree of force that is very dangerous.

The cry of the roebuck is neither so loud nor so frequent as that of the stag. The young ones have a particular manner of calling to the dam, which the hunters easily imitate, and often thus allure the female to her destruction. On some occasions, also, they become in a manner intoxicated with their food, which during the spring is said to ferment in their stomachs, and they are then very easily taken. In summer they keep close under covert of the forest, and seldom venture out, except in violent heats, to drink at some river or fountain. In general, however, they are contented to slake their thirst with the dew that falls on the grass and on the leaves of trees, and seldom risk their safety to satisfy their appetite. They delight chiefly in hilly grounds, preferring the tender branches and buds of trees to corn or other vegetables; and it is universally allowed that the flesh of those between one and two years old is the greatest delicacy known. Perhaps its scarceness also enhances its flavour.

In America this animal is much more common than in Europe. With us there are but two known varieties—the red, which is the largest sort; and the brown, with a spot behind, which is less. But in the new continent the breed is extremely numerous, and the varieties in equal proportion. In Louisiana, where they are extremely common, they are much larger than in Europe, and the inhabitants live in a great measure upon its flesh, which tastes like mutton when well fattened. They are also found in Brazil, where they have the name of “cugacu apara,” only differing from ours in some slight deviations in the horns. This animal is also said to be common in China, although such as have described it seem to confound it with the musk goat, which is quite of a different nature.

THE ELK.—We have hitherto been describing minute animals in comparison of the elk—the size of which, from concurrent testimony, appears to equal that of the elephant itself. It is an animal rather of the buck than the stag kind, as its horns are flatted towards the top; but it is far beyond both in stature, some of them being known to be above ten feet high. It is a native both of the old and new continent, being known in Europe under the name of the “elk,” and in America by that of the “moose-deer.” It is sometimes taken in the German and Russian forests, although seldom appearing; but it is extremely common in North America, where the natives pursue and track it in the snow. The accounts of this animal are extremely various—some describing it as being no higher than a horse, and others about twelve feet high.

As the stature of this creature makes its chief peculiarity, so it were to be wished that we could come to some precision upon that head. If we were to judge of its size by the horns, which are sometimes fortuitously dug up in many parts of Ireland, we should not be much amiss in ascribing them to an animal ten feet high. One of these I have seen, which was ten feet nine inches from one tip to the other. From such dimensions it is easy to perceive that it required an animal far beyond the size of a horse to support them. To bear a head with such extensive and heavy antlers required no small degree of strength; and without all doubt the bulk of the body must have been proportionable to the size of the horns. I remember some years ago to have seen a small moose-deer, which was brought from America by a gentleman of Ireland; it was about the size of a horse, and the horns were very little larger than those of a common stag: this, therefore, serves to prove that the horns bear an exact proportion to the animal's size; the small elk has but small horns; whereas those enormous ones which we have described above must have belonged to a proportionable creature. In all the more noble animals Nature observes a perfect symmetry; and it is not to be supposed she fails in this single instance. We have no reason, therefore, to doubt the accounts of Jocelyn and Dudley, who affirm that they have been found fourteen spans, which, at nine inches to a span, makes the animal almost eleven feet high. Others have extended their accounts to twelve and fourteen feet, which makes this creature one of the most formidable of the forest.

There is but very little difference between the European elk and the American moose-deer, as they are but varieties of the same animal. It may be rather larger in America than with us; as in the forests of that unpeopled country it receives less disturbance than in our own. In all places, however, it is timorous and gentle—content with its pasture, and never willing to disturb any other animal when supplied itself. The European elk grows to above seven or eight feet high. In the year 1742 there was a female of this animal shown at Paris, which was caught in a forest of Red Russia, belonging to the Cham of Tartary; it was then but young, and its height was even at that time six feet seven inches; but the describer

observes that it has since become much taller and thicker, so that we may suppose this female at least seven feet high. There have been no late opportunities of seeing the male; but, by the rule of proportion, we may estimate his size at eight or nine feet at the least, which is about twice as high as an ordinary horse. The height, however, of this female which was measured was but six feet seven inches Paris measure, or almost seven English feet high. It was ten feet from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail, and eight feet round the body. The hair was very long and coarse, like that of a wild boar. The ears resembled those of a mule, and were a foot and a half long. The upper jaw was longer by six inches than the lower; and, like other ruminating animals, it had no teeth (cutting teeth, I suppose the describer means). It had a large beard under the throat, like a goat; and in the middle of the forehead, between the horns, there was a bone as large as an egg. The nostrils were four inches long on each side of the mouth. It made use of its fore-feet as a defence against its enemies. Those who showed it asserted that it ran with astonishing swiftness, and that it swam with equal expedition, and was very fond of the water. They gave it thirty pounds of bread every day, besides hay, and it drank eight buckets of water. It was tame and familiar, and submissive enough to its keeper.

This description differs in many circumstances from that which we have of the moose or American elk, which the French call the original. Of these there are two kinds—the common light grey moose, which is not very large; and the black moose, which grows to an enormous height. Mr. Dudley observes that a doe or hind of the black moose kind of the fourth year wanted but an inch of being seven feet high. All, however, of both kinds have flat palmed horns, not unlike the fallow-deer, only that the palm is much larger, having a short trunk at the head, and then immediately spreading above a foot broad, with a kind of small antlers like teeth on one of the edges. In this particular all of the elk kind agree, as well the European elk as the grey and the black moose-deer.

The grey moose deer is about the size of a horse, and although it has large buttocks its tail is not more than an inch long. As in all of this kind the upper lip is much longer than the under, it is said that they continue to go back as they feed. Their nostrils are so large that a man may thrust his hand in a considerable way; and their horns are as long as those of a stag, but, as was observed, much broader.

The black moose is the enormous animal mentioned above, from eight to twelve feet high. Jocelyn, who is the first English writer that mentions it, says that it is a goodly creature twelve feet high, with exceeding fair horns, which have broad palms, two fathoms from the top of one horn to another. He assures us that it is a creature, or rather a monster, of superfluity, and many times bigger than an English ox. This account is confirmed by Dudley; but he does not give so great an expansion to the horns, measuring them only thirty-one inches between one tip and the other: however, that such an extraordinary animal as Jocelyn describes has actually existed we can make no manner of doubt, since there are horns common enough to be seen among us twelve feet from one tip to the other.

These animals delight in cold countries, feeding upon grass in summer and the bark of trees in winter. When the whole country is deeply covered with snow the moose-deer herd together under the tall pine-trees, strip off the bark, and remain in that part of the forest while it yields them subsistence. It is at that time that the natives prepare to hunt them, particularly when the sun begins to melt the snow by day, which is frozen again at night; for then the icy crust which covers the surface of the snow is too weak to support so great a bulk, and only retards the animal's motion. When the Indians,

therefore, perceive a herd of these at a distance they immediately prepare for pursuit—which is not, as with us, the sport of an hour, but is attended with toil, difficulty, and danger. The timorous animal no sooner observes its enemies approach than it immediately endeavours to escape, but sinks at every step it takes. Still, however, it pursues its way through a thousand obstacles; the snow, which is usually four feet deep, yields to its weight and embarrasses its speed; the sharp ice wounds its feet; and its lofty horns are entangled in the branches of the forest as it passes along. The trees, however, are broken down with ease; and wherever the moose-deer runs it is perceived by the snapping off the branches of the trees, as thick as a man's thigh, with its horns. The chase lasts in this manner for the whole day, and sometimes it has been known to continue for two or three days together—for the pursuers are often not less excited by famine than the pursued by fear. Their perseverance, however, generally succeeds; and the Indian who first comes near enough darts his lance with unerring aim, which sticks in the poor animal, and at first increases its efforts to escape. In this manner the moose trots heavily on (for that is its usual pace) until its pursuers come up and repeat the blow: upon this it again summons up sufficient vigour to get ahead; but at last, quite tired and spent with loss of blood, it sinks (as the describer expresses it) like a ruined building, making the earth shake beneath its fall.

This animal when killed is a valuable acquisition to the hunters. The flesh is exceedingly well tasted, and is said to be very nourishing. The hide is strong, and so thick that it has been often known to turn a musket-ball; however, it is soft and pliable, and when tanned, the leather is extremely light, yet very lasting. The fur is a light grey in some and blackish in others; and through a microscope appears spongy like a bulrush, and is smaller at the roots and points than in the middle; for this reason it lies very flat and smooth, and, though beaten or abused never so much, it always returns to its former state. The horns are not less useful, being applied to all the purposes for which hartshorn is beneficial: these are different in different animals; in some they resemble those of the European elk, which spread into a broad palm, with small antlers on one of the edges; in others they have a branched brow antler between the bur and the palm, which the German elk has not: and in this they entirely agree with those whose horns are so frequently dug up in Ireland. This animal is said to be troubled with the epilepsy, as it is often found to fall down when pursued, and thus becomes an easier prey; for this reason—an imaginary virtue has been ascribed to the hinder hoof, which some have supposed to be a specific against all epileptic disorders. This, however, may be considered as a vulgar error; as well as that of its curing itself of this disorder by applying the hinder hoof behind the ear. After all, this animal is but very indifferently and confusedly described by travellers—each mixing his account with something false or trivial; often mistaking some other animal for the elk, and confounding its history. Thus some have mistaken it for the rein-deer, which in everything but size it greatly resembles; some have supposed it to be the same with the tapurette, from which it entirely differs; some have described it as the common red American stag, which scarcely differs from our own; and, lastly, some have confounded it with the bubalus, which is more properly a gazelle of Africa.

THE REIN-DEER.—Of all animals of the deer kind the rein-deer is the most extraordinary and the most useful. It is a native of the icy regions of the north; and though many attempts have been made to acustom it to a more southern climate, it shortly feels the influence of the change, and in a few months declines and dies. Nature seems to have fitted it entirely to answer the necessities

of that hardy race of mankind that live near the pole. As these would find it impossible to subsist among their barren snowy mountains without its aid, so this animal can live only there, where its assistance is most absolutely necessary. From it alone the natives of Lapland and Greenland supply most of their wants; it answers the purposes of a horse to convey them and their scanty furniture from one mountain to another; it answers the purposes of a cow in giving milk; and it answers the purposes of the sheep in furnishing them with a warm though a homely kind of clothing. From this quadruped alone, therefore, they receive as many advantages as we derive from three of our most useful creatures; so that Providence does not leave these poor outcasts entirely destitute, but gives them a faithful domestic, more patient and serviceable than any other in Nature.

The rein-deer resembles the American elk in the fashion of its horns. It is not easy in words to describe these minute differences; nor will the reader, perhaps, have a distinct idea of the similitude when told that both have brow-antlers, very large, and hanging over their eyes, palmated towards the top, and bending forward like a bow. But here the similitude between these two animals ends; for, as the elk is much larger than the stag, so the rein-deer is much smaller. It is lower and stronger built than the stag; its legs are shorter and thicker, and its hoofs much broader than in that animal; its hair is much thicker and warmer, its horns much larger in proportion, and branching forward over its eyes; its ears are much larger; its pace is rather a trot than bounding, and this it can continue for a whole day; its hoofs are cloven and moveable, so that it spreads them abroad as it goes to prevent its sinking in the snow. When it proceeds on a journey it lays its great horns on its back, while there are two branches which always hang over its forehead and almost cover its face. One thing seems peculiar to this animal and the elk—which is, that as they move along their hoofs are heard to crack with a pretty loud noise. This arises from their manner of treading; for as they rest upon their cloven hoof it spreads on the ground, and the two divisions separate from each other, but when they lift it the divisions close again, and strike against each other with a crack. The female, also, of the rein-deer has horns as well as the male, by which the species is distinguished from all other animals of the deer kind whatsoever.

When the rein-deer first shed their coat of hair they are brown; but in proportion as summer approaches their hair begins to grow whitish, until at last they are nearly grey. They are, however, always black about the eyes. The neck has long hair, hanging down, and coarser than upon any other part of the body; the feet at the insertion of the hoof are surrounded with a ring of white; the hair in general stands so thick over the whole body, that if one should attempt to separate it the skin will nowhere appear uncovered: whenever it falls, also, it is not seen to drop from the root, as in other quadrupeds, but seems broken short near the bottom; so that the lower part of the hair is seen growing while the upper part falls away. The horns of the female are made like those of the male, except that they are smaller and less branching. As in the rest of the deer kind they sprout from the points; and in the beginning they are furnished with a hairy crust, which supports the blood-vessels, of most exquisite sensibility. The rein-deer shed their horns after rutting time, at the latter end of November; and they are not completely furnished again till towards autumn. The female always retains hers till she brings forth, and then sheds them about the beginning of November. If she be barren, however (which is not unfrequently the case), she does not shed them while winter. The castration of the rein-deer does not prevent the shedding of their horns; those which are the strongest cast them early in winter—those which are most weakly not so soon. Thus,

from all these circumstances we see how greatly this animal differs from the common stag. The female of the rein-deer has horns, which the hind is never seen to have; the rein-deer when castrated renews its horns, which we are assured the stag never does. It differs not less in its habits and manner of living, being tame, submissive, and patient; while the stag is wild, capricious, and unmanageable.

The rein-deer, as was said, is naturally an inhabitant of the countries bordering on the arctic circle. It is not unknown to the natives of Siberia. The North Americans also hunt it under the name of the "caribou." But in Lapland this animal is appropriated to the most advantage; and some herdsmen of that country are known to possess above a thousand in a single herd.

Lapland is divided into two districts—the mountainous and the woody. The mountainous part of the country is at best barren and bleak, excessively cold, and uninhabitable during the winter; still, however, it is the most desirable part of this frightful region, and is most thickly peopled during the summer. The natives generally reside on the declivity of the mountains, three or four cottages together, and lead a cheerful and social life. On the approach of winter they are obliged to migrate into the plains below, each bringing down his whole herd, which often amounts to more than a thousand, and leading them where the pasture is in greatest plenty. The woody part of the country is much more desolate and hideous: the whole face of Nature there presents a frightful scene of trees without fruit and plains without verdure. As far as the eye can reach nothing is to be seen, even in the midst of summer, but barren fields, covered only with a moss almost as white as snow; no grass, no flowery landscapes—only here and there a pine-tree, which may have escaped the frequent conflagrations by which the natives burn down their forests. But what is more extraordinary, as the whole surface of the country is clothed in white, so on the contrary the forests seem to the last degree dark and gloomy. While one kind of moss makes the fields look as if they were covered with snow, another kind blackens over all their trees, and even hides their verdure. This moss, however, which darkens the country serves for its only support, as upon it alone the rein-deer can subsist. The inhabitants (who, during the summer, live among the mountains) drive down their herds in winter, and people the plains and woods below. Such of the Laplanders as inhabit the woods and plains throughout the year live remote from each other, and, having been used to solitude, are melancholy, ignorant, and helpless. They are much poorer, also, than the mountaineers; for while one of those is found to possess a thousand rein-deer at a time, none of these are ever known to rear the tenth part of that number. The rein-deer makes the riches of this people; and the cold mountainous parts of the country agree best with its constitution. It is for this reason, therefore, that the mountains of Lapland are preferred to the woods, and that many claim an exclusive right to the tops of hills covered in almost snow. As soon as the summer begins to appear the Laplander, who had fed his rein-deer upon the lower grounds during the winter, then drives them up to the mountains, and leaves the woody country and the low pasture, which at that season are truly deplorable. The gnats, bred by the sun's heat in the marshy bottoms and the weedy lakes with which the country abounds more than any other part of the world, are all upon the wing and fill the whole air, like clouds of dust in a dry windy day. The inhabitants at that time are obliged to daub their faces with pitch, mixed with milk, to shield their skins from their depredations. All places are then so greatly infested that the poor natives can scarce open their mouths without fear of suffocation; the insects enter, from their numbers and minuteness, into the nostrils and the eyes, and do not leave the sufferer a

moment at his ease. But they are chiefly enemies to the rein-deer: the horns of that animal being then in their tender state, and possessed of extreme sensibility, a famished cloud of insects instantly settle upon them, and drive the poor animal almost to distraction. In this extremity there are but two remedies, to which the quadruped as well as its master are obliged to have recourse. The one is, for both to take shelter near their cottage, where a large fire of tree-moss is prepared, which, filling the whole place with smoke, keeps off the gnat, and thus by one inconvenience expels a greater; the other is, to ascend to the highest summit of the mountains, where the air is too thin and the weather too cold for the gnats to come. There the rein-deer are seen to continue the whole day, although without food, rather than venture down to the lower parts, where they can have no defence against their unceasing persecutors. Besides the gnat, there is also a gadfly, that during the summer season is no less formidable to them. This insect is bred under their skins, where the egg has been deposited the preceding summer: and it is no sooner produced as a fly than it again endeavours to deposit its eggs in some place similar to that from whence it came. Whenever, therefore, it appears flying over a herd of rein-deer, it puts the whole body, how numerous soever, into motion; they know their enemy, and do all they can, by tossing their horns and running among each other, to terrify or avoid it. All their endeavours, however, are too generally without effect; the gadfly is seen to deposit its eggs, which, burrowing under the skin, wound it in several places, and often bring on an incurable disorder. In the morning, therefore, as soon as the Lapland herdsman drives his deer to pasture, his greatest care is to keep them from scaling the summits of the mountains where there is no food, but where they go merely to be at ease from the gnats and gadflies that are ever annoying them. At this time there is a strong contest between the dogs and the deer—the one endeavouring to climb up against the side of the hill, and to gain those summits that are covered in eternal snows; the other forcing them down by barking and threatening, and, in a manner, compelling them to go to the places where their food is in the greatest plenty. There the men and dogs confine them—guarding them with the utmost precaution the whole day, and driving them home at the proper seasons for milking.

The female brings forth in the middle of May, and gives milk till about the middle of October. Every morning and evening during the summer the herdsman returns to the cottage with his deer to be milked, where the women previously have kindled up a smoky fire, which effectually drives off the gnats, and keeps the rein-deer quiet while milking. The female furnishes about a pint, which, though thinner than that of the cow, is, nevertheless, sweeter and more nourishing. This done, the herdsman drives them back to pasture—as he neither folds nor houses them, neither provides for their subsistence during the winter, nor improves their pasture by cultivation.

On the return of winter, when the gnats and flies are no longer to be feared, the Laplander descends into the lower grounds; and, as there are but few to dispute the possession of that desolate country, he has an extensive range to feed them in. Their chief and almost their only food at that time is the white moss already mentioned; which, from its being fed upon by this animal, obtains the name of the "*lichen rangiferinus*." This is of two kinds—the woody lichen, which covers almost all the desert parts of the country like snow; the other is black, and covers the branches of the trees in very great quantities. However unpleasing these may be to the spectator, the native esteems them as one of his choicest benefits and the most indulgent gift of Nature. While his fields are clothed with moss he envies neither the fertility nor the verdure of the more southern landscape;

dressed up warmly in his deer-skin clothes, with shoes and gloves of the same materials, he drives his herds along the desert, fearless and at ease, ignorant of any higher luxury than what their milk and smoke-dried flesh affords him. Hardened to the climate, he sleeps in the midst of ice; or, awaking, dozes away his time with tobacco; while his faithful dogs supply his place and keep the herd from wandering. The deer in the meantime, with instincts adapted to the soil, pursue their food, though covered in the deepest snow. They turn it up with their noses like swine; and, even though its surface be frozen and stiff, yet the hide is so hardened in that part that they easily overcome the difficulty. It sometimes, however, happens, though but rarely, that the winter commences with rain, and a frost ensuing, covers the whole country with a glazed crust of ice. Then, indeed, both the rein-deer and the Laplander are undone; they have no provisions laid up in case of accident, and the only resource is to cut down the large pine-trees that are covered with moss, which furnish but a scanty supply; so that the greatest part of the herd is then seen to perish without a possibility of assistance. It sometimes also happens that even this supply is wanting; for the Laplander often burns down his woods in order to improve and fertilise the soil which produces the moss upon which he feeds his cattle.

In this manner the pastoral life is still continued near the pole; neither the coldness of the winter nor the length of the nights—neither the wildness of the forest nor the vagrant disposition of the herd, interrupt the even tenor of the Laplander's life. By night and day he is seen attending his favourite cattle, and remains unaffected in a season which would be speedy death to those bred up in a milder climate. He gives himself no uneasiness to house his herds, or to provide a winter subsistence for them; he is at the trouble neither of manuring his grounds nor bringing in his harvests; he is not the hireling of another's luxury;—all his labours are to obviate the necessities of his own situation; and these he undergoes with cheerfulness, as he is sure to enjoy the fruits of his own industry. If, therefore, we compare the Laplander with the peasant of more southern climates, we shall have little reason to pity his situation; the climate in which he lives is rather terrible to us than to him; and as for the rest, he is blessed with liberty, plenty, and ease. The rein-deer alone supplies him with all the wants of life and some of the conveniences—serving to show how many advantages Nature is capable of supplying when Necessity gives the call. Thus the poor, little, helpless native, who was originally, perhaps, driven by fear or famine into those inhospitable climates, would seem at first view to be the most wretched of mankind; but it is far otherwise; he looks round among the few wild animals that his barren country can maintain, and singles out one from among them, and that of a kind which the rest of mankind have not thought worth taking from a state of nature; this he cultivates, propagates, and multiplies, and from this alone derives every comfort that can soften the severity of his situation.

The rein-deer of this country are of two kinds—the wild and the tame. The wild are larger and stronger, but more mischievous than the others. Their breed, however, is preferred to that of the tame; and the female of the latter is often sent into the woods, from whence she returns home impregnated by one of the wild kind. These are fitter for drawing the sledge, to which the Laplander accustoms them betimes, and yokes them to it by a strap, which goes round the neck, and comes down between their legs. The sledge is exceedingly light, and shod at the bottom with the skin of a young deer, the hair turned to slide on the frozen snow. The paces, who sits on this guides the animal with a cord fastened round the horns, encouraging it to proceed with his voice and driving it with a goad. Some of the wild breed, though by far the strongest, are yet very

refractory, and often turn upon their drivers—who have then no other resource but to cover themselves with their sledge, and let the animal vent its fury upon that. But it is otherwise with those that are tame; no creature can be more active, patient, and willing. When hard pushed they will trot nine or ten Swedish (or between fifty and sixty English) miles at one stretch; but in such a case the poor obedient creature fatigues itself to death, and, if not prevented by the Laplander, who kills it immediately, it would die in a day or two after. In general they can go about thirty miles without halting, and this without any great or dangerous efforts. This, which is the only manner of travelling in that country, can be performed only in winter, when the snow is glazed over with ice; and although it is a very speedy method of conveyance, yet it is inconvenient, dangerous, and troublesome.

In order to make these animals more obedient and more generally serviceable, they castrate them. This operation the Laplanders perform with their teeth; these become sooner fat when taken from labour, and they are found to be stronger when drawing the sledge. They usually leave one entire male to every six females; these are in rut from the Feast of St. Matthew to about Michaelmas. At this time their horns are thoroughly burnished, and their battles among each other are fierce and obstinate. The females do not begin to breed till they are two years old; and then they continue regularly breeding every year until they are superannuated. They go with young above eight months, and generally bring forth two at a time. The fondness of the dam for her young is very remarkable; it often happens that when they are separated from her she will return from pasture, keep calling round the cottage for them, and will not desist until, dead or alive, they are brought and laid at her feet. They are at first of a light brown; but they become darker with age, and at last the old ones are of a brown almost approaching to blackness. The young follow the dam for two or three years; but they do not acquire their full growth until four. They are then broke in, and managed for drawing the sledge; and they continue serviceable for four or five years longer. They never live above fifteen or sixteen years; and when they arrive at the proper age the Laplander generally kills them for the sake of their skins and their flesh. This he performs by striking them on the back of the neck with his knife into the spinal marrow; upon which they instantly fall, and he then cuts the arteries that lead to the heart, and lets the blood discharge itself into the cavity of the breast.

There is scarce any part of this animal that is not converted to its peculiar uses. As soon as it begins to grow old, and some time before the rut, it is killed, and the flesh dried in the air. It is also sometimes dried and hardened with smoke, and laid up for travelling provision when the natives migrate from one part of the country to another. During the winter the rein-deer are slaughtered as are sheep with us; and every four persons in a family are allowed one rein-deer for their week's subsistence. In spring they spare the herd as much as they can, and live upon fresh fish. In summer the milk and curd of the rein-deer makes their chief provision; and in autumn they live wholly upon fowls, which they kill with a cross-bow or catch in springes. Nor is this so scanty an allowance, since at that time the sea-fowls come in such abundance that their ponds and springs are covered over. These are not so shy as with us, but yield themselves an easy prey. They are chiefly allured to these places by the swarms of gulls which infest the country during summer, and now repay the former inconveniences, by inviting such numbers of birds as supply the natives with food a fourth part of the year.

The milk when newly taken is warmed in a cauldron and thickened with rennet; and then the curd is pressed

into cheese, which are small and well tasted. These are never found to breed mites, as is the case with cheese of other countries—probably because the mite-fly is not to be found in Lapland. The whey which remains is warmed up again, and becomes of a consistence as if thickened with the white of an egg. Upon this the Laplanders feed during the summer: it is pleasant and well tasted, but not very nourishing. As to butter, they seldom make any, because the milk affords but a very small quantity, and this both in taste and consistence more nearly resembles suet. They never keep their milk till it turns sour, and do not dress it into the different sorts of dishes which the more southern countries are known to do. The only delicacy they make from it is with wood-sorrel, which, being boiled up with it and then left to coagulate, the whole is put into casks or deer-skins, and kept under ground to be consumed in winter.

The skin is even a more valuable part of this animal than either of the former. From that part of it which covered the head and feet they make their strong snow-shoes, with the hair on the outside. Of the other parts they compose their garments, which are extremely warm, and which cover them all over. The hair of these also is on the outside; and they sometimes line them with the fur of the glutton, or some other warm-furred animal of that climate. These skins also serve them for beds. They spread them on each side of the fire, upon some leaves of the dwarf birch-tree, and in this manner lie both soft and warm. Many garments made of the skin of the rein-deer are sold every year to the inhabitants of the more southern parts of Europe; and they are found so serviceable in keeping out the cold, that even people of the first rank are known to wear them.

In short, no part of this animal is thrown away as useless. The blood is preserved in small casks, to make sauce with the marrow in spring; the horns are sold to be converted into glue; the sinews are dried, and divided so as to make the strongest kind of sewing thread, not unlike catgut; the tongues, which are considered as a great delicacy, are dried, and sold into the more southern provinces; the intestines themselves are washed like our tripe, and in high esteem among the natives. Thus the Laplander finds all his necessities amply supplied from this single animal; and he who has a large herd of these animals has no idea of higher luxury.

But although the rein-deer be a very hardy and vigorous animal, it is not without its diseases. I have already mentioned the pain it feels from the gnat, and the apprehensions it is under from the gadfly. Its hide is often found pierced in a hundred places like a sieve from this insect, and not a few die in their third year from this very cause. Their teats, also, are subject to cracking, so that blood comes instead of milk. They sometimes take a loathing for their food; and, instead of eating, stand still and chew the cud. They are also troubled with a vertigo, like the elk, and turn round often till they die. The Laplander judges of their state by the manner of their turning: if they turn to the right, he judges their disorder but slight; if they turn to the left, he deems it incurable. The rein-deer are also subject to ulcers near the hoof, which unqualifies them for travelling or keeping with the herd. But the most fatal disorder of all is that which the natives call the "sud-staka," which attacks this animal at all seasons of the year. The instant it is seized with this disease it begins to breathe with great difficulty; its eyes begin to stare and its nostrils to expand. It acquires also an unusual degree of ferocity, and attacks all it meets indiscriminately. Still, however, it continues to feed as if in health, but is not seen to chew the cud, and it lies down more frequently than before. In this manner it continues, every day consuming and growing more lean, till at last

it dies from mere inanition; and not one of these that are attacked with this disorder are ever found to recover. Notwithstanding, it is but very lately known in that part of the world; although, during the last ten or fifteen years it has spoiled whole provinces of this necessary creature. It is contagious: and the moment the Laplander perceives any of his herd infected he hastens to kill them immediately before it spreads any farther. When examined internally, there is a frothy substance found in the brain and round the lungs; the intestines are lax and flabby, and the spleen is diminished almost to nothing. The Laplander's only cure in all these disorders is to anoint the animal's back with tar; if this does not succeed, he considers the disease as beyond the power of art; and, with his natural phlegm, submits to the severities of Fortune.

Besides the internal maladies of this animal, there are some external enemies which it has to fear. The bears now and then make depredations upon the herd; but of all their persecutors, that ravenous creature called the "glutton" is the most dangerous and the most successful. The war between these is carried on not less in Lapland than in North America, where the rein-deer is called the "caribou," and the glutton the "carcajon." This animal, which is not above the size of the badger, waits whole weeks together for its prey, concealed in the branches of some spreading tree; and when the wild rein-deer passes underneath it suddenly drops down upon it, fixing its teeth and claws into the neck immediately behind the horns. It is in vain that the wounded animal then flies for protection—that it rustles among the branches of the forest; the glutton still holds its former position, and, although it often loses a part of its skin and flesh, which are rubbed off against the trees, yet it still keeps fast, until its victim drops with fatigue and loss of blood. The deer has but one only method of escape, which is by jumping into the water. That element its enemy cannot endure; for, as we are told, it quits its hold immediately, and then thinks only of providing for its own personal security.

QUADRUPEDS OF THE HOG KIND.

BOOK III.—CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.—Animals of the hog kind seem to unite in themselves all those distinctions by which others are separated. They resemble those of the horse kind in the number of their teeth (which in all amount to forty-four), in the length of their head, and in having but a single stomach. They resemble the cow kind in their cloven hoofs and the position of their intestines; and they resemble those of the claw-footed kind in their appetite for flesh, in their not chewing the cud, and in their numerous progeny. Thus this species serves to fill up that chasm which is found between the carnivorous kinds and those that live upon grass—being possessed of the ravenous appetite of the one and the inoffensive nature of the other. We may consider them, therefore, as of a middle nature, which we can refer neither to the rapacious nor the peaceful kinds, and yet partaking somewhat of the nature of both. Like the rapacious kinds, they are found to have short intestines; their hoofs, also, though cloven to the sight, will, upon anatomical inspection, appear to be supplied with bones like those of prey; and the number of their teats also increase the similitude; on the other hand, in a natural state they live upon vegetables, and seldom seek after animal food except when urged by necessity. They offend no other animal of the forest, at the same time they are furnished with arms to terrify the bravest.

THE WILD BOAR.—This is the original of the many varieties we find in this creature, and is by no means so stupid nor so filthy an animal as that we have reduced to tameness; he is much smaller than the tame hog, and does not vary in his colour as those of the domestic kind do, but is always found of an iron grey, inclining to black; his snout is much longer than that of the tame hog, and the ears are shorter, rounder, and black; of which colour are also the feet and the tail. He roots the ground in a different manner from the common hog; for as this turns up the earth in little spots here and there, so the wild boar ploughs it up like a furrow, and does irreparable damage in the cultivated lands of the farmer. The tusks, also, of this animal are larger than in the tame breed, some of them being seen almost a foot long. These, as is well known, grow from both the under and upper jaw, bent upwards circularly, and are exceedingly sharp at the points. They differ from the tusks of the elephant in this, that they never fall; and it is remarkable of all the hog kind that they never shed their teeth as other animals are seen to do. The tusks of the lower jaw are always most to be dreaded, and are found to give very terrible wounds.

The wild boar can properly be called neither a solitary nor a gregarious animal. The three first years the whole litter follows the sow, and the family lives in a herd together. They are then called beasts of company, and unite their common forces against the invasions of the wolf or the more formidable beasts of prey. Upon this their principal safety while young depends, for when attacked they give each other mutual assistance, calling to each other with a very loud and fierce note; the strongest face the danger; they form a ring, and the weakest fall into the centre. In this position few ravenous beasts dare venture to attack them, but pursue the chase where there is less resistance and danger. However, when the wild boar is come to a state of maturity, and when conscious of his own superior strength, he then walks the forest alone and fearless. At that time he dreads no single creature, nor does he turn out of his way even for man himself. He does not seek danger, and he does not much seem to avoid it.

This animal is therefore seldom attacked but at a disadvantage, either by numbers or when sound sleeping by moonlight. The hunting the wild boar is one of the principal amusements of the nobility in those countries where it is to be found. The dogs provided for this sport are of the slow, heavy kind. Those used for hunting the stag or the roebuck would be very improper, as they would too soon come up with their prey, and, instead of a chase, would only furnish out an engagement. A small mastiff is therefore chosen; nor are the hunters much mindful of the goodness of their nose, as the wild boar leaves so strong a scent that it is impossible for them to mistake its course. They never hunt any but the largest and the oldest, which are known by their tracks. When the boar is "reared," as is the expression for driving him from his covert, he goes slowly and uniformly forward, not much afraid, nor very far before his pursuers. At the end of every half mile or thereabouts he turns round, stops till the hounds come up, and offers to attack them. These, on the other hand, knowing their danger, keep off, and bay him at a distance. After they have for a while gazed upon each other with mutual animosity, the boar again slowly goes on his course and the dogs renew their pursuit. In this manner the chase is sustained, and the chase continues till the boar is quite tired and refuses to go any farther. The dogs then attempt to close in upon him from behind; those which are young, fierce, and unaccustomed to the chase, are generally the foremost, and often lose their lives by their ardour. Those which are older and better trained are content to wait until the hunters come up, who strike at him with their spears, and, after several blows, despatch or disable him. The instant the animal is killed they

cut off the testicles, which would otherwise give a taint to the flesh; and the huntsmen celebrate their victory with their horns.

THE HOG, in a natural state, is found to feed chiefly upon roots and vegetables; it seldom attacks any other animal, being content with such provisions as it procures without danger. Whatever animal happens to die in the forest, or is so wounded that it can make no resistance, becomes a prey to the hog, who seldom refuses animal food, how putrid soever, although it is never at the pains of taking or procuring it alive. For this reason it seems a glutton rather by accident than choice, content with vegetable food, and only devouring flesh when pressed by necessity and when it happens to offer. Indeed, if we behold the hog in its domestic state it is the most sordid and brutal animal in Nature. The awkwardness of its form seems to influence its appetites, and all its sensations are as gross as its shapes are unsightly. It seems possessed only of an insatiable desire of eating, and seems to make choice only of what other animals find the most offensive. But we ought to consider that the hog with us is in an unnatural state, and that it is compelled to feed in this filthy manner from wanting that proper nourishment which it finds in the forest. When in a state of wildness it is of all other quadrupeds the most delicate in the choice of what vegetables it shall feed on, and rejects a greater number than any of the rest. The cow, for instance, as we are assured by Linnaeus, eats two hundred and seventy-six plants, and rejects two hundred and eighteen; the goat eats four hundred and forty-nine, and rejects a hundred and twenty-six; the sheep eats three hundred and eighty-seven, and rejects a hundred and forty-one; the horse eats two hundred and sixty-two, and rejects two hundred and twelve; but the hog, more nice in its provision than any of the former, eats but seventy-two plants, and rejects a hundred and seventy-one. The indelicacy of this animal is, therefore, rather in our apprehensions than in its nature, since we find it makes a very distinguishing choice in the quality of its food; and if it does not reject animal putrefaction, it may be because it is abridged in that food which is most wholesome and agreeable to it in a state of nature. This is certain, that its palate is not insensible to the difference of eatables; for where it finds variety it will reject the worst with as distinguishing a taste as any other quadruped whatsoever. In the orchards of peach-trees in North America, where the hog has plenty of delicious food, it is observed that it will reject the fruit that has lain but a few hours on the ground, and continue on the watch whole hours together for a fresh supply.

However, the hog is naturally formed in a more imperfect manner than the other animals that we have rendered domestic around us—less active in its motions, less furnished with instinct in knowing what to pursue or avoid. Without attachment, and incapable of instruction, it continues while it lives an useless, or rather a rapacious dependent. The coarseness of its skin and the thickness of its hide, together with the thick coat of fat which lies immediately under the skin, render it insensible to blows or rough usage. Mice have been known to burrow in the back of these animals while fattening in the sty, without their seeming to perceive it. Their other senses seem to be in tolerable perfection; they scent the hounds at a distance; and, as we have seen, they are not insensible in the choice of their provisions.

The hog is by nature stupid, inactive, and drowsy; if undisturbed it would sleep half its time; but it is frequently awaked by the calls of appetite, which when it has satisfied it goes to rest again. Its whole life is thus a round of sleep and gluttony; and if supplied with sufficient food it soon grows unfit even for its own existence; its flesh becomes a greater load than its legs

are able to support, and it continues to feed lying down or kneeling—a helpless instance of indulged sensuality. The only time it seems to have passions of a more active nature are when it is incited by venery, or when the wind blows with any vehemence. Upon this occasion it is so agitated as to run violently towards its sty, screaming horribly at the same time, which seems to argue that it is naturally fond of a warm climate. It appears also to foresee the approach of bad weather, bringing straw to its sty in its mouth, preparing a bed, and hiding itself from the impending storm. Nor is it less agitated when it hears any of its kind in distress: when a hog is caught in a gate, as is often the case, or when it suffers any of the usual domestic operations of ringing or spaying, all the rest are then seen to gather round it, to lend their fruitless assistance, and to sympathise with its sufferings. They have often also been known to gather round a dog that had teased them, and kill him on the spot.

Most of the diseases of this animal arise from intemperance; measles, imposthumes, and scrofulous swellings are reckoned among the number. It is thought by some that they wallow in the mire to destroy a sort of louse or insect that is often found to infest them; however, they are generally known to live when so permitted to eighteen or twenty years; and the females produce till the age of fifteen. As they produce from ten to twenty young at a litter, and that twice a-year, we may easily compute how numerous they would shortly become if not diminished by human industry. In the wild state they are less prolific; and the sow of the woods brings forth but once a-year, probably because exhausted by rearing up her former numerous progeny.

It would be superfluous to dwell longer upon the nature and qualities of an animal too well known to need a description; there are few, even in cities, who are unacquainted with its uses, its appetites, and way of living. The arts of fattening, rearing, guarding, and managing hogs fall more properly under the cognizance of the farmer than the naturalist; they make a branch of domestic economy, which, properly treated, may be extended to a great length; but the history of Nature ought always to end where that of Art begins. It will be sufficient, therefore, to observe that the wild boar was formerly a native of our country, as appears from the laws of Hoeldd, the famous Welch legislator, who permitted his grand huntsman to chase that animal from the middle of November to the beginning of December. William the Conqueror also punished such as were convicted of killing the wild boar in his forests with the loss of their eyes. At present the whole wild breed is extinct; but no country makes greater use of the tame kinds, as their flesh, which bears salt better than that of any other animal, makes a principal part of the provisions of the British navy.

As this animal is a native of almost every country, there are some varieties found in the species. That which we call the East India breed is lower, less furnished with hair, is usually black, and has the belly almost touching the ground; it is now common in England; it fattens more easily than the ordinary kinds, and makes better bacon.

There is a remarkable variety of this animal about Upsal, which is single hooved like the horse; but in no other respect differing from the common kinds. The authority of Aristotle, who first made mention of this kind, has been often called into question; some have asserted that such a quadruped never existed, because it happened not to fall within the sphere of their own confined observation; however, at present the animal is too well known to admit of any doubt concerning it. The hog common in Guinea differs also in some things from our own; though shaped exactly as ours, it is of a reddish colour, with long ears, which end in a sharp point, and a tail which hangs down to the pastern; the whole

body is covered with short and shining hair, without any bristles, but pretty long near the tail. Their flesh is said to be excellent, and they are very tame.

All these, from their near resemblance to the hog, may be considered as of the same species; the East Indian hog, we well know, breeds with the common kind; whether the same obtains between it and those of Upsal and Guinea we cannot directly affirm; but where the external similitude is so strong we may be induced to believe that the appetites and habits are the same. It is true, we are told that the Guinea breed will not mix with ours, but keep separate, and herd only together: however, this is no proof of their diversity, since every animal will prefer its own likeness in its mate; and they will only then mix with another sort when deprived of the society of their own. These, therefore, we may consider as all of the hog kind; but there are other quadrupeds that in general resemble this species, which nevertheless are very distinct from them. Travellers, indeed, from their general form or from their habits and way of living, have been content to call these creatures hogs also; but upon a closer inspection their differences are found to be such as entirely to separate the kinds, and make each a distinct animal by itself.

CHAP. II.

THE PECCARY, OR TAJUCA.

That animal which of all others most resembles the hog, and yet is of a formation very distinct from it, is called the "peccary," or "tajuca." It is a native of America, and found there in such numbers that they are seen in herds of several hundreds together, grazing among the woods, and harmless except when offended.

The peccary at first view resembles a small hog; the form of its body, the shape of its head, the length of its snout, and the form of its legs are exactly alike: however, when we come to examine it nearer the differences begin to appear. The body is not so bulky—its legs not so long—its bristles much thicker and stronger than those of the hog, resembling rather the quills of a porcupine than hair; instead of a tail, it has only a small fleshy protuberance, which does not even cover its posterior; but that which is still more extraordinary, and in which it differs from all other quadrupeds, is, that it has got upon its back a lump resembling the navel in other animals, which is found to separate a liquor of a very strong smell. The peccary is the only creature that has those kind of glands which discharge the musky substance on that part of its body. Some have them under the belly, and others under the tail; but this creature, by a conformation peculiar to itself, has them on its back. This lump or navel is situated on that part of the back which is over the hinder legs; it is in general so covered with long bristles that it cannot be seen, except they be drawn aside. A small space then appears which is almost bare, and only beset with a few short fine hairs. In the middle it rises like a lump; and in this there is an orifice into which one may thrust a common goose-quill. This hole or bag is not above an inch in depth; and round it, under the skin, are situated a number of small glands, which distil a whitish liquor, in colour and substance resembling that obtained from the civet. Perhaps it was this analogy which led Dr. Tyson to say that it smelt agreeably, also, like that perfume. But this Mr. Buffon absolutely denies, affirming that the smell is at every time and in every proportion strong and offensive;—and to this I can add my own testimony, if that able naturalist should want a voucher.

But to be more particular in the description of the other parts of this quadruped—the colour of the body is

grizzly, and beset with bristles thicker and stronger than those of a common hog; though not near so thick as those of the porcupine, they resemble them in this respect—they are variegated with black and white rings. The belly is almost bare; and the short bristles on the sides gradually increase in length as they approach the ridge of the back, where some are five inches long. On the head, also, between the ears, there is a large tuft of bristles, which are chiefly black. The ears are about two inches and a half long, and stand upright; and the eyes resemble those of a common hog, only they are smaller. From the lower corner of the eye to the snout is usually six inches; and the snout itself is like that of a hog's, though it is but small. One side of the lower lip is generally smooth, by the rubbing of the tusk of the upper jaw. The feet and hoofs are perfectly like those of a common hog; but, as has been previously observed, it has no tail. There are some anatomical differences in its internal structure from that of the common hog. Dr. Tyson was led to suppose that it had three stomachs, whereas the hog has but one; however, in this he was deceived, as Mr. Daubeton has plainly shown that the stomach is only divided by two closings, which give it the appearance as if divided into three; and there is no conformation that prevents the food in any part of it from going or returning to any other.

The peccary may be tamed like the hog, and has much the same habits and natural inclinations. It feeds upon the same aliments; its flesh, though drier and leaner than that of the hog, is pretty good eating; it is improved by castration; and, when killed, not only the parts of generation must be instantly taken away, but also the navel on the back, with all the glands that contribute to its supply. If this operation be deferred for only half an hour the flesh becomes utterly unfit to be eaten.

The peccary is extremely numerous in all the parts of Southern America. They go in herds of two or three hundred together, and unite, like hogs, in each other's defence. They are particularly fierce when their young are attempted to be taken from them. They surround the plunderer, attack him without fear, and frequently make his life pay the forfeit of his rashness. When any of the natives are pursued by a herd in this manner, they frequently climb a tree to avoid them; while the peccaries gather round the root, threaten with their tusks, and, their rough bristles standing erect as in the hog kind, they assume a very terrible appearance. In this manner they remain at the foot of the tree for hours together; while the hunter is obliged to wait patiently, and not without apprehensions, until they think fit to retire.

The peccary is more fond of the mountainous parts of the country than the lowlands; it seems to delight neither in the marshes nor the mud like our hogs; it keeps among the woods, where it subsists upon wild fruits, roots, and vegetables; it is also an unceasing enemy to the lizard, the toad, and all the serpent kinds with which these uncultivated forests abound. As soon as it perceives a serpent or a viper it at once seizes it with its fore-hoofs and teeth, skins it in an instant, and devours its flesh. This is often seen, and may therefore be readily credited; but as to its applying to a proper vegetable immediately after, as an antidote to the poison of the animal it had devoured, this part of the relation we may very well suspect. The flesh neither of the toad nor viper, as every one now knows, is poisonous; and therefore there is no need of a remedy against their venom. Ray gives no credit to either part of the account; however, we can have no reason to disbelieve that it feeds upon toads and serpents; it is only the making use of a vegetable antidote that appears improbable, and which, perhaps, had its rise in the ignorance and credulity of the natives.

The peccary, like the hog, is very prolific; the young

ones follow the dam, and do not separate until they have come to perfection. If taken at first they are very easily tamed, and soon lose all their natural ferocity; however, they never show any particular signs of docility, but continue stupid and rude, without attachment, or even seeming to know the hand that feeds them. They only continue to do no mischief; and they may be permitted to run tame without apprehending any dangerous consequences. They seldom stray far from home; they return of themselves to the sty, and do not quarrel among each other except when they happen to be fed in common. At such times they have an angry kind of growl, much stronger and harsher than that of a hog; but they are seldom heard to scream like the former; only now and then, when frightened or irritated, they have an abrupt, angry manner of blowing like the boar.

The peccary, though like the hog in so many various respects, is nevertheless quite a distinct race, and will not mix, nor produce an intermediate breed. The European hog has been transplanted into America, and suffered to run wild among the woods; it is often seen to herd among a drove of peccaries, but never to breed from them. They may therefore be considered as two distinct creatures; the hog is the larger and the more useful animal—the peccary more feeble and local; the hog subsists in most parts of the world, and in almost every climate—the peccary is a native of the warmer regions, and cannot subsist in ours without shelter and assistance. It is more than probable, however, that we could readily propagate the breed of this quadruped, and that in two or three generations it might be familiarised to our climate: but as it is inferior to the hog in every respect, so it would be needless to admit a new domestic whose services are better supplied in the old.

CHAP. III.

THE CAPIBARA, OR CABIAL.

There are some quadrupeds so entirely different from any that we are acquainted with, that it is hard to find a well-known animal to which to resemble them. In this case we must be content to place them near such as they most approach in form and habits, so that the reader may at once have some idea of the creature's shape or disposition, although, perhaps, an inadequate and very confused one.

Upon that confused idea, however, it will be our business to work—to bring it by degrees to greater precision—to mark out the differences of form; and thus give the clearest notions that words can easily convey. The known animal is a kind of rude sketch of the figure we want to exhibit, from which by degrees we fashion out the shape of the creature we desire should be known—as a statuary seldom begins his work till the rude outline of the figure is given by some other hand. In this manner I have placed the capibara among the hog kind, merely because it is more like a hog than any other animal commonly known; and yet, more closely examined, it will be found to differ in some of the most obvious particulars.

The capibara resembles a hog of about two years old in the shape of its body and the coarseness and colour of its hair. Like the hog, it has a thick short neck and a rounded bristly back; like the hog, it is partial to the water and marshy places, brings forth many at a time, and, like it, feeds upon animal and vegetable food. But when examined more nearly the differences are many and obvious. The head is longer, the eyes are larger, and the snout, instead of being rounded as in the hog, is split like that of a rabbit or a hare, and furnished with thick strong whiskers; the mouth is not so wide; the number and the form of the teeth are different—for

it is without tusks: like the peccary it wants a tail; and, unlike to all others of this kind, instead of a cloven hoof it is in a manner web-footed, and thus entirely fitted for swimming and living in the water. The hoofs before are divided into four parts, and those behind into three; between the divisions there is a prolongation of the skin, so that the foot when spread in swimming can beat a great surface of water.

As its feet are thus made for the water, so it is seen to delight entirely in that element; and for that reason some naturalists have called it the "water-hog." It is a native of South America, and is chiefly seen frequenting the borders of lakes and rivers, like the otter. It seizes the fish upon which it preys with its hoofs and teeth, and carries them to the edge of the lake to devour them at its ease. It also lives upon fruits, corn, and sugar-cane. As its feet are long and broad, it is often seen sitting up like a dog that is taught to beg. Its cry more nearly resembles the braying of an ass than the grunting of a hog. It seldom goes out except at night, and that always in company. It never ventures far from the sides of the river or the lake in which it preys; for as it runs ill, owing to the length of its feet and the shortness of its legs, so its only place of safety is the water, into which it immediately plunges when pursued, and keeps so long at the bottom that the hunter can have no hopes of taking it there. The capibara, even in a state of wildness, is of a gentle nature, and when taken young is easily tamed. It comes and goes at command, and even shows an attachment to its keeper. Its flesh is said to be fat and tender, but from the nature of its food it has a fishy taste, like all those which are bred in the water. Its head, however, is said to be excellent; and in this it resembles the beaver, whose fore parts taste like flesh, and the hinder parts like the fish it feeds upon.

CHAP. IV.

THE BABYROUESA, OR INDIAN HOG.

The babyrouessa is still more remote from the hog kind than the capibara; and yet most travellers who have described this animal do not scruple to call it the hog of Borneo, which is an island in the East Indies, where it is principally to be found. Probably this animal's figure upon the whole most resembles that of the hog kind, which may have induced them to rank it among the number; however, when they come to its description they represent it as having neither the hair, the bristles, the head, the stature, nor the tail of a hog. Its legs, we are told, are longer, its snout shorter, its body more slender, and somewhat resembling that of a stag; its hair is finer, of a grey colour, more resembling wool than bristles, and its tail also tufted with the same. From these varieties, therefore, it can scarcely be called a hog; and yet in this class we must be content to rank it until its form and nature are better known. What we at present principally distinguish it by are four enormous tusks that grow out of each jaw—the two largest from the upper and the two smallest from the under. The jaw-bones of this extraordinary animal are found to be very thick and strong; from whence these monstrous tusks are seen to proceed that distinguish it from all other quadrupeds. The two that go from the lower jaw are not above a foot long, but those of the upper are above half a yard: as in the boar, they bend circularly, and the two lower stand in the jaw as they are seen to do in that animal; but the two upper ones rise from the upper jaw rather like horns than teeth, and, bending upwards and backwards, sometimes have their points directed to the animal's eyes, and often prove fatal by growing into them. Were it not that the

babyrouessa has two such large teeth underneath, we might easily suppose the two upper ones to be horns; in fact, their sockets are directed upwards, for which reason Dr. Grew was of that opinion. But as the teeth of both jaws are of the same consistence, and as they both grow out of sockets in the same manner, the analogy between both is too strong not to suppose them of the same nature. The upper teeth when they leave the socket immediately pierce the upper lips of the animal, and grow as if they immediately went from his cheek. The tusks in both jaws are of a very fine ivory, smoother and whiter than that of the elephant, but not so hard or serviceable.

These enormous tusks give this animal a formidable appearance; and yet it is thought to be less dangerous than the wild boar. Like animals of the hog kind, they go together in a body, and are often seen in company with the wild boar, with which, however, they are never known to engender. They have a very strong smell, which discovers them to the hounds; and when pursued they growl dreadfully, often turning back upon the dogs, and wounding with the tusks of the lower jaw—for the upper tusks are rather an obstruction than a defence. They run much swifter than the boar, and have a more exquisite scent, winding the men and the dogs at a great distance. When hunted closely they generally plunge into the sea, where they swim with great swiftness and facility, diving and rising again at pleasure; and in this manner they most frequently escape their pursuers. Although fierce and terrible when offended, yet they are peaceable and harmless when unmolested. They are easily tamed, and their flesh is good to be eaten; but it is said to putrefy in a very short time. They have a way of reposing themselves different from most other animals of the larger kind—which is by hitching one of their upper tusks on the branch of a tree, and then suffering their whole body to swing down at ease. Thus suspended by a tooth, they continue the whole night quite secure, and out of the reach of such animals as hunt them for prey.

The babyrouessa, though by its teeth and tusks it seems fitted for a state of hostility, and probably is carnivorous, yet nevertheless seems chiefly to live upon vegetables and the leaves of trees. It seldom seeks to break into gardens, like the boar, in order to pillage the more succulent productions of human industry, but lives remote from mankind, content with coarser fare and security. It has been said that the babyrouessa was only to be found in the island of Bornea; but this is a mistake, as it is well known in many parts both of Asia and Africa, as at the Celebes, at Estrila, Senegal, and Madagascar.

Such are the animals of the hog kind which are not distinctly known; and even all these, as we see, have been but imperfectly examined or described. There are some others of which we have still more imperfect notices—such as the warea, a hog of the Isthmus of Darien, described by Waser, with large tusks, small ears, and bristles like a coarse fur over all the body. This, however, may be the European hog, which has run wild in that part of the new world, as no other traveller has taken notice of the same. The Canary boar seems different from other animals of this kind by the largeness of its tusks, and, as is judged from the skeleton, by the aperture of its nostrils and the number of its grinders. I cannot conclude this account of those animals that are thus furnished with enormous tusks without observing that there is a strong consent between these and the parts of generation. When castrated the tusks grow much smaller, and are scarce seen to appear without the lips; but what is still more remarkable is, that in a boar, if the tusks by any accident or design be broke away, the animal abates of its fierceness and venery, and it produces nearly the same effect upon its constitution as if castration had actually taken place.

CARNIVOROUS ANIMALS.

BOOK IV.—CHAP. I.

ANIMALS OF THE CAT KIND.

We have hitherto been describing a class of peaceful and harmless animals that serve as the instruments of man's happiness, or at least that do not openly oppose him. We come now to a bloody and unrelenting tribe, that disdain to own his power, and carry on unceasing hostilities against him. All the class of the cat kind are chiefly distinguished by their sharp and formidable claws, which they can hide and extend at pleasure. They lead a solitary, ravenous life, neither uniting for their mutual defence, like vegetable feeders, nor for their mutual support, like those of the dog kind. The whole of this cruel and ferocious tribe seek their food alone; and, except at certain seasons, are even enemies to each other. The dog, the wolf, and the bear are sometimes known to live upon vegetable or farinaceous food; but all of the cat kind—such as the lion, the tiger, the leopard, and the ounce—devour nothing but flesh, and starve upon any other provision.

They are in general fierce, rapacious, subtle, and cruel—unsuited for society among each other, and incapable of adding to human happiness. However, it is probable that even the fiercest could be rendered domestic if man thought the conquest worth the trouble. Lions have been yoked to the chariots of conquerors; and tigers have been taught to tend those herds which they are known at present to destroy. But these services are not sufficient to recompense for the trouble of their keeping; so that ceasing to be useful they continue to be noxious, and become rebellious subjects because not taken under equal protection with the rest of the brute creation.

Other tribes of animals are classed with difficulty, having often but few points of resemblance, and, though alike in form, have different dispositions and different appetites. But all those of the cat kind, although differing in size or in colour, are yet nearly allied to each other—being equally fierce, rapacious, and artful; and he that has seen one has seen all. In other creatures there are many changes wrought by human assiduity; the dog, the hog, or the sheep are altered in their natures and forms, just as the necessities or caprices of mankind have found fitting; but all of this kind are inflexible in their forms, and wear the print of their natural wildness strong upon them. The dogs or cows vary in different countries, but lions or tigers are still found the same; the very colour is nearly alike in all; and the slightest alterations are sufficient to make a difference in the kinds, and to give the animal a different denomination.

The cat kind are not less remarkable for the sharpness and strength of their claws, which are thrust forth from their sheath when they seize their prey, than for the shortness of their snout, the roundness of their head, and the large whiskers which grow on the upper lip. Their teeth, also, which amount to the number of thirty, are very formidable, but are rather calculated for tearing their prey than for chewing it; for this reason they feed but slowly; and while they eat they generally continue growling, to deter others from taking a share. In the dog kind the chief power lies in the under jaw, which is long, and furnished with muscles of amazing strength; but in these the greatest force lies in the claws, which are extended with great ease, and their gripe is so tenacious that nothing can open it. The hinder parts in all these animals are much weaker than those before; and they seem less made for strength than agility. Nor are they endued with the swiftness of most other animals, but generally owe their subsistence rather to catching their prey by surprise than by hunting it fairly down. They all seize it with a bound, at the same time express-

ing their fierce pleasure with a roar; and the first grasp generally disables the captive from all further resistance. With all these qualifications for slaughter, they nevertheless seem timid and cowardly, and seldom make an attack, like those of the dog kind, at a disadvantage; on the contrary, they fly when the force against them is superior, or even equal with their own; and the lion himself will not venture to make a second attack where he has been once repulsed with success. For this reason, in countries that are tolerably inhabited the lion is so cowardly, that he is often scared away by the cries of women and children.

The cat, which is the smallest animal of this kind, is the only one that has been taken under human protection, and may be considered as a faithless friend brought to oppose a still more insidious enemy. It is, in fact, the only animal of this tribe whose services can more than recompense the trouble of their education, and whose strength is not sufficient to make its anger formidable. The lion or the tiger may easily be tamed and rendered subservient to human command; but even in their humblest and most familiar moments they are still dangerous; since their strength is such that the smallest fit of anger or caprice may have dreadful consequences. But the cat, though easily offended and often capricious in her resentments, is not endowed with powers sufficient to do any great mischief. Of all animals, when young, there is none more prettily playful than the kitten; but it seems to lose this disposition as it grows old, and the innate treachery of its kind is then seen to prevail. From being naturally ravenous, education teaches it to disguise its appetites, and to watch the favourable moment of plunder; supple, insinuating, and artful, it has learned the arts of concealing its intentions till it can put them into execution; when the opportunity offers it at once seizes upon whatever it finds, flies off with it, and continues at a distance till it supposes its offence forgotten. The cat has only the appearance of attachment; and it may easily be perceived, by its timid approaches and side long looks, that it either dreads its master or distrusts his kindness; different from the dog, whose caresses are sincere, the cat is assiduous rather for its own pleasure than to please, and often gains confidence only to abuse it. The form of its body and its temperament correspond with its disposition; active, cleanly, delicate, and voluptuous, it loves its ease, and seeks the softest cushions to lie on. Many of its habits, however, are rather the consequences of its formation than the result of any perverseness in its disposition; it is timid and mistrustful, because its body is weak and its skin tender; a blow hurts it infinitely more than it does a dog, whose hide is thick and body muscular; the long fur in which the cat is clothed entirely disguises its shape, which, if seen naked, is long, feeble, and slender; it is not to be wondered, therefore, that it appears much more fearful of chastisement than the dog, and often flies even when no correction is intended. Being also a native of the warmer climates (as will be shown hereafter), it chooses the softest bed to lie on, which is always the warmest.

The cat goes with young fifty-six days, and seldom brings forth above five or six at a time. The female usually hides the place of her retreat from the male, who is often found to devour her kittens. She feeds them for some weeks with her milk, and whatever small animal she can take by surprise, accustoming them betimes to rapine. Before they are a year old they are fit to engender; the female seeks the male with cries; nor is their copulation performed without great pain, from the narrowness of the passage in the female. They live to about the age of ten years; and during that period they are extremely vivacious, suffering to be worried a long time before they die.

The young kittens are very playful and amusing; but their sport soon turns into malice, and they from the



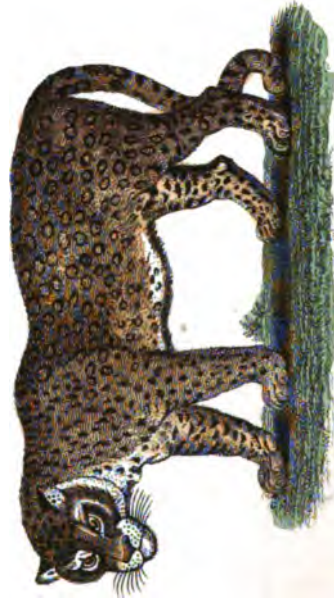
LION.



TIGER



BLACK TIGER



PANTHER



SPOTTED OUNCE.

ZOOLOGY.



beginning show a disposition to cruelty; they often look wistfully towards the cage, sit centinels at the mouth of a mouse-hole, and in a short time become more expert hunters than if they had received the instructions of art. Indeed, their disposition is so incapable of constraint that all instruction would be but thrown away. It is true, that we are told of the Greek monks of the isle of Cyprus teaching cats to hunt the serpents with which the island is infested; but this may be natural to the animal itself, and they might have fallen upon such a pursuit without any instruction. Whatever animal is much weaker than themselves is to them an indiscriminate object of destruction. Birds, young rabbits, hares, rats and mice, bats, moles, toads, and frogs, are all equally pursued—though not, perhaps, equally acceptable. The mouse seems to be their favourite game; and, although the cat has the sense of smelling in but a mean degree, it nevertheless knows those holes in which its prey resides. I have seen one of them patiently watch a whole day until the mouse appeared, and continue quite motionless until it came within reach, and then seized it with a jump. Of all the marks by which the cat discovers its natural malignity, that of playing and sporting with its little captive before killing it outright is the most flagrant.

The fixed inclination which they discover for this peculiar manner of pursuit arises from the conformation of their eyes. The pupil in man, and in most other animals, is capable but of a small degree of contraction and dilatation; it enlarges a little in the dark, and contracts when the light pours in upon it in too great quantities. In the eyes of cats, however, this contraction and dilatation of the pupil is so considerable, that the pupil, which appears narrow and small like the black of one's nail, by night expands over the whole surface of the eye-ball, and, as every one must have seen, their eyes seem on fire. By this peculiar conformation their eyes see better in darkness than light, and the animal is thus better adapted for spying out and surprising its prey.

Although the cat is an inhabitant of our houses, yet it cannot properly be called a dependent: although perfectly tame, yet it acknowledges no obedience; on the contrary, it does only just what it thinks fit, and no art can controul any of its inclinations. In general it is but half tamed, and has its attachments rather to the place in which it resides than to the inhabitant. If the inhabitant quits the house the cat still remains; and if carried elsewhere seems for a while bewildered with its new situation. It must take time to become acquainted with the holes and retreats in which its prey resides, with all the little labyrinths through which they often make good an escape.

The cat is particularly fearful of water, of cold, and of ill smells. It loves to keep in the sun, to get near the fire, and to rub itself against those who carry perfumes. It is excessively fond of some plants, such as valerian, marum, and cat-mint: against these it rubs, smells them at a distance, and, at last, if they be planted in a garden, wears them out.

This animal eats slowly and with difficulty, as its teeth are rather made for tearing than chewing its aliments. For this reason it loves the most tender food, particularly fish, which it eats as well boiled as raw. Its sleeping is very light; and it often seems to sleep the better to deceive its prey. When the cat walks it treads very softly, and without the least noise; and as to the necessities of nature, it is cleanly to the last degree. Its fur, also, is usually sleek and glossy; and for this reason the hair is easily electrified, sending forth shining sparks if rubbed in the dark.

The wild cat breeds with the tame, and therefore the latter may be considered only as a variety of the former; however, they differ in some particulars. The cat in its savage state is somewhat larger than the house-cat—

and its fur, being longer, gives it a greater appearance than it really has; its head is bigger and its face flatter; the teeth and claws much more formidable; its muscles very strong, as being formed for rapine; the tail is of a moderate length, but very thick and flat, marked with alternate bars of black and white, the end always black; the hips and hind part of the lower joints of the leg are always black; the fur is very soft and fine: the general colour of these animals in England is a yellowish white mixed with a deep grey. These colours, though they appear at first sight confusedly blended together, yet, on close inspection, will be found to be disposed like the streaks on the skin of the tiger, pointing from the back downwards, rising from a black list that runs from the head along the middle of the back to the tail. This animal is found in our larger woods, and is the most destructive of the carnivorous kinds in this kingdom. It inhabits the most mountainous and woody parts of these islands, living mostly in trees, and feeding only by night. It often happens that the females of the tame kind go into the woods to seek mates among the wild ones. It seems that these, however, are not original inhabitants of this kingdom, but were introduced first in a domestic state, and afterwards became wild in the woods by ill usage or neglect. Certain it is, the cat was an animal much higher in esteem among our ancestors than it is at present. By the laws of Howel, the price of a kitten before it could see was to be a penny; till it caught a mouse, twopenny; and when it commenced mouser, fourpence. It was required, besides, that it should be perfect in its senses of hearing and seeing, be a good mouser, have the claws whole, and be a good nurse. If it failed in any of these qualities, the seller was to forfeit to the buyer the third part of its value. If any one stole or killed the cat that guarded the prince's granary he was to forfeit a milch ewe, its fleece, and lamb; or as much wheat as, when poured on the cat suspended by the tail (the head touching the floor), would form a heap high enough to cover the tip of the former. From hence we discover, besides a picture of the simplicity of the times, a strong argument that cats are not naturally bred in our forests. An animal that could be so easily taken could never have been rated so highly; and the precautions laid down to improve the breed would have been superfluous in a creature that multiplies to such an amazing degree.

In our climate we know but of one variety of the wild cat; and, from the accounts of travellers, we learn that there are but few differences in this quadruped in all parts of the world. The greatest difference, indeed, between the wild cat and the tame one is rather to be found internally than in their outward form. Of all other quadrupeds the wild cat is, perhaps, that whose intestines are proportionably the smallest and the shortest. The intestines of the sheep, for instance, unravelled out and measured according to their length, will be found to be above thirty times the length of its body; whereas the wild cat's intestines, being measured out, will not be found above three times the length of its body. This is a surprising contrast; but we may account for it from the nature of the food in the two animals—the one living upon vegetables, which require a longer and a more tedious preparation before they can become a part of its body; the other living upon flesh, which requires very little alteration in order to be assimilated into the substance of the creature that feeds upon it. The one, therefore, wanted a long canal for properly digesting and straining its food; the other but a short one, as the food is already prepared to pass the usual secretions: however, a difficulty still remains behind—the intestines of the wild cat are one-third shorter than those of the tame one. How can we account for this? If we say that the domestic cat, living upon more plentiful and more nourishing provision, has its intestines

enlarged to the quantity with which it is supplied, we shall find this observation contradicted in the wild boar and the wolf, whose intestines are as long as those of the hog or the dog, though they lead a savage life, and, like the wild cat, are fed by precarious subsistence. The shortness, therefore, of the wild cat's intestines is still unaccounted for; and most naturalists consider the difficulty inextricable. We must leave it, therefore, as one of those difficulties which future observation or accident are most likely to discover.

This animal is one of those few which are common to the new continent as well as the old. When Christopher Columbus first discovered that country, a hunter brought him one which he had discovered in the woods, which was of the ordinary size, and the tail very long and thick. They were also common in Peru, although they were not rendered domestic. They are likewise well known in Africa and many parts of Asia. In some of these countries they are of a peculiar colour, and inclining to blue. In Persia, Pietro dello Valle informs us that there is a kind of cat, particularly in the province of Chorasán, of the figure and form of the ordinary one, but infinitely more beautiful in the lustre and colour of its skin. It is of a grey blue, without mixture, and is soft and shining as silk. The tail is very long, and covered with hair six inches in length, which the animal throws upon its back like the squirrel. These cats are well known in France, and have been brought over to England under the name of the "blue cat," which, however, is not their colour.

Another variety of this animal is called by us the "lion cat," or, as others more properly term it, the "cat of Angora." These are larger than the common cat, and even than the wild one. Their hair is much longer, and hangs about their head and neck, giving this creature the appearance of a lion. Some of these are white, and others of a dun colour. These come from Syria and Persia—two countries which are noted for giving a long soft hair to the animals bred there. The sheep, the goats, the dogs, and the rabbits of Syria are all remarkable for the length and fine glossy softness of their hair; but particularly the cat, whose nature seems to be inflexible, conforms to the nature of the climate and soil, loses its savage colour, which it preserves in almost every other part of the world, and assumes the most beautiful appearance. There are some other varieties in this animal, but rather in colour than in form; and in general it may be remarked, that the cat when taken into other countries alters but very little, still preserving its natural manners, habits, and conformations.

THE LION.—The influence of climate upon mankind is but very small: he is found to subsist in all parts of the earth, as well under the frozen poles as beneath the torrid zone; but in animals the climate may be considered as congenial, and a kind of second nature. They almost all have their particular latitudes, beyond which they are unable to subsist—either perishing with a moderate cold or dying for want of a frozen air, even in a temperate climate. The rein-deer is never seen to depart from the icy fields of the north; and, on the contrary, the lion degenerates when taken from beneath the line. The whole earth is the native country of man; but all inferior animals have each their own peculiar districts.

Most terrestrial animals are found larger, fiercer, and stronger in the warm than in the cold or temperate climates. They are also more courageous and enterprising—all their dispositions seeming to partake of the ardour of their native soil. The lion produced under the burning sun of Africa is of all others the most terrible—the most undaunted. The wolf or the dog, instead of attempting to rival him, scarce deserve to attend his motions or become his providers. Such, however, of these animals as are bred in a more temperate climate,

or towards the tops of cold and lofty mountains, are far more gentle—or, to speak more properly, far less dangerous—than those bred in the torrid valleys beneath. The lions of Mount Atlas, the tops of which are covered with eternal snows, have neither the strength nor the ferocity of the lions of Bildulgerid or Zaara, where the plains are covered with burning sands. It is particularly in these frightful deserts that those enormous and terrible beasts are found that seem to be the scourge and terror of the neighbouring kingdoms. Happily, indeed, the species is not very numerous; and it seems to be diminishing daily; for those who have travelled through these countries assure us that there are by no means so many there at present as there were formerly; and Mr. Shaw observes, that the Romans carried fifty times as many lions from Lybia in one year to combat in their amphitheatres as are to be found in the whole country at this time. The same remark is made with regard to Turkey, to Persia, and the Indies, where they are found to diminish in their numbers every day. Nor is it difficult to assign the cause of this diminution: it is obvious that it cannot be owing to the increase of the force of other quadrupeds, since they are all inferior to the lion, and, consequently, instead of lessening the number only tend to increase the supplies on which they subsist; it must therefore be occasioned by the increase of mankind, who is the only animal in Nature capable of making head against these tyrants of the forest and preventing their increase. The arms even of a Hottentot or a Negro make them more than a match for this powerful creature; and they seldom make the attack without coming off victorious. Their usual manner is to find out his retreat, and with spears headed with iron to provoke him to the combat; four men are considered as sufficient for this encounter; and he against whom the lion flies receives him upon his spear, while the others attack him behind; the lion, finding himself wounded in the rear, turns that way, and thus gives the man he first attacked an opportunity to recover. In this manner they attack him on all sides, until at last they entirely disable and then despatch him. This superiority in the numbers and the arts of man, that are sufficient to conquer the lion, serve also to enervate and discourage him; for he is brave only in proportion to the success of his former encounters. In the vast deserts of Zaara, in the burning sands that lie between Mauritania and Negroland, in the uninhabited countries that lie to the north of Caffraria, and, in general, in all the deserts of Africa where man has not fixed his habitation, the lions are found in great numbers, and preserve their natural courage and force. Accustomed to measure their strength with every animal they meet, the habit of conquering renders them intrepid and terrible. Having never experienced the dangerous arts and combinations of man, they have no apprehensions from his power. They boldly face him, and seem to brave the force of his arms. Wounds rather serve to provoke their rage than to repress their ardour. They are not daunted even with the opposition of numbers; a single lion of the desert often attacks an entire caravan; and, after an obstinate combat, when he finds himself overpowered, instead of flying, he continues to combat, retreating, and still facing the enemy till he dies. On the contrary, the lions which inhabit the peopled countries of Morocco or India, having become acquainted with human power and experienced man's superiority, have lost all their courage, so as to be scared away with a shout, and seldom attack any but the unresisting flocks or herds, which even women and children are sufficient to protect.

This alteration in the lion's disposition sufficiently shows that he might easily be tamed, and admit of a certain degree of education. In fact, nothing is more common than for keepers of wild beasts to play with this animal, to pull out his tongue, and even to chastise him without a cause. He seems to bear it all with the utmost

composure; and we very rarely have instances of his revenging these unprovoked sallies of impertinent cruelty. However, when his anger is at last excited the consequences are terrible. Labat tells us of a gentleman who kept a lion in his chamber, and employed a servant to attend it, who, as is usual, mixed his blows with caresses. This ill-judged association continued for some time; till one morning the gentleman was awakened by a noise in his room, which at first he could not tell the cause of; but, drawing the curtains, he perceived a horrid spectacle—the lion growling over the man's head, which he had separated from the body, and tossing it round the floor. He immediately, therefore, flew into the next room, called to the people without, and had the animal secured from doing further mischief. However, this single account is not sufficient to weigh against the many instances we every day see of this creature's gentleness and submission. He is often bred up with other domestic animals, and is seen to play innocently and familiarly among them; and if it ever happens that his natural ferocity returns, it is seldom exerted against his benefactors. As his passions are strong and his appetites vehement, one ought not to presume that the impressions of education will always prevail: so that it would be dangerous in such circumstances to suffer him to remain too long without food, or to persist in irritating and abusing him: however, numbers of accounts assure us that his anger is noble, his courage magnanimous, and his disposition grateful. He has been often seen to despise contemptible enemies, and pardon their insults when it was in his power to punish them. He has been seen to spare the lives of such as were thrown to be devoured by him, to live peaceably with them, to afford them a part of his subsistence, and sometimes to want food himself rather than deprive them of that life which his generosity had spared.

It may also be said that the lion is not cruel, since he is so only from necessity, and never kills more than he consumes. When satiated, he is perfectly gentle; while the tiger, the wolf, and all the inferior kinds, such as the fox, the pole-cat, and the ferret, kill without remorse, are fierce without cause, and by their indiscriminate slaughter, seem rather to satisfy their malignity than their hunger.

The outward form of the lion seems to speak his internal generosity. His figure is striking, his look confident and bold, his gait proud, and his voice terrible. His stature is not overgrown like that of the elephant or rhinoceros; nor is his shape clumsy, like that of the hippopotamus or the ox. It is compact, well proportioned, and sizeable—a perfect model of strength joined with agility. It is muscular and bold, neither charged with fat nor unnecessary flesh. It is sufficient but to see him in order to be assured of his superior force. His large head surrounded with a dreadful mane—all those muscles that appear under the skin swelling with the slightest exertions—and the great breadth of his paws, with the thickness of his limbs, plainly evince that no other animal in the forest is capable of opposing him. He has a very broad face, that, as some have imagined, resembles the human. It is surrounded with very long hair, which gives it a very majestic air. The top of the head, the temples, the cheeks, the under jaw, the neck, the breast, the shoulder, the hinder part of the legs, and the belly, are furnished with it, while all the rest of the body is covered with very short hair, of a tawny colour. The length of the hair in many parts, and the shortness of it in others, serves a good deal to disguise this animal's real figure. The breast, for instance, appears very broad, but in reality it is as narrow and contracted in proportion as that of the generality of dogs and horses. For the same reason the tail seems to be of an equal thickness from one end to the other, on account of the inequality of the hair with which it is encompassed—it being shorter near the insertion where

the flesh and bones are large, and growing longer in proportion as its real thickness lessens towards the point, where it ends in a tuft. The hair about the neck and breast is not different from that on the rest of the body, except in its length; nor is each hair pointed as in most other animals, but of an equal thickness from one end to the other. The neck is very strong, but not composed of one solid bone, as Aristotle has imagined; on the contrary, though very short and muscular, it has as many bones as the camel or the horse; for it is universal to all quadrupeds to have seven joints in the neck, and not one of them have either more or less. However, the muscles in the neck of the lion that tie the bones together are extremely strong, and have somewhat the appearance of bones; so that ancient authors who have treated of this animal have mistaken the whole for a single bone. The tongue is rough, and beset with prickles as hard as a cat's claws; these have the grain turned backwards; so that it is probable a lion, if it should attempt to lick a man's hand, as we are told it sometimes does, would tear off the skin. The eyes are always bright and fiery; nor even in death does this terrible look forsake them. In short, the structure of the paws, teeth, eyes, and tongue are the same as in a cat; and also in the inward parts these two animals so nearly resemble each other, that the anatomist's chief distinction arises merely from the size.

The lion has, as was observed before, a large mane, which grows every year longer as the animal grows older; the lioness is without this ornament at every age. This mane is not coarse or rough as in a horse, but composed of the same hair with the rest of the body, lengthened and shining. The mane as well as the rest of the body is of a yellow colour; nor is there ever any difference to be found in the colour of one lion from that of another. What the ancients might have said concerning black lions, or white, or streaked like the tiger, is not confirmed by modern experience; so that these varieties have never been seen, or exist no longer.

It is usually supposed that the lion is not possessed of the sense of smelling in such perfection as most other animals. It is also observed that too strong a light greatly incommodes him. This is more than probable from the formation of his eyes, which, like those of the cat, seem fitted for seeing best in the dark. For this reason he seldom appears in open day, but ravages chiefly by night; and not only the lion, but all other animals of the cat kind, are kept off by the fires which the inhabitants light to preserve their herds and flocks; the brightness of the same dazzles their eyes, which are only fitted for seeing in the dark; and they are afraid to venture blindly into those places which they know to be filled with their enemies. It is equally true of all this kind that they hunt rather by the sight than the smell; and it sometimes happens that the lion pursues either the jackall or the wild dog while they are hunting upon the scent; and when they have run the beast down he comes in and monopolises the spoil. From hence, probably, may have arisen the story of the lion's provider: these little industrious animals may often, it is true, provide a feast for the lion; but they have hunted merely for themselves, and he is an unwelcome intruder upon the fruits of their toil.

The lion, when hungry, boldly attacks all animals that come in his way; but as he is very formidable, and as they all seek to avoid him, he is often obliged to hide in order to take them by surprise. For this purpose he crouches on his belly in some thicket or among the long grass, which is found in many parts of the forest; in this retreat he continues, with patient expectation, until his prey comes within a proper distance, and he then springs after it, fifteen or twenty feet from him, and often seizes it at the first bound. If he misses the effort, and in two or three reiterated springs cannot seize his prey, he continues motionless for a time, seems to be very sensible

of his disappointment, and waits for a more successful opportunity. In the deserts and forests his most usual prey are the gazelles and the monkeys, with which the torrid regions abound. The latter he takes when they happen to be upon the ground, for he cannot climb trees like the cat or the tiger. He devours a great deal at a time, and generally fills himself for two or three days to come. His teeth are so strong that he very easily breaks the bones, and swallows them with the rest of the body. It is reported that he sustains hunger a very long time, but thirst he cannot support in an equal degree, his temperament being extremely hot; some have even asserted that he is in a continual fever. He drinks as often as he meets with water, lapping it like a cat, which, as we know, drinks but slowly. He generally requires about fifteen pounds of raw flesh in a day; he prefers that of live animals, and particularly those which he has just killed. He seldom devours the bodies of animals when they begin to putrefy; and he chooses rather to hunt for a fresh spoil than to return to that which he had half devoured before. However, though he usually feeds upon fresh provision, his breath is very offensive and his urine insupportable.

The roaring of the lion is so loud, that when it is heard in the night and re-echoed by the mountains it resembles distant thunder. This roar is his natural note, for when enraged he has a different growl, which is short, broken, and reiterated. The roar is a deep hollow growl, which he sends forth five or six times a day, particularly before rain. The cry of anger is much louder and more formidable. This is always excited by opposition; and upon those occasions, when the lion summons up all his terrors for the combat, nothing can be more terrible. He then lashes his sides with his long tale, which alone is strong enough to lay a man level; he moves his mane in every direction—it seems to rise and stand like bristles round his head; the skin and muscles of his face are all in agitation; his huge eye-brows half cover his glaring eye-balls; he discovers his teeth, which are formed rather for destruction than chewing his food; he shows his tongue covered with points, and extends his claws, which appear almost as long as a man's fingers. Prepared in this manner for war, there are few animals that will venture to engage him; and even the boldest of the human kind are daunted at his approach. The elephant, the rhinoceros, the tiger, and the hippopotamus, are the only animals that are not afraid singly to make opposition.

Nevertheless, neither the leopard nor the wild boar if provoked will shun the combat; they do not seek the lion to attack, but will not fly at his approach; they wait his onset, which he seldom makes unless compelled by hunger; they then exert all their strength, and are sometimes successful. We are told of a combat between a lion and a wild boar, in a meadow near Algiers, which continued for a long time with incredible obstinacy: at length, both were seen to fall from the wounds they had given each other, and the ground all about them was covered with their blood. These instances, however, are very rare, for the lion is in general the undisputed master of the forest. Man is the only creature that attacks him with almost certain success, with the assistance of dogs and horses, which are trained to the pursuit. These animals—which, in a state of nature, would have fled from the presence of the lion in an agony of consternation—when conscious of the assistance of man, become pursuers in their turn, and boldly hunt their natural tyrant. The dogs are always of the large breed; and the horses, as Gesner assures us, must be of that sort called "charossi," or lion-eyed—all others of this kind flying at the sight of the lion, and endeavour to throw their riders. When the lion is roused he recedes with a slow, stately motion; he never goes off directly forward, nor measures his paces equally, but takes an oblique course, going from one side to the other, and bounding rather than running. When the hunters

approach him they either shoot or throw their javelins, and in this manner disable him before he is attacked by the dogs, many of whom he would otherwise destroy. He is very vivacious, and is never killed at once, but continues to fight desperately even after he has received his mortal blow. He is also taken by pit-falls—the natives digging a deep hole in the ground, and covering it slightly over with sticks and earth, which, however, give way beneath his weight, and he sinks to the bottom, from whence he has no means of escape. But the most usual manner of taking this animal is while yet a cub, and incapable of resistance. The place near the den of the lioness is generally well known by the extent of her depredations on that occasion; the natives, therefore, watch the time of her absence, and, aided by a swift horse, carry off her cubs, which they sell to strangers, or to the great men of their country.

The lion, while young and active, lives by hunting in the forest at a great distance from any human habitation, and seldom quits this retreat while able to subsist by his natural industry; but when he becomes old and unfit for the purposes of surprise, he boldly comes down into places more frequented, attacks the flocks and herds that take shelter near the habitation of the shepherd or the husbandman, and depends rather upon his courage than his address for support. It is remarkable, however, that when he makes one of these desperate sallies, if he finds men and quadrupeds in the same field he only attacks the latter, and never meddles with men unless they provoke him to engage. It is said that he prefers the flesh of camels to any other food; he is likewise said to be fond of that of young elephants; these he often attacks before their trunk is yet grown; and unless the old elephant comes to their assistance he makes them an easy prey.

The lion is terrible upon all occasions, but particularly at those seasons when he is incited by desire, or when the female has brought forth. It is then that the lioness is seen followed by eight or ten males, who fight most bloody battles among each other, till one of them becomes victorious over all the rest. She is said to bring forth in spring, and to produce but once a year. With respect to the time of gestation naturalists have been divided, some affirming that the lioness went with young six months, and others but two. The time, also, of their growth and their age have hitherto been lost in obscurity—some asserting that they acquired their full growth in three years, and others that they required a longer period to come to perfection; some saying (and among this number is Mr. Buffon) that they lived to but twenty years, or twenty-two at most; others making their lives even of shorter duration. All these doubts are now reduced to certainty—for we have had several of these animals bred in the Tower; so that the manner of their copulation, the time of their gestation, the number they bring forth, and the time they take to come to perfection, are all pretty well known. Although the lion emits his urine backwards, yet he couples in the ordinary manner; and, as was said before, his internal structure in almost every respect resembles that of a cat. The lioness, however, is upon these occasions particularly fierce, and often wounds the lion in a terrible manner. She goes with young, as I am assured by her keeper, no more than five months; the young ones, which are never more than two in number when brought forth, are about the size of a large pug dog—harmless, pretty, and playful; they continue the teat for twelve months, and the animal is more than five years in coming to perfection. As to its age, from its imprisoned state we can have no certainty; since it is very probable that, being deprived of its natural climate, food, and exercise, its life must be very much abridged. However, naturalists have hitherto been greatly mistaken as to the length of its existence. The great he-lion, called "Pompey," which died in the year 1760, was known to

have been in the Tower for above seventy years; and one lately died there, which was brought from the river Gambia, that died above sixty-three. The lion, therefore, is a very long-lived animal; and, very probably, in his native forests his age exceeds even that of man himself.

In this animal all the passions, even of the most gentle kind, are in excess, but particularly the attachment of the female to her young. The lioness, though naturally less strong, less courageous, and less mischievous than the lion, becomes terrible when she has got young ones to provide for. She then makes her incursions with even more intrepidity than the lion himself; she throws herself indiscriminately among men and other animals—destroys without distinction—loads herself with the spoil, and brings it home reeking to her cubs, whom she accustoms betimes to cruelty and slaughter. She usually brings forth in the most retired and inaccessible places; and, when she fears to have her retreat discovered, often hides her tracks by retracing her ground, or by brushing them out with her tail. She sometimes, also, when her apprehensions are great, transports them from one place to another, and, if obstructed, defends them with determined courage, and fights to the last.

The lion is chiefly an inhabitant of the torrid zone, and, as was said, is always most formidable there; and yet he can subsist in more temperate climates: there was a time when even the southern parts of Europe were infested by him. At present he is only found in Africa and the East Indies, in some of which countries he grows to an enormous height. The lion of Bildulgerid is said to be nearly five feet high, and between nine and ten feet from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail. We have in the Tower at present one above four feet high, which was brought from Morocco, and which is the largest that for some time past has been seen in Europe. The ordinary size is between three and four feet—the female being in all her dimensions about one-third less than the male. There are no lions in America: the puma, which has received the name of the "American lion," is comparatively a very contemptible animal, having neither the shape, the size, nor the mane of the lion—being known to be extremely cowardly, to climb trees for its prey, to subsist rather by its cunning than its courage, and to be inferior even to the animal that goes by the name of the "American tiger." We ought not, therefore, to confound this little treacherous creature with the lion, which all the ancients have concurred in denominating the "king of beasts," and which they have described as brave and merciful. Indeed, the numerous accounts which they have given us of this animal's generosity and tenderness show that there must be some foundation for the general belief of its good qualities; for mankind seldom err when they are all found to unite in the same story. However, perhaps the caution of Aristophanes, the comic poet, is better followed in practice, who advises us to have nothing to do with this creature, but to let the lioness suckle her own whelps.

THE TIGER.—The ancients had a saying, "That as the peacock is the most beautiful among birds, so is the tiger among quadrupeds." In fact, no quadruped can be more beautiful than this; the glossy smoothness of its hair—which lies much smoother and shines with greater brightness than even that of the leopard—the extreme blackness of the streaks with which he is marked, and the bright yellow colour of the ground which they diversify, at once strike the beholder. To this beauty of colouring is added an extremely elegant form, much larger, indeed, than that of the leopard, but more slender, more delicate, and bespeaking the most extreme swiftness and agility. Unhappily, however, this animal's disposition is as mischievous as its form is admirable, as if Providence was willing to show the small value

of beauty by bestowing it on the most noxious of quadrupeds. We have at present one of these animals in the Tower, which to the view appears the most good-natured and harmless creature in the world; its physiognomy is far from fierce or angry; it has not the commanding, stern countenance of the lion, but a gentle, placid air; yet for all this it is fierce and savage beyond measure; neither correction can terrify it nor indulgence can tame.

The chief and most observable distinction in the tiger, and in which it differs from all others of the mottled kind, is in the shape of its colours, which run in streaks or bands in the same direction as his ribs, from the back down to the belly. The leopard, the panther, and the ounce are all partly covered like this animal, but with this difference—their colours are broken in spots all over the body, whereas in the tiger they stretch lengthwise, and there is scarce a round spot to be found on his skin. Besides, there are other observable distinctions: the tiger is much larger, and often found bigger than even the lion himself; it is also much more slender in proportion to its size—its legs shorter, and its neck and body longer. In short, of all other animals it most resembles the cat in shape; and, if we conceive the latter magnified to a very great degree, we shall have a tolerable idea of the former.

In classing carnivorous animals we may place the lion foremost; and immediately after him follows the tiger which seems to partake of all the noxious qualities of the lion, without sharing any of his good ones. To pride, courage, and strength the lion joins greatness, clemency, and generosity: but the tiger is fierce without provocation, and cruel without necessity. The lion seldom ravages except when excited by hunger; the tiger, on the contrary, though glutted with slaughter, is not satisfied, still continues the carnage, and seems to have its courage only inflamed by not finding resistance. In falling in among a flock or a herd it gives no quarter, but levels all with indiscriminate cruelty, and scarce finds time to appease its appetite while intent upon satisfying the malignity of its nature. It thus becomes the scourge of the country where it is found; it fears neither the threats nor the opposition of mankind; the beasts, both wild and tame, fall equally a sacrifice to its insatiable fury; the young elephant and the rhinoceros become equally its prey; and it not unfrequently ventures to attack even the lion himself.

Happily for the rest of Nature, this animal is not very common, and the species is chiefly confined to the warmest provinces of the East. The tiger is found in Malabar, in Siam, in Bengal, and in all the countries which are inhabited by the elephant or the rhinoceros. Some even pretend that it has a friendship for and often accompanies the latter in order to devour its excrements, which serve it as a purge. Be this as it will, there is no doubt but that they are often seen together at the sides of lakes and rivers, where they are probably both compelled to go by the thirst which in that torrid climate they must very often endure. It is likely enough, also, that they seldom make war upon each other—the rhinoceros being a peaceable animal, and the tiger knowing its strength too well to venture the engagement. It is still more likely that the tiger finds this a very convenient situation, since it can there surprise a greater number of animals which are compelled thither from the same motives. In fact, it is generally known to lurk near such places where it has an opportunity of choosing its prey, or rather of multiplying its massacres. When it has killed one it often goes to destroy others, swallowing their blood down at large draughts, and seeming rather glutted than satiated with its abundance.

However, when it has killed a large animal, such as a horse or a buffalo, it immediately begins to devour it on the spot, fearing to be disturbed. In order to feast at his ease, he carries off his prey to the forest, dragging it

along with such ease, that the swiftness of its motion seems scarce retarded by the enormous load it sustains. From this alone we may judge of its strength; but to have a more just idea of this particular, let us stop a moment to consider the dimensions of this most formidable creature. Some travellers have compared it for size to a horse, and others to a buffalo, while others have contented themselves with saying that it is much larger than a lion. We have recent accounts of this animal's magnitude that deserve the utmost confidence. Mr. Buffon has been assured by one of his friends that he saw a tiger in the East Indies of fifteen feet long. Supposing he means including the tail, this animal, allowing four feet for that, must have been eleven feet from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail. Indeed, that which is now in the Tower is not so large, being, as well as I could measure, six feet from the tip to the insertion, and the tail was three feet more. Like all the rest of its kind its motions are irregular and desultory; it bounds rather than runs; and, like them, rather chooses to take its prey by surprise than to be at the trouble of hunting it down. How large a leap it can take at once we may easily judge, by comparing what it might do to what we see so small an animal as the cat actually perform. The cat can leap several feet at a bound; and the tiger, who is ten times as long, can no doubt spring proportionably.

The tiger is the only animal whose spirit seems untameable. Neither force nor constraint, neither violence nor flattery, can prevail in the least on its stubborn nature. The caresses of the keeper have no influence on their heart of iron; and time, instead of mollifying its disposition, only serves to increase its fierceness and malignity. The tiger snaps at the hand that feeds it as well as that by which it is chastised; every object seems considered only as its proper prey, which it mentally devours with a look; and, although confined by bars and chains, still makes fruitless efforts, as if to show its malignity when incapable of exerting its force.

To give a still more complete idea of the strength of this terrible creature we shall quote a passage from T'acbard, who was an eye-witness of a combat between a tiger and three elephants at Siam. For this purpose, the king ordered a lofty pallsade to be built of bamboo cane, about a hundred feet square; and in the midst of this were three elephants appointed for combating the tiger. Their heads and a part of their trunk were covered with a kind of armour, like a mask, which defended that part from the assaults of the fierce animal with which they were to engage. As soon, says this writer, as we arrived at the place a tiger was brought forth from its den, of a size much larger than we had ever seen before. It was not at first let loose, but held with cords, so that one of the elephants approaching gave it three or four terrible blows with its trunk on the back, with such force that the tiger was for some time stunned, and lay without motion as if it had been dead. However, as soon as it was let loose and at full liberty, although the first blows had greatly abated its fury, it made at the elephant with a loud shriek, and aimed at seizing his trunk; but the elephant, wrinkling it up with great dexterity, received the tiger on his great teeth and tossed it up into the air. This so discouraged the furious animal that it no more ventured to approach the elephant, but made several circuits round the pallsade, frequently attempting to fly at the spectators. Shortly afterwards three elephants were sent against it, and they continued to strike it with such terrible force with their trunks that it once more lay for dead; and they certainly would have killed it had not there been a stop put to the combat.

From this account we may readily judge of the great strength and courage of this animal, which, though reduced to captivity and held by cords—though first disabled and set alone against three, yet ventured to

continue the engagement—and even that against animals covered and protected from its fury.

Captain Hamilton informs us that in the Sundah Rajah's dominions there are three sorts of tigers in the woods, and that the smallest are the fiercest. This is not above two feet high, appears to be extremely cunning, and delights in human flesh. The second kind is about three feet high, and hunts deer and wild hogs, besides the little animal which has been already described under the name of the "chevrotain," or "Guinea deer." The tiger of the largest sort is above three feet and a half high; but, although endowed with greater powers, it is by no means so rapacious as either of the former. This formidable animal, which is called the "royal tiger" (one of which we have at present in the Tower), does not appear to be so ravenous nor so dangerous, and is even more cowardly. A peasant in that country, as the same traveller informs us, had a buffalo which fell into a quagmire, and while he went for assistance there came a large tiger, and with its single strength drew forth the animal, which the united force of many men could not effect. When the people returned to the place the first object they beheld was the tiger, who had thrown the buffalo over its shoulder as a fox does a goose, and was carrying it away with the feet uppermost towards its den; however, as soon as it saw the men it relinquished its prey, and instantly fled to the woods; but it had previously killed the buffalo and sucked its blood—and no doubt the people were perfectly well satisfied with its retreat. It may be observed that some East Indian buffaloes weigh above a thousand pounds, which is twice as heavy as the ordinary run of black cattle; so that from hence we may form a conception of the enormous strength of this rapacious animal, that could thus run off with a weight at least twice as great as that of itself.

Were this animal as common as the panther, or even the lion himself, thus furnished as it is with the power to destroy and the appetite for slaughter, the country would be uninhabitable where it resides. But luckily the species is extremely scarce, and has been so since the earliest accounts we have had of the tiger. About the time of Augustus, we are assured by Pliny that when panthers were brought to Rome by hundreds a single tiger was considered as an extraordinary sight; and he says that the Emperor Claudius was able to obtain four only, which shows with what difficulty they were procured. The incredible fierceness of this animal may in some measure be the cause of the scarcity which was then felt in Rome, since it was the opinion of Varo that the tiger was never taken alive; but its being a native only of the East Indies, and that particularly of the warmer regions, it is not to be wondered that the species should be so few.

We may therefore consider the species of the true streaked tiger as one of the scarcest of animals, and much less diffused than that of the lion. As to the number of its young we have no certain accounts; however, it is said that it brings forth four or five at a time. Although furious at all times, the female on such occasions exceeds her usual rapacity; and, if her young are taken from her, she pursues the spoiler with incredible rage. To save a part he drops one of her cubs, which she picks up and again returns to her den, when again she pursues him; he then drops another—and by the time she has returned with that he generally escapes with the remainder. If she loses her young entirely she then becomes desperate—boldly approaches even the towns themselves, and commits terrible slaughter. The tiger expresses its resentment in the same manner as the lion; it moves the muscles and skin of its face, shows its teeth, and shrieks in the most frightful manner. Its note is very different from that of the lion—being rather a scream than a roar.

The skin of these animals is much esteemed in all

parts of the East, particularly in China; the Mandarins cover their seats of justice in the public places with it, and convert it into coverings for cushions in winter. In Europe, these skins, though but seldom to be met with, are of no great value, those of the panther and the leopard being held in much greater estimation. This is all the little benefit we derive from this dreadful animal, of which so many falsehoods have been reported—as, that its sweat was poisonous, and the hair of its whiskers more dangerous than an envenomed arrow. But the real mischiefs which the tiger occasions while living are sufficient, without giving imaginary ones to the parts of its body when dead. In fact, the Indians sometimes eat its flesh, and find it neither disagreeable nor unwholesome.

There is an animal of America which is usually called the "red tiger," but Mr. Buffon calls it the "cougar," which no doubt is very different from the tiger of the East. Some, however, have thought proper to rank both together; and I will take leave to follow their example, merely because the cougar is more like the tiger in everything, except the colour, than any other animal I know—having the head, the body, and the neck shaped very much in the same manner. Of these slight differences words would give but a very faint idea; it will therefore be sufficient to observe that they are both equally slender, and are smaller where the neck joins the head than others of the panther kind. There is one at present in the Tower; and it seemed to me, as well as I could see it through the bars, that were it properly streaked and coloured it would in all things resemble a small tiger. It is, however, of a very different colour, being of a deep brown, and the tail very long and pointed. It is rather darker on the back; under the chin it is a little whitish, as also on the lower part of the belly.

Of all the American animals this is the most formidable and mischievous, even their pretended lion not excepted. It is said there are several sorts of them; and, as well as I can remember, I have seen one or two here in England differing from the present both in size and conformation. It is indeed a vain endeavour to attempt to describe all the less obvious varieties in the cat kind. If we examine them minutely we shall find the differences multiply upon us so much, that instead of a history we shall only be paid with a catalogue of distinctions. From such of them as I have seen within the last six years, I think I could add two animals of this species that have not been hitherto described, and with the names of which he that showed them was utterly unacquainted. But it is a poor ambition—that of being eager to find out new distinctions, or adding one noxious animal more to a list already sufficiently numerous. Were the knowing a new variety to open an unknown history, or in the least to extend our knowledge, the inquiry would then be worth pursuing; but what signifies mentioning some trifling difference, and from thence becoming authors of a new name, when the difference might have originally proceeded either from climate, soil, or indiscriminate copulation?

The cougars are extremely common in South America; and, where the towns border upon the forest, they make frequent incursions by night into the midst of the streets, carrying off fowls, dogs, and other domestic creatures. They are, however, but weak and contemptible compared to the great tiger, being found unable to cope with a single man. The Negroes and Indians are very dexterous in encountering them; and some, even for the sake of their skins, seek them in their retreats. The arms in this combat, seemingly so dangerous, are only a lance of two or three yards long, made of heavy wood, with the point hardened in the fire; and a kind of scymitar of about three quarters of a yard in length. Thus armed they wait till the tiger makes an assault against the left hand, which holds the lance, and is wrapped up

in a short cloak of baize. Sometimes the animal, aware of the danger, seems to decline the combat; but then its antagonist provokes it with a slight touch of the lance, in order, while he is defending himself, to strike a sure blow. As soon, therefore, as the creature feels the lance, it grasps it with one of its paws, and with the other strikes at the arm which holds it. Then it is that the person nimbly aims a blow with his scymitar, which he kept concealed, with the other hand, and hamstringing the creature, which immediately draws back enraged, but instantly returns to the charge. But then, receiving another stroke, it is totally deprived of the power of motion: and the combatant, killing it at his leisure, stripes the skin, cuts off the head, and returns to his companions, displaying these as the trophies of his victory.

This animal, as we are assured, is often more successful against the crocodile; and it is the only quadruped in that part of the world that is not afraid of the engagement. It must be no unpleasant sight to observe from a place of safety this extraordinary combat between animals so terrible and obnoxious to man. Such as have seen it describe it in the following manner:—When the tiger, impelled by thirst that seems continually to consume it, comes down to the river-side to drink, the crocodile, which makes no distinction in its prey, lifts its head above water to seize it; the tiger, not less rapacious than the other; and unacquainted with the force of the enemy, boldly ventures to seize it, and plunges its claws into the eyes of the crocodile, which is the only vulnerable part of its body: upon this the crocodile instantly dives under water, and the tiger goes down with him—for it will sooner die than let go its hold. In this manner the combat continues for some time, until the tiger is drowned, or escapes, as is sometimes the case, from its disabled enemy.

These animals are common in Guiana. They were formerly seen swimming over in great numbers into the island of Cayenne, to attack and ravage the flocks and herds of the inhabitants. In the beginning they were a terrible scourge to the infant colony; but by degrees they were repulsed and destroyed, and are now seen no longer at that place. They are found in Brazil, in Paraguay, in the country of the Amazons, and in several other parts of South America. They often climb trees in quest of prey, or to avoid their pursuers. They are deterred by fire, like all other animals of the cat kind; or, more properly speaking, they seldom venture near those places where they see it kindled, as they are always sure of their enemies being near, and their nocturnal eyes are dazzled by the brightness of the blaze. From the description of this animal, one would be hardly led to suppose that its flesh was good for food; and yet we have several accounts which allege the fact, some asserting it to be superior even to mutton: however, what Monsieur Des Marchais observes is most likely to be true—namely, that the most valuable part of this animal is its skin, and that its flesh is but indifferent eating, being generally lean, and usually having a strong taste.

THE PANTHER AND THE LEOPARD.—We have hitherto found no great difficulty in distinguishing one animal from another, each carrying its own peculiar marks, which in some measure serve to separate it from all the rest. But it is otherwise when we come to those of the cat kind which fill up the chasm between the tiger and the cat. The spots with which their skins are diversified are so various and their size so equivocal, that it is no easy matter to distinguish the species, particularly as we have little else but the spots and the size to guide us in making the distinction. If we regard the figure and diversity of the spots, we shall find many varieties not taken notice of by any naturalists; if we are led by the size, we shall find an imperceptible gradation from the cat to the tiger. It would be vain, therefore, to make as many varieties in these animals as we see differences in

spots or stature; it will be sufficient to seize the most general distinctions, and leave the rest to such as are fond of more minute disquisitions.

Of all this tribe, whose skins are so beautifully spotted and whose natures are so mischievous, the panther may be considered as the foremost. This animal has been by many naturalists mistaken for the tiger; and, in fact, it approaches next to it in size, fierceness, and beauty. It is distinguished, however, by one obvious and leading character—that of being spotted, not streaked; for in this particular the tiger differs from the panther, the leopard, and almost all the inferior ranks of this mischievous family.

This animal, which Mr. Buffon calls simply the "panther," Linnæus the "pard," Gesner the "pardalis," and the modern Latins the "leopardus"—this animal, I say, which goes by too many names, and which the English have indiscriminately called by the name of the "panther" or the "leopard," may be considered as the largest of the kind, and is spotted in a manner somewhat different from those that are smaller. As these spots, however, make the principal difference between it and the lesser animals, which it otherwise resembles in shape, size, disposition, and beauty, I will first show these slight distinctions, and mention the names each animal has received in consequence thereof; and then proceed to give their history together, still marking any peculiarity observable in one of the species which is not found in the rest.

Next to the great panther, already mentioned, is the animal which Mr. Buffon calls the "leopard"—a name which he acknowledges to be given arbitrarily for the sake of distinction. Other naturalists have not much attended to the slight differences between this and the great panther, or have they considered its discriminations as sufficient to entitle it to another name. It has hitherto, therefore, gone under the name of the "leopard," or "panther of Senegal," where it is chiefly found. The differences between this animal and the former are these—the large panther is often found to be six feet long from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail; the panther of Senegal is not above four. The large panther is marked with spots in the manner of a rose—that is, five or six make a kind of circle, and there is generally a large one in the middle; the leopard of Senegal has a much more beautiful coat—the yellow is more brilliant and the spots are smaller, and not disposed in rings, but in clusters. As to the rest, they are both whitish under the belly; the tail in both is pretty long, but rather longer in proportion in the latter than the former. To these two animals, whose differences seem to be so very minute, we may add a third—namely the "jaguar," or "panther of America." This in every respect resembles the two former, except in the disposition of its spots, and that its neck and head are rather streaked than spotted. The jaguar is also said to be lower upon its legs, and less than the leopard of Senegal. These three quadrupeds, as we see, have but very slight differences, and the principal distinction used by Mr. Buffon is taken from the size; the first, as he says, is usually six feet long, the second four feet, and the last about three; however, it appears from the particular subjects of his description that the panther in his possession was not above three feet seven inches long; that the leopard's skin which he describes was about four; and the jaguar at two years old was between two and three feet long, which, when come to its full growth, would no doubt be four feet long as well as the two former. From hence, therefore, we may conclude that the size in these animals is not sufficient to make a distinction among them; and that those who called them all three by the indiscriminate names of the leopard and the panther, if not right, were at least excusable. Of these which are now to be seen in the Tower, the jaguar or the American panther is rather the largest of

the three, and is by no means the contemptible animal which Mr. Buffon describes it to be; the leopard is the least of them, and has by some travellers been supposed to be an animal produced between the panther and the ounce—an animal which resembles but is less than any of the former. These three animals we may therefore rank together, as they agree pretty nearly in their robe, their size, their dispositions, and their ferocity.

We come next to an animal confessedly different from any of the former, being much smaller, and its colour more inclining to white. Its name, however, in our language has caused no small confusion. It has been generally called by foreigners the "ouza" or "ounce," and this name some of our own writers have thought proper to give it; but others of them, and these the most celebrated, such as Willoughby, have given the name to a different animal, with a short tail, and known to the ancients and moderns by the name of the "lynx." I confess myself at a loss in this case whom to follow; the alteration of names should be always made with great caution, and never but in cases of necessity. If we follow Willoughby, there will be an animal of the panther kind very distinguishable from all the rest left without a name; and if we recede from him, it will serve to produce some confusion among all the numerous class of readers and writers who have taken him for their guide: however, as he seems himself to have been an innovator, the name of the lynx having been long adopted into our language before, it was unnecessary to give the animal that bore it another name, and to call that creature an ounce which our old writers had been accustomed to know by the Latin appellation; for this reason, therefore, we may safely venture to take a name, which has long been misapplied, from the lynx, and restore it to the animal in question. We will therefore call that animal of the panther kind which is less than the panther, and with a longer tail, the "ounce; and the lynx may remain in possession of that name by which it was known among our old English writers as well as by all antiquity.

The "ounce," or the "onza" of Linnæus, is much less than the panther, being no more at most than three feet and a half long: however, its hair is much longer than that of the panther, and its tail more so. The panther of four or five feet long has a tail but of two feet, or two feet and a half. The ounce, which is about three feet, has a tail often longer than the rest of its body. The colour of the ounce is also apparently different, being rather more inclining to a cream-colour, which is deeper on the back and whiter towards the belly. The hair on the back is an inch and a half long, and that on the belly two inches and a half, which is much longer than that of the panther. Its spots are disposed pretty much in the same manner as the large panther, except that on the haunches it is rather marked with stripes than with spots.

Descending to animals of this kind that are still smaller, we find the "catamountain," which is the ocelot of Mr. Buffon, or the tiger-cat of most of those who exhibit as a show. It is less than the ounce, but its robe more beautifully variegated. It is an American animal, and is about two feet and a half in length from the nose to the insertion of the tail. It is extremely like a cat, except that it is larger and slenderer—that its colours are more beautiful and its tail rather shorter. The fur is of a redish colour, the whole beautified with black spots and streaks of different figures. They are long on the back, and round on the belly and paws. On the ears are black stripes, which run across; but in other respects they entirely resemble those of a cat. These colours, however, which naturalists have taken great pains minutely to describe, are by no means permanent, being differently disposed in different animals of the same species. I remember to have seen an animal of this size—but whether of this species I will not pretend to say—some years ago

that was all brown, and was said to come from America.

From this tribe of the cat kind, with spotted skins and a long tail, we come to another with skins diversified in like manner, but with a shorter tail. The principal amongst these is the "lynx"—the name by which the animal was known to Ælian among the ancients, and to all our old English writers among those of a more modern date. This name has been corrupted by the Portuguese into the word "ouze;" and this corruption has been adopted by Ray, who has improperly called this animal the "ounce," after some of the foreign travellers. The first striking distinction between the lynx and all those of the panther kind is in its tail, which is at least half as short in proportion, and black at the extremity. Its fur is much longer, the spots on the skin less vivid, and but confusedly mingled with the rest. Its ears are much longer, and tipped at the point with a black tuft of hair. The colour round the eyes is white, and the physiognomy more placid and gentle. Each hair of this animal is of three different colours—the root is of a greyish brown, the middle red, or of an ash colour, and the ends white. This whiteness at the ends takes up so small a part of the particular hair that it does not prevent us from seeing the principal colour, which is that in the middle part; so that it only makes the surface of the body appear as if it were silvered over; however, the hair of which the spots consist has no white at the ends, and at the roots it is not quite so black as the other part. This animal is not above the size of the ounce, but is rather stronger built; it has but twenty-eight teeth, whereas all the rest of the cat kind already mentioned have thirty.

Another animal of this kind is called the "siagush," or, as Mr. Buffon names it, the "caracal." It is a native of the East Indies, and resembles the lynx in size, in form, and even in the singularity of being tufted at the tips of the ears. However, the siagush differs in not being mottled as the lynx is; its fur, or rather hair, is rougher and shorter; its tail is rather longer, its muzzle more lengthened, its physiognomy more fierce, and its nature more savage.

The third and last animal of this kind that need be mentioned is that which Mr. Buffon calls the "serval," and which he has first described. It is a native of Malabar, resembling the panther in its spots, but more resembling the lynx in the shortness of its tail, in its size, and in its strong-built form.

These seem to be all the principal distinctions among animals of the panther kind, from the largest of this tribe down to the domestic cat, which is the smallest of all these fierce and mischievous varieties. In all their nature seems pretty much the same—being equally fierce, subtle, cruel, and cowardly. The panther, including the leopard and the jaguar, or American panther, as they are the largest, so also are they the most dangerous of this kind—for the whole race of cats are noxious in proportion to their power to do mischief. They inhabit the most torrid latitudes of India, Africa, and America, and have never been able to multiply beyond the torrid zone. They are generally found in the thickest and the most entangled forests, and often near remote habitations, where they watch to surprise all kinds of domestic animals. They very seldom attack man, even though provoked by him; they rather seem desirous of finding safety by flight, or by climbing trees, at which they are very expert. In this manner they often pursue their prey; and, being expert at seizing it as well above as below, they cause a vast destruction. Of all animals these are most sullen, and even to a proverb untameable. They still preserve their fierce and treacherous spirit; and at those places where they are exposed to be seen among others, we often observe that while their keeper is familiar with the lion or the bear, yet he is apprehensive of the large panther, and keeps it bound with the largest chain.

As the ounce differs from these in figure and size, so also it seems to differ in disposition, being more mild, tractable, and tame. These we frequently see as harmless and innocent as domestic cats; and there is one at present in the Tower with which the keeper plays without the smallest apprehension. I confess I was not a little uneasy at first for the man, when he put his hand through the bars and called the animal by its name; but was a good deal surprised to see the creature, which one might suppose irritated by long confinement, come gently up to him, stroke his hand with its face, in the manner of a cat, and testify the utmost gentleness of disposition. The ounce, therefore, is remarkable for being easily tamed; in fact, it is employed all over the East for the purposes of hunting. Not, indeed, but that panthers themselves are sometimes used for this purpose, but they are never thoroughly subdued like the former, being usually brought to the field in a carriage, and kept chained and caged until they are shown the gazelle or the leveret, which are their prey. These they pursue rather by three or four great springs than by running; if they seize it by this sudden effort it finds no mercy; but if it escapes from their first effort they never attempt to pursue, and appear quite disappointed and confounded at their mischance. It sometimes happens that they are so much enraged at it that they attack even their employer; and his only resource to avoid their fury is to throw them some small pieces of meat, which he has brought with him for that purpose.

The ounce, however, is not so dangerous, and is treated with more confidence and familiarity. It is usually brought to the field hood-winked behind one of the horsemen. When the game appears the ounce is instantly uncovered, and shown where it lies; upon which the fierce creature darts like an arrow to the place and seizes it at once, or, missing it, remains motionless on the place. It would be vain to attempt retrieving its disgrace by continuing the pursuit; for, although it bounds with greater agility than most other animals, yet it is slow and awkward in running, and has no means of finding the animals it pursues by the smell, as is common among those of the dog kind. From hence, therefore, it appears how much superior the European method of hunting is to that of the Asiatic; since whatever amusement this exercise affords must arise from the continuance of the chase, and from the fluctuation of doubt and expectation which raise and depress the pursuers by turns. All this an Asiatic hunter is deprived of; and his greatest pleasure can scarcely be more than what among us is called "coursing," in which the dog pursues the animal and keeps it constantly in view.

But it must not be supposed that it is from choice the Asiatics use this method of chase; for, no doubt, were dogs serviceable among them as they are in Europe they would be employed for the same purposes. But the fact is, that the extreme heat of the tropical climates produces such universal putrefaction, and sends up such various and powerful scents, that dogs are at first bewildered in the chase, and at last come to lose the delicacy of their scent entirely. They are therefore but little used in those warm countries; and what could they avail in places where almost every other animal of the forest is stronger and more rapacious? The lion, the tiger, the panther, and the ounce are all natural enemies to the dog, and attack him wherever he appears with ungovernable fury. The breed, therefore, in those places would quickly be destroyed: so that they are obliged to have recourse to those animals which are more fitted to serve them, and thus convert the ounce to those purposes for which dogs are employed in Europe.

The "catamountain," or "oelot," is one of the fiercest and, for its size, one of the most destructive animals in the world. It is, as was before observed, a native

of South America, and by no means capable of the same education as the ounce, which it more approaches in size than in disposition. Two of these, from whom Mr. Buffon has taken his description, were brought over from Carthage, and having been taken from the dam when very young were afterwards suckled by a bitch. But before they were three months old they had strength and ingratitude enough to kill and devour their nurse. Their succeeding fierceness and malignity seemed to correspond with their first efforts—for no arts could tame or soften their natures; and while they continued in their cages they still testified an unceasing disposition for slaughter. When their food was given them the male always served himself before the female ventured to touch a bit; and it was not till he was satisfied that the other began. In their savage state these animals are still more destructive; having great strength and agility, they very easily find and overtake their prey, which they pursue among the tops of the trees as well as on the ground; but what renders them still more mischievous is their unceasing appetite rather for the blood than the flesh of their prey. They suck this with the greatest avidity, but frequently leave the carcass otherwise untouched, in order to pursue other animals for the blood in like manner. They generally continue on the tops of trees, like our wild cats, where they make their nest, and often bring forth their young. When they spy any animal they can master—and there are but few in the forest but what are inferior—they dart down upon it with inevitable exactness.

The whole tribe of animals of the panther kind with long tails are chiefly inhabitants, as was said, of the torrid zone; but those of the short-tailed kind, and particularly the lynx, is principally found in the cold countries that are bordering on the pole. The lynx is chiefly to be met with in the north of Germany, Lithuania, Muscovy, Siberia, and North America. Those of the new continent, however, are rather smaller than in Europe, as is the case with almost all their quadrupeds; they are somewhat whiter also, but in other respects there is scarce any difference to be found among them. This animal has been called by some "*Lupus cervarius*," or a creature compounded between a wolf and a stag; but for what reason is hard to guess—there is no resemblance either in shape or disposition. In its nature it exactly resembles the cat, except that, being bigger and nearly two feet long, it is bolder and fiercer. Like the cat, it climbs trees, and seeks its prey by surprise; like the cat, it is delicate and cleanly, covering its urine with its paws; and it resembles the wolf in nothing except its cry, which often deceives the hunters, and induces them to think they hear a wolf and not a lynx. This animal is also rather more delicate than the cat; and, after having once feasted upon its prey, will never return to it again, but hunts the woods for another. From hence may have arisen the common report of the lynx having of all other quadrupeds the shortest memory. This, however, is not the only idle story that has been propagated of it—as of its seeing with such perspicuity as to perceive objects through walls and mountains; as of having its urine of such a quality as to harden, and become a precious stone; with several others, propagated by ignorance or imposture.

The "*siagush*" and the "*serval*" are both so like all the rest of the cat kind in disposition, that it is but repeating the same account once more to give their distinct history. As the lynx is found only in cold countries, so the *siagush* is to be met with only in the warm tropical climates. It is used in the same manner as the ounce for hunting; but it seems to have a property which the other has not—namely, that of being able to overtake its prey by pursuing it. Whether this be performed by having a finer scent than the former or greater swiftness we are not informed—being only told that when it overtakes either the gazelle or the antelope it leaps upon

their backs, and, getting forward to their shoulders, scratches their eyes out, by which means they become an easy prey to the hunters. Some have called this animal the "*lion's provider*;" and it is said that when it calls him to pursue his prey its voice very much resembles that of one man calling to another. From hence we may conjecture that this animal pursues its prey in full cry, and that the lion only follows to partake or seize the spoil. The same account is also given of the jackal; and very probably it may be true, not only of these animals but of some others, since it is natural enough to suppose that the lion will pursue whenever he is taught to discover his prey.

We had one of these animals a few years ago sent over from the East Indies, but it was not able to endure the change of climate, and it died in a very short time after it was brought to the Tower. Whether consumed by disease or not I cannot tell, but it seemed to be much slenderer than the cat or the lynx, and its ears were much longer; however, it is a very strong creature for its size, and has been known to kill a large dog in single combat: nevertheless, it is, like all of the cat kind except the lion, remarkable for its cowardice, and will never, except in cases of necessity, attack an animal that is its equal in strength and activity. For this reason, when brought into the field and put upon a service of danger, it obstinately refuses, and is alert only in the pursuit of animals that are too feeble for resistance, or too timid to exert their strength.

From what has been said of this rapacious tribe we perceive a similitude in the manners and dispositions of them all, from the lion to the cat. The similitude of their internal conformation is still more exact—the shortness of their intestines, the number of their teeth, and the structure of their paws. The first of this class is the lion, distinguishable from all the rest by his strength, his magnitude, and his mane. The second is the tiger, rather longer than the lion, but not so tall, and known by the streaks and vivid beauty of its robe; including also the American tiger or cougar—distinguishable by its size, next that of the tiger, its tawny colour, and its spots. The third are the panther and the leopard. The fourth is the ounce, not so large as any of the former, spotted like them, but distinguishable by the cream-coloured ground of its hair and the great length of its tail, being above the length of its body. The fifth is the catamountain or tiger-cat, less than the ounce, but differing particularly in having a shorter tail, and being streaked down the back like a tiger. The sixth is the short-tailed kind—namely, the lynx, of the size of the former, but with a short tail streaked, and the tips of its ears tufted with black. The seventh is the *siagush*, differing from the lynx in not being mottled like it, in not being so large, and in having the ears longer, though tipped with black as before. The eighth is the *serval*, resembling the lynx in its form and the shortness of its tail; streaked also like it, but not having the tips of the ears tufted. Lastly, the cat, wild and tame, with all its varieties—all less than any of the former, but, like them, equally insidious, rapacious, and cruel.

This whole race may be considered as the most formidable enemy of mankind; there are others, indeed, stronger, but they are more gentle, and never offer injury till injured: there are others more numerous, but they are more feeble, and look for safety by hiding from man more than opposing him. These are the only quadrupeds that make good their ground against him, and which may be said to keep some kingdoms of the earth in their own possession. How many extensive countries are there in Africa where the wild beasts are so numerous that man is deterred from living amongst them—reluctantly giving up to the lion and the leopard extensive tracts that seem formed only for his delight!

CHAP. II.

ANIMALS OF THE DOG KIND.

The second class of carnivorous quadrupeds may be denominated those of the "dog kind." This class is neither so numerous nor so powerful as the former, and yet neither so treacherous, rapacious, or cowardly. This class may be principally distinguished by their claws, which have no sheath like those of the cat kind, but still continue at the point of each toe, without a capability of being stretched forward or drawn back. The nose, also, as well as the jaw, of all the dog kind is longer than in the cat; the body is in proportion more strongly made, and covered with hair instead of fur. There are many internal distinctions also—as in the intestines, which are much longer in the dog kind than in those of the cat; the eye is not formed for night vision; and the olfactory nerves are diffused in the dog kinds upon a very extensive membrane within the skull.

If we compare the natural habitudes of this class with the former, we shall find that the dog kinds are not so solitary as those of the cat, but love to hunt in company, and encourage each other with their mutual cries. In this manner the dog and the jackal pursue their prey; and the wolf and the fox, which are of this kind, though more solitary and silent among us, yet in countries where less persecuted, and where they can more fearlessly display their natural inclinations, they are found to keep together in packs, and pursue their game with alternate howlings.

Animals of the dog kind want some of the advantages of the cat kind, and yet are possessed of others in which the latter are deficient. Upon observing their claws, it will easily be perceived that they cannot like cats pursue their prey up the sides of a tree, and continue the chase among the branches: their unmanageable claws cannot stick in the bark, and thus support the body up along the trunk, as we see the cat very easily perform; whenever, therefore, their prey flies up a tree from them they can only follow it with their eyes, or watch its motions till hunger again brings it to the ground. For this reason the proper prey of the dog kind are only those animals that, like themselves, are unfitted for climbing—the hare, the rabbit, the gazelle, or the roebuck.

As they are in this respect inferior to the cat, so they exceed it in the sense of smelling, by which alone they pursue their prey with certainty of success, wind it through all its mazes, and tire it down by perseverance. It often happens, however, in the savage state, that their prey is either too much diminished or too wary to serve for a sufficient supply. In this case, when driven to an extremity, all the dog kinds can live for some time upon fruits and vegetables, which, if they do not please the palate, at least serve to appease their hunger.

Of all this tribe the dog has every reason to claim the preference, being the most intelligent of all known quadrupeds, and the acknowledged friend of mankind. The dog—independent of the beauty of his form, his vivacity, force, and swiftness—is possessed of all those qualifications that can conciliate the affections of man, and make the tyrant a protector. A natural share of courage, an angry and ferocious disposition, renders the dog in its savage state a formidable enemy to all other animals; but these readily give way to very different qualities in the domestic dog, whose only ambition seems the desire to please; he is seen to come crouching along, to lay his force, his courage, and all his useful talents at the feet of his master; he waits his orders, to which he pays implicit obedience; he consults his looks, and a single glance is sufficient to put him in motion; he is more faithful even than the most boasted among men: he is constant in his affections, friendly without interest, and grateful for the slightest favours; much more mindful of benefits received than injuries offered; he is not

driven off by unkindness; he still continues humble, submissive, and imploring—his only hope to be serviceable, his only terror to displease; he licks the hand that has been just lifted to strike him, and at last disarms resentment by submissive perseverance.

More docile than man, more obedient than any other animal, he is not only instructed in a short time, but he also conforms to the dispositions and the manners of those who command him. He takes his tone from the house he inhabits; like the rest of the domestics, he is disdainful among the great, and churlish among clowns. Always assiduous in serving his master, and only a friend to his friends, he is indifferent to all the rest, and declares himself openly against such as seem to be dependent like himself. He knows a beggar by his clothes, by his voice, or his gestures, and forbids his approach. When at night the guard of the house is committed to his care, he seems proud of the charge; he continues a watchful sentinel; he goes his rounds, scents strangers at a distance, and gives them warning of his being on duty. If they attempt to break in upon his territories he becomes more fierce, flies at them, threatens, fights, and either conquers alone, or alarms those who have most interest in coming to his assistance; however, when he has conquered, he quietly reposes upon the spoil, and abstains from what he has deterred others from abusing—giving thus at once a lesson of courage, temperance, and fidelity.

From hence we see of what importance this animal is to us in a state of nature. Supposing for a moment that the species had not existed, how could man without the assistance of the dog have been able to conquer, tame, and reduce to servitude every other animal? How could he discover, chase, and destroy those that were noxious to him? In order to be secure, and to become master of all Animated Nature, it was necessary for him to begin by making a friend of a part of them—to attach such of them to himself by kindness and caresses as seem fittest for obedience and active pursuit. Thus the first art employed by man was in conciliating the favour of the dog; and the fruits of this art were the conquest and peaceable possession of the earth.

The generality of animals have greater agility, greater swiftness, and more formidable arms from Nature than man; their senses, and particularly that of smelling, are far more perfect; the having gained, therefore, a new assistant, particularly one whose scent is so exquisite as that of the dog, was the gaining a new sense—a new faculty which before was wanting. The machines and instruments which we have imagined for perfecting the rest of the senses do not approach to that already prepared by Nature, by which we are enabled to find out every animal though unseen, and thus destroy the noxious and use the serviceable.

The dog, thus useful in himself, taken into a participation of empire, exerts a degree of superiority over all animals that require human protection. The flock and the herd obey his voice more readily even than that of the shepherd or the herdsman; he conducts them, guards them, keeps them from capriciously seeking danger, and their enemies he considers as his own. Nor is he less useful in the pursuit; when the sound of the horn or the voice of the huntsman calls him to the field, he testifies his pleasure by every little art, and pursues with perseverance those animals which when taken he must not expect to divide. The desire of hunting is indeed natural to him as well as to his master, since war and the chase are the only employment of savages. All animals that live upon flesh hunt by nature; the lion and the tiger, whose force is so great that they are sure to conquer, hunt alone and without art; the wolf, the fox, and the wild dog hunt in packs, assist each other, and partake the spoil. But when education has perfected this talent in the domestic dog—and when he has been taught by man to repress his ardour, to measure his

motions, and not to exhaust his force by too sudden an exertion of it, he then hunts with method, and always with success.

Although the wild dog, such as he was before he came under the protection of mankind, is at present utterly unknown, no such animal being now to be found in any part of the world, yet there are many that from a domestic state have turned savage, and entirely pursue the dictates of Nature. In those deserted and uncultivated countries where the dog is found wild they seem entirely to partake of the disposition of the wolf; they unite in large bodies, and attack the most formidable animals of the forest—the cougar, the panther, and the bison. In America, where they were originally brought by the Europeans and abandoned by their masters, they have multiplied to such a degree that they spread in packs over the whole country, attack all other animals, and even man himself does not pass without insult. They are there treated in the same manner as all other carnivorous animals, and killed wherever they happen to come; however, they are easily tamed; when taken home, and treated with kindness and lenity, they quickly become submissive and familiar, and continue faithfully attached to their masters. They differ in this from the wolf or the fox—who, though taken never so young, are gentle only while cubs, and as they grow older give themselves up to their natural appetites of rapine and cruelty. In short, it may be asserted that the dog is the only animal whose fidelity is unshaken—the only one who knows his master and the friends of the family—the only one who instantly distinguishes a stranger—the only one who knows his name and answers to the domestic call—the only one who seems to understand the nature of subordination, and seeks assistance—the only one who when he misses his master testifies his loss by his complaints—the only one who, carried to a distant place, can find the way home—the only one whose natural talents are evident, and whose education is always successful.

In the same manner, as the dog is of the most complying disposition, so also is it the most susceptible of change in its form—the varieties of this animal being too many for even the most careful describer to mention. The climate, the food, and the education, all make strong impressions upon the animal, and produce alterations in its shape, its colour, its hair its size, and in everything but its nature. The same dog, taken from one climate and brought to another, seems to become another animal; but different breeds are as much separated to all appearance as any two animals the most distinct in nature. Nothing appears to continue constant with them but their internal conformation—different in the figure of the body, in the length of the nose, in the shape of the head, in the length and direction of the ears and tail, in the colour, the quality, and the quantity of the hair; in short, different in everything but that make of the parts which serve to continue the species, and keep the animal distinct from all others. It is this peculiar conformation, this power of producing an animal that can reproduce, that marks the kind, and approximates forms that at first sight seem never made for conjunction.

From this single consideration, therefore, we may at once pronounce all dogs to be of one kind; but which of them is the original of all the rest, which of them is the savage dog from whence such a variety of descendants have come down, is no easy matter to determine. We may easily, indeed, observe, that all those animals which are under the influence of man are subject to great variations. Such as have been sufficiently independent so as to choose their own climate, their own nourishment, and to pursue their own habitudes, preserve the original marks of Nature without much deviation; and it is probable that the first of these is even at this day very well represented in their descendants. But such as man has subdued—transported from one climate to another, con-

trolled in their manner of living and their food—have most probably been changed also in their forms; particularly the dog has felt these alterations more strongly than any other of the domestic kinds; for, living more like man, he may be thus said to live more irregularly also, and, consequently, must have felt all those changes that such variety would naturally produce. Some other causes may also be assigned for this variety in the species of the dog: as he is perpetually under the eye of his master, when accident has produced any singularity in its productions, man uses all his art to continue this peculiarity unchanged—either by breeding from such as had these singularities, or by destroying such as happened to want them; besides, as the dog produces much more frequently than some other animals, and lives a shorter time, so the chance for its varieties will be offered in greater proportion.

But which is the original animal and which the artificial or accidental variety is a question which, as was said, is not easily resolved. If the internal structure of dogs of different sorts be compared with each other, it will be found, except in point of size, that in this respect they are exactly the same. This, therefore, affords no criterion. If other animals be compared with the dog internally, the wolf and the fox will be found to have the most perfect resemblance; it is probable, therefore, that the dog, which most nearly resembles the wolf or the fox externally, is the original of its kind; for it is natural to suppose, that as the dog most nearly resembles them internally, so he may be near them in external resemblance also, except where art or accident has altered his form. This being supposed, if we look among the number of varieties to be found in the dog, we shall not find one so like the wolf or the fox as that which is called the "shepherd's dog." This is that dog with long coarse hair on all parts except the nose, pricked ears, and a long nose, which is common enough among us, and receives his name from being principally used in guarding and attending on sheep. This seems to be the primitive animal of his kind; and we shall be the more confirmed in this opinion if we attend to the different characters which climate produces in this animal, and the different races of dogs which are propagated in every country: in the first place, if we examine those countries which are still savage or but half civilised—where it is most probable the dog, like his master, has received but few impressions from Art—we shall find the shepherd's dog, or one very like him, still prevailing amongst them. The dogs that have run wild in America and in Congou approach this form. The dog of Siberia, Lapland, and Iceland—of the Cape of Good Hope, of Madagascar, Madura, Calicut, and Malabar—have all long noses, pricked ears, and closely resemble the shepherd's dog. In Guinea, the dog speedily takes this form; for at the second or third generation the animal forgets to bark, his ears and his tail become pointed, and his hair drops off, while a coarser, thinner kind comes in the place. This sort of dog is also to be found in the temperate climates in great abundance, particularly among those who, preferring usefulness to beauty, employ an animal that requires very little instruction to be serviceable. Notwithstanding this creature's deformity, his melancholy and savage air, he is superior to all the rest of his kind in instinct; and, without any teaching, naturally takes to tending flocks, with an assiduity and vigilance that at once astonishes and yet relieves his master.

In more polished and civilised places the dog seems to partake of the universal refinement; and, like the men, becomes more beautiful, more majestic, and more capable of assuming an education foreign to his nature. The dogs of Albany, of Greece, of Denmark, and of Ireland are larger and stronger than those of any other kind. In France, Germany, Spain, and Italy the dogs are of various kinds, like the men; and this variety seems

formed by crossing the breed of such as are imported from various climates.

The shepherd's dog may therefore be considered as the primitive stock from whence these varieties are all derived: he makes the stem of that genealogical tree which has been branched out into every part of the world. This animal still continues pretty nearly in its original state among the poor in temperate climates; being transported into the colder regions, he grows less and more ugly among the Laplanders, but becomes more perfect in Iceland, Russia, and Siberia, where the climate is less rigorous and the people more civilised. Whatever differences there may be among the dogs of these countries they are not very considerable, as they have all straight ears, long and thick hair, a savage aspect, and do not bark either so often or so loud as dogs of the more cultivated kind.

The shepherd's dog, transported into the temperate climates, and among people entirely civilised, such as England, France, and Germany, will be divested of his savage air, his pricked ears, his rough, long, and thick hair, and from the single influences of climate and food alone, will become either a *matin*, a *mastiff*, or a hound. These three seem the immediate descendants of the former; and from them the other varieties are produced.

The "hound," the "harrier," and the "beagle" seem all of the same kind; for although the bitch is covered but by one of them, yet in her litters are found puppies resembling all the three. This animal, transported into Spain or Barbary, where the hair of all quadrupeds becomes soft and long, will be there converted into the land-spaniel and the water-spaniel, and these of different sizes.

The "grey *matin* hound," which is in the second branch, transported to the north, becomes the great Danish dog; and, sent into the south, it becomes the greyhound of different sizes. The same, transported into Ireland, the Ukraine, Tartary, Epirus, or Albany, becomes the great wolf-dog, known by the name of the "Irish wolf-dog."

The "mastiff," which is the third branch, and chiefly a native of England, when transported into Denmark becomes the little Danish dog; and this little Danish dog, sent into the tropical and warm climates, becomes the animal called the "Turkish dog," without hair. All these races, with their varieties, are produced by the influence of climate, joined to the different food, education, and shelter which they have received among mankind. All other kinds may be considered as mongrel races produced by the concurrence of these, and found rather by crossing the breed than by attending to the individual. As these are extremely numerous and very different in different countries, it would be almost endless to mention the whole; besides, nothing but experience can ascertain the reality of these conjectures, although they have so much the appearance of probability; and until that gives more certain information we must be excused from entering more minutely into the subject.

With regard to the dogs of our country in particular, the varieties are very great, and the number every day increasing. And this must happen in a country so open by commerce to all others, and where wealth is apt to produce capricious predilection. Here the ugliest and the most useless of their kinds will be entertained merely for their singularity; and, being imported only to be looked at, they will lose even that small degree of sagacity which they possessed in their natural climates. From this importation of useless foreign dogs our own native breed is, I am informed, greatly degenerated, and the varieties now to be found in England are much more numerous than in the time of Queen Elizabeth, when Dr. Caius attempted their natural history. Some of those he mentions are no longer to be found among us, although many have since been introduced which

are by no means so serviceable as those that have been suffered to decay.

He divides the whole race into three kinds. The first is the generous kind, which consists of the terrier, the harrier, and the blood-hound—the gaze-hound, the greyhound, the leymmer, and the tumbler; all these are used for hunting. Then the spaniel, the setter, and the water-spaniel or finder, were used for fowling; and the spaniel-gentle or lap-dog for amusement. The second is the farm kind, consisting of the shepherd's dog and the mastiff. And the third is the mongrel kind, consisting of the wappe, the turnspit, and the dancer. To these varieties we may add at present the bull-dog, the Dutch mastiff, the harlequin, the pointer, and the Dane, with a variety of lap-dogs, which, as they are perfectly useless, may be considered as unworthy of a name.

The terrier is a small kind of hound, with rough hair, made use of to force the fox or the badger out of their holes—or rather, to give notice by their barking in what part of their kennel the fox or the badger resides when the sportsmen intend to dig them out.

The harrier as well as the beagle and the fox-hound is used for hunting; of all other animals they have the quickest and most distinguishing sense of smelling. The properly breeding, matching, and training these make up the business of many men's lives.

The blood-hound was a dog of great use and in high esteem among our ancestors. Its employ was to recover any game that had escaped from the hunter, or had been killed or stolen out of the forest. But it was still more employed in hunting thieves and robbers by their footsteps. At that time, when the country was less peopled than at present, and when, consequently, the footsteps of one man was less crossed and obliterated by those of others, this animal was very serviceable in such pursuits: but at present, when the country is everywhere peopled, this variety is quite worn out—probably because it was found of less service than formerly.

The gaze-hound hunted, like our greyhounds, by the eye and not by the scent. It chased indifferently the fox, hare, or buck. It would select from the herd the fattest and fairest deer, pursue it by the eye, and if lost recover it again with amazing sagacity. This species is now lost or unknown among us.

The greyhound is very well known at present, and was formerly held in such estimation that it was the peculiar companion of a gentleman, who in the times of semi-barbarism was known by his horse, his hawk, and his greyhound. Persons under a certain rank of life are forbidden from keeping this animal; wherefore to disguise it the better they cut off its tail.

The leymmer is a species now unknown to us. It hunted both by scent and sight, and was led in a leyme or thong, from whence it received its name.

The tumbler was less than the hound, more scraggy, and had pricked ears; so that by the description it seems to answer to the modern lurcher. This took its prey by mere cunning, depending neither on the goodness of its nose nor its swiftness. If it came into a warren it neither barked nor ran on the rabbits; but, seemingly inattentive, approached sufficiently near till it came within reach, and then seized them by a sudden spring.

The land-spaniel—which probably had its name from Spain, where it might have acquired the softness of its hair—is well known at present. There are two varieties of this kind—namely, the slater, used in hawking to spring the game; and the setter, that crouches down when he scents the birds till the net be drawn over them. I have read somewhere that the famous poet, Lord Surrey, was the first who taught dogs to set—it being an amusement to this day only known in England.

The water-spaniel was another species used in fowling. This seems to be the most docile of all the dog kind; and this docility is particularly owing to his natural attachment to man. Many other kinds will not bear

correction; but this patient creature, though very fierce to strangers, seems unalterable in his affections, and blows and ill usage seem only to increase his regard.

The lap-dog, in the time of Dr. Caius, was of Maltese breed; at present it comes from different countries; in general, the more awkward or extraordinary these are the more they are prized.

The shepherd's dog has been already mentioned; and as for the mastiff, he is too common to require a description. Dr. Caius informs us that three of these were reckoned a match for a bear, and four for a lion. However, we are told that three of them overcame a lion in the time of King James the First; two of them being disabled in the combat, the third obliged the lion to seek for safety by flight.

As to the last division, namely, of the wrappe, the turnspit, and the dancier, these were mongrels of no certain shape, and made use of only to alarm the family, or, being taught a variety of tricks, were carried about as a show.

With regard to those of later importation, the bull-dog, as Mr. Buffon supposes, is a breed between the small Dane and the English mastiff. The large Dane is the tallest dog that is generally bred in England. It is somewhat between a mastiff and a greyhound in shape, being more slender than the one and much stronger than the other. They are chiefly used rather for show than service, being good neither in the yard nor the field. The highest are most esteemed; and they generally cut off their ears to improve their figure, as some absurdly suppose. The harlequin is not much unlike the small Dane, being an useless animal, somewhat between an Italian greyhound and a Dutch mastiff. To these several others might be added, such as the pug-dog, the black breed, and the pointer; but, in fact, the varieties are so numerous as to fatigue even the most ardent curiosity.

Of those of the foreign kind I shall mention only three, which are more remarkable than any of the rest. The lion-dog greatly resembles that animal in miniature, from whence it takes the name. The hair of the fore-part of its body is extremely long, while that of the hinder part is as short. The nose is short, the tail long, and tufted at the point, so that in all these particulars it is entirely like the lion. However, it differs very much from that fierce animal in nature and disposition, being one of the smallest animals of its kind, extremely feeble, timid, and inactive. It comes originally from Malta, where it is found so small that women carry it about in their sleeves.

That animal falsely called the "Turkish dog" differs greatly from the rest of the kind, in being entirely without hair. The skin, which is perfectly bare, is of a flesh-colour, with brown spots; and their figure at first view is rather disgusting. These seem to be of the small Danish breed, brought into a warm climate, and there, by a succession of generations, divested of their hair. For this reason they are extremely chilly, and unable to endure the cold of our climate; and even in the midst of summer they continue to shiver as we see men do in a frosty day. Their spots are brown, as was said, well-marked, and easily distinguishable in summer, but in the cold of winter they entirely disappear. They are called the Turkish breed, although brought from a much warmer climate; for some of them have been known to come from the warmest parts of Africa and the East Indies.

The last variety, and the most wonderful of all that I shall mention, is the great Irish wolf-dog, that may be considered as the first of the canine species. This animal, which is very rare even in the only country in the world where it is to be found, is rather kept for show than use, there being neither wolves nor any other formidable beasts of prey in Ireland that seem to require so powerful an antagonist. The wolf-dog is therefore bred up in the houses of the great, or such gentlemen as

choose to keep him as a curiosity, being neither good for hunting the hare, the fox, or the stag, and equally un-serviceable as a house-dog. Nevertheless he is extremely beautiful and majestic in appearance, being the greatest of the dog kind to be seen in the world. The largest of those I have seen, and I have seen above a dozen, was about four feet high, or as tall as a calf of a year old. He was made extremely like a greyhound, but rather more robust, and inclining to the figure of the French *matin* or the great Dane. His eye was mild, his colour white, and his nature seemed heavy and phlegmatic. This I ascribed to his having been bred up to a size beyond his nature; for we see in man and all other animals that such as are overgrown are neither so vigorous nor alert as those of more moderate stature. The greatest pains have been taken with these to enlarge the breed, both by food and matching. This end was effectually obtained, indeed, for the size was enormous, but, as it seemed to me, at the expense of the animal's fierceness, vigilance, and sagacity. However, I was informed otherwise—the gentlemen who bred them assuring me that a mastiff would be nothing when opposed to one of them, who generally seized their antagonist by the back; he added, that they would worry the strongest bull-dogs to death in a few minutes. But this strength did not appear either in their figure or their inclinations; they seemed rather more timid than the ordinary race of dogs; and their skin was much thinner, and consequently less fitted for combat. Whether with these disadvantages they were capable, as I was told, of singly coping with bears, others may determine; however, they have but few opportunities in their own country of exerting their strength, as all wild carnivorous animals there are only of the vermin kind. Mr. Buffon seems to be of opinion that these are the true Molossian dogs of the ancients; he gives no reason for this opinion; and I am apt to think it ill-grounded. Not to trouble the reader with a tedious critical disquisition, which I have all along avoided, it will be sufficient to observe that Nemesianus, in giving directions for the choice of a bitch, advises to have one of Spartan or Molossian breed; and, among several other perfections, he says that the ears should be dependent, and fluctuate as she runs. This, however, is by no means the case with the Irish wolf-dog, whose ears resemble those of the greyhound, and are far from fluctuating with the animal's motions. But of whatever kinds these dogs may be, whether known among the ancients or whether produced by a later mixture, they are now almost quite worn away, and are very rarely to be met with even in Ireland. If carried to other countries they soon degenerate; and even at home, unless great care be taken, they quickly alter. They were once employed in clearing the island of wolves, which infested it in great plenty; but these being destroyed the dogs also are wearing away, as if Nature meant to blot out the species when they had no longer any service to perform.

In this manner several kinds of animals fade from the face of Nature that were once well known, but are now seen no longer. The enormous elk of the same kingdom—which by its horns could not have been less than eleven feet high—the wolf, and even the wolf-dog, are extinct, or only continued in such a manner as to prove their former plenty and existence. From hence, it is probable that many of the nobler kinds of dogs of which the ancients have given us such beautiful descriptions are now utterly unknown; since among the whole breed we have not one that will venture to engage the lion or the tiger in single combat. The English bull-dog is perhaps the bravest of the kind; but what are his most boasted exploits to those mentioned of the Epirotic dogs by Pliny, or the Indian dogs by Ælian? The latter gives us a description of a combat between a dog and a lion, which I will take leave to translate:—

When Alexander was pursuing his conquests in India,

one of the principal men of that country was desirous of showing him the value of the dogs which that country produced. Bringing his dog into the king's presence he ordered a stag to be let loose before him, which the dog despised as an unworthy enemy, remained quite regardless of the animal, and never once stirred from his place. His master then ordered a wild boar to be set out; but the dog thought even this a despicable foe, and remained calm and regardless as before. He was next tried with a bear; but, still despising his enemy, he only waited for an object more worthy of his courage and his force. At last they brought forth an enormous lion, and then the dog acknowledged his antagonist and prepared for combat. He instantly discovered a degree of ungovernable ardour, and, flying at the lion with fury, seized him by the throat, and totally disabled him from resistance. Upon this, the Indian, who was desirous of surprising the king, and knowing the constancy and bravery of his dog, ordered his tail to be cut off—which was easily performed, as the bold animal was employed in holding the lion. He next ordered one of his legs to be broken—which, however, did not in the least abate the dog's ardour, but he still kept his hold as before. Another leg was then broken; but the dog, as if he had suffered no pain, only pressed the lion still the more. In this cruel manner, all his legs were cut off without abating his courage; and at last, when even his head was separated from his body, the jaws seemed to keep their former hold. A sight so cruel did not fail to affect the king with strong emotions, at once pitying the dog's fate and admiring his fortitude; upon which the Indian, seeing him thus moved, presented him with four dogs of the same kind, which in some measure alleviated his uneasiness for the former.

The breed of dogs, however, in that country is at present very much inferior to what this story seems to imply; since in many places instead of dogs they have animals of the cat kind for hunting. In other places, also, this admirable and faithful animal, instead of being applied to his natural uses, is only kept to be eaten. All over China there are dog-butchers, and shambles appointed for selling their flesh. In Canton in particular there is a street appropriated for that purpose; and, what is very extraordinary, wherever a dog-butcher appears all the dogs of the place make war upon him, and are sure to be in full cry after him; they know their enemy, and persecute him as far as they are able. But among this barbarous and brutal people scarce anything that has life comes amiss; and they may well take up with a dog, since they consider toads, lizards, and even the flesh of the tiger itself, as a dainty. It may, perhaps, happen that the flesh of this animal, which is so indifferent in the temperate climates, may assume a better quality in those which are more warm; but it is more than probable that the diversity is rather in man than in the flesh of the dog; since in the cold countries the flesh is eaten with equal appetite by the savages, and they have their dog-feasts in the same manner as we have ours for venison.

In our climate, the wild animals that most approach the dog are the wolf and the fox; these in their internal conformation greatly resemble each other, and yet in their natures are very distinct. The ancients asserted that they bred together; and I am assured by credible persons that there are many animals in this country bred between a dog and a fox. However, all the endeavours of Mr. Buffon to make them engender, as he assures us, were ineffectual. For this purpose he bred up a young wolf, taken in the woods at two months old, with a matin dog of the same age. They were shut up together without any other in a large yard, where they had a shelter for retiring. They neither of them knew any other individual of their kind, nor even any other man but he who had the charge of feeding them. In this manner they were kept for three years; still with the same attention, and

without constraining or tying them up. During the first year the young animals played with each other continually, and seemed to love each other very much. In the second year they began to dispute about their victuals, although they were given more than they could use. The quarrel always began on the wolf's side. They were brought their food, which consisted of flesh and bones, upon a large wooden platter, which was laid on the ground. Just as it was put down, the wolf, instead of falling to the meat, began by driving off the dog; and took the platter in its teeth so expertly, that it let nothing of what it contained fall upon the ground, and in this manner carried it off; but as the wolf could not entirely escape, it was frequently seen to run with the platter round the yard five or six times, still carrying it in a position that none of its contents could fall. In this manner it would continue running, only now and then stopping to take breath, until the dog coming up, the wolf would leave the victuals to attack him. The dog, however, was the stronger of the two, but as it was more gentle, in order to secure him from the wolf's attack he had a collar put round his neck. In the third year the quarrels of these ill-paired associates were more vehement and their combats more frequent; the wolf, therefore, had a collar put round its neck as well as the dog, who began to be more fierce and unmerciful. During the two first years neither seemed to testify the least tendency toward engendering; and it was not till the end of the third that the wolf, which was the female, showed the natural desire, but without abating either in its fierceness or obstinacy. This appetite rather increased than repressed their mutual animosity; they became every day more untractable and ferocious, and nothing was heard between them but sounds of rage and resentment. They both in less than three weeks became remarkably lean, without ever approaching each other but to combat. At length, their quarrels became so desperate that the dog killed the wolf, who was become more weak and feeble; and he was soon after himself obliged to be killed, for, upon being set at liberty, he instantly flew upon every animal he met—fowls, dogs, and even men themselves not escaping his savage fury.

The same experiments were tried upon foxes, taken young, but with no better success—they were never found to engender with dogs; and our learned naturalist seems to be of opinion that their natures are too opposite ever to provoke mutual desire. One thing, however, must be remarked, that the animals on which he tried his experiments were rather too old when taken, and had partly acquired their natural savage appetites before they came into his possession. The wolf, as he acknowledges, was two or three months old before it was caught, and the foxes were taken in traps. It may therefore be easily supposed that nothing could ever after thoroughly tame these creatures that had been suckled in the wild state, and had caught all the habitudes of the dam. I have seen these animals when taken earlier in the woods become very tame; and, indeed, they rather were displeasing by being too familiar than too shy. It were to be wished that the experiment were tried upon such as these; and it is more than probable that it would produce the desired success. Nevertheless, these experiments are sufficient to prove that neither the wolf nor the fox are of the same nature with the dog, but each of a species perfectly distinct, and their joint produce most probably unfruitful.

The dog when first whelped is not a completely finished animal. In this kind, as in all the rest that bring forth many at a time, the young are not so perfect as in those which bring forth one or two. They are always produced with the eyes closed, the lids being held together, not by sticking, but by a kind of thin membrane, which is torn as soon as the upper eye-lid becomes strong enough to raise it from the under. In general their eyes are not opened till ten or twelve days old. During that

time the bones of the skull are not completed, the body is puffed up, the nose is short, and the whole form but ill sketched out. In less than a month the puppy begins to use all its senses, and from thence makes hasty advances towards perfection. At the fourth month the dog loses some of his teeth, as in other animals, and these are renewed by such as never fall. The number of these amount to forty-two, which is twelve more than is found in any of the cat kind, which are known never to have above thirty. The teeth of the dog, being his great and only weapon, are formed in a manner much more serviceable than those of the former; and there is scarce any quadruped that has a greater facility in rending, cutting, or chewing its food. He cuts with his incisors or fore-teeth, he holds with his four great canine teeth, and he chews his meat with his grinders; these are fourteen in number, and so placed, that when the jaws are shut there remains a distance between them—so that the dog, by opening his mouth ever so wide, does not lose the power of his jaws. But it is otherwise in the cat kind, whose incisors or cutting-teeth are very small, and whose grinding-teeth when brought together touch more closely than those of the dog, and, consequently, have less power. Thus, for instance, I can squeeze anything more forcibly between my thumb and fore-finger, where the distance is greater, than between any other two fingers whose distance from each other is less.

This animal is capable of reproducing at the age of twelve months; goes nine weeks with young, and lives to about the age of twelve. Few quadrupeds are less delicate in their food; and yet there are many kinds of birds which the dog will not venture to touch. He is even known, although in a savage state, to abstain from injuring some which one might suppose he had every reason to oppose. The dogs and the vultures which live wild about Grand Cairo in Egypt (for the Mahometan law has expelled this useful animal from human society) continue together in a very sociable and friendly manner. As they are both useful in devouring such carcases as might otherwise putrefy, and thus infect the air, the inhabitants supply them with provisions every day in order to keep them near the city. Upon these occasions the quadrupeds and birds are often seen together, tearing the same piece of flesh without the least enmity; on the contrary, they are known to live together with a kind of affection, and bring up their young in the same nest.

Although the dog is a voracious animal, yet he can bear hunger for a long time. We have an instance in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences of this kind, in which a bitch, that had been forgotten in a country-house, lived forty days without any other nourishment than the wool of a quilt which she had torn in pieces. It would seem that water is more necessary for the dog than food; he drinks often but not abundantly; and it is commonly believed that when abridged in water he runs mad. This dreadful malady, the consequences of which are so well known, is the greatest inconvenience that results from the keeping this faithful domestic. But it is a disorder by no means so frequent as the terrors of the timorous would suppose; the dog has often been accused of madness without a fair trial; and some persons have been supposed to receive their deaths from his bite, when either their own ill-grounded fears or their natural disorders were the true cause.

THE WOLF.—The dog and the wolf are so very much alike internally, that the most expert anatomists can scarce perceive the difference; and it may be asserted, also, that externally some dogs more nearly resemble the wolf than they do each other. It was this strong similitude that first led some naturalists to consider them as the same animal and to look upon the wolf as the dog in its state of savage freedom: however, this opinion is

entertained no longer; the natural antipathy those two animals bear to each other—the longer time which the wolf goes with young than the dog, the one griving over a hundred days, and the other not quite sixty—the longer period of life in the former than the latter, the wolf living twenty years, the dog not fifteen—all sufficiently point out a distinction, and draw a line that must for ever keep them asunder.

The wolf from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail is about three feet seven inches long, and about two feet five inches high; which shows him to be larger than our great breed of mastiffs, which are seldom found to be above three feet by two. His colour is a mixture of black, brown, and grey, extremely rough and hard, but mixed towards the roots with a kind of ash-coloured fur. In comparing him to any of our well-known breed of dogs, the great Dane or mongrel greyhound, for instance, he will appear to have the legs shorter, the head larger, the muzzle thicker, the eyes smaller and more separated from each other, and the ears shorter and straighter. He appears in every respect stronger than the dog; and the length of his hair contributes still more to his robust appearance. The feature which principally distinguishes the visage of the wolf from that of the dog is the eye, which opens slantingly upwards in the same direction with the nose; whereas in the dog it opens more at right angles with the nose, as in man. The tail, also, in this animal is long and bushy; and he carries it rather more between his hind-legs than the dog is seen to do. The colour of the eye-balls in the wolf are of a fiery green, and give his visage a fierce and formidable air, which his natural disposition by no means contradicts.

The wolf is one of those animals whose appetite for animal food is the most vehement, and whose means of satisfying this appetite are the most various. Nature has furnished him with strength, cunning, agility, and all those requisites which fit an animal for pursuing, overtaking, and conquering its prey; and yet, with all these the wolf most frequently dies of hunger, for he is the declared enemy of man. Being long proscribed, and a reward offered for his head, he is obliged to fly from human habitations, and to live in the forest, where the few wild animals to be found there escape him either by their swiftness or their art; or are supplied in too small a proportion to satisfy his rapacity. He is naturally dull and cowardly; but being frequently disappointed, and as often reduced to the verge of famine, he becomes ingenious from want and courageous from necessity. When pressed with hunger he braves danger, and comes to attack those animals which are under the protection of man, particularly such as he can readily carry away—lambs, sheep, or even dogs themselves, for all animal food becomes then equally agreeable. When this excursion has succeeded he often returns to the charge, until having been wounded or hard pressed by the dogs or the shepherds, he hides himself by day in the thickest coverts, and only ventures out at night; he then sallies forth over the country, keeps peering round the villages, carries off such animals as are not under protection, attacks the sheep-folds, scratches up and undermines the thresholds of doors where they are housed, and worries and destroys all before he begins to fix upon and carry off his prey. When these sallies do not succeed he returns to the thickest part of the forest, content to pursue those smaller animals which, even when taken, afford him but a scanty supply. He there goes regularly to work, follows by the scent, opens to the view, still keeps following, hopeless himself of overtaking the prey, but expecting that some other wolf will come in to his assistance, and then content to share the spoil. At last, when his necessities are very urgent, he boldly faces certain destruction; he attacks women and children, and sometimes ventures even to fall upon men, becomes furious by his continual agitations, and ends his life in madness.

The wolf, as well externally as internally, so nearly resembles the dog that he seems modelled upon the same plan; and yet he only offers the reverse of the medal. If his form be like, his nature is so different, that he only preserves the ill qualities of the dog without any of his good ones. Indeed, they are so different in their dispositions that no two animals can have a more perfect antipathy to each other. A young dog shudders at the sight of a wolf; he even shuns his scent, which, though unknown, is so repugnant to his nature, that he comes trembling to take protection near his master. A dog who is stronger, and who knows his strength, bristles up at the sight, testifies his animosity, attacks him with courage, endeavours to put him to flight, and does all in his power to rid himself of a presence that is hateful to him. They never meet without either flying or fighting—fighting for life and death, and without mercy on either side. If the wolf is the stronger he tears and devours his prey; the dog, on the contrary, is more generous, and contents himself with his victory; he does not seem to think that "the body of a dead enemy smells well;" he leaves him where he falls, to serve as food for birds of prey or for other wolves, since they devour each other; and when one wolf happens to be desperately wounded the rest track him by his blood, and are sure to show him no mercy.

The dog even in his savage state is not cruel; he is easily tamed; and continues firmly attached to his master. The wolf when taken young becomes tame, but never has any attachment: Nature is stronger in him than education; he resumes with age his natural dispositions, and returns as soon as he can to the woods from whence he was taken. Dogs, even of the dullest kinds, seek the company of other animals; they are naturally disposed to follow and accompany other creatures not of their own genus; and even by instinct, without any education, take to the care of flocks and herds. The wolf, on the contrary, is the enemy of all society; he does not even keep much company with those of his own kind. When they are seen in packs together it is not to be considered as a peaceful assemblage, but a combination for war; they testify their hostile intentions by their loud howlings, and by their fierceness discover a project for attacking some great animal, such as a stag or a bull, or to destroy some redoubtable watchdog. The instant their war-like expedition is completed their society is at an end; they then part, and each returns to his solitary retreat. There is not even any strong attachment between the male and the female; they seek each other only once a year, and remain but a few days together; they always couple in winter—at which time several males are seen following one female, and this association is still more bloody than the former: they dispute violently—growl, bark, fight, and tear each other; and it sometimes happens that the majority kill the wolf which has been preferred by the female. It is usual for the she-wolf to fly from them all with him she has chosen, and watches her opportunity when the rest are asleep.

The season for coupling does not continue above twelve or fifteen days, and usually commences among the oldest—those which are young being later in their desires. The males have no fixed time for engendering; they pass from one female to the other, beginning at the end of December, and ending at the latter end of February. The time of pregnancy is about three months and a half; and the young wolves are found from the latter end of April to the beginning of July. The long continuance of the wolf's pregnancy is sufficient to make a distinction between it and the dog, did not also the fiery fierceness of the eyes, the howl instead of barking, and the greater duration of its life, leave no doubt of its being an animal of its own particular species. In other respects, however, they are entirely alike; the wolf couples exactly like the dog, the parts are

formed in the same manner, and their separation hindered by the same cause. When the she-wolves are near their time of bringing forth they seek some very tufted spot in the thickest part of the forest; in the middle of this they make a small opening, cutting away the thorns and briars with their teeth, and afterwards carrying thither a great quantity of moss, which they form into a bed for their young ones. They generally bring forth five or six, and sometimes even nine, at a litter. The cubs are brought forth, like those of the bitch, with the eyes closed; the dam suckles them for some weeks, and teaches them betimes to eat flesh, which she prepares for them by chewing it first herself. Some time afterwards she brings them stronger food—hares, partridges, and birds yet alive. The young wolves begin by playing with them, and end by killing them. The dam then stripes them of their feathers, tears them in pieces, and gives to each of them a share. They do not leave the den where they have been littered till they are six weeks or two months old. They then follow the old one, who leads them to drink to the trunk of some old tree where the water has settled, or at some pool in the neighbourhood. If she apprehends any danger she instantly conceals them in the first convenient place, or brings them back to their former retreat. In this manner they follow her for some months; when they are attacked she defends them with all her strength, and more than usual ferocity. Although at other times more timorous than the male, at that season she becomes bold and fearless—solicitous, perhaps, to teach the young ones future courage by her own example. It is not till they are about ten or twelve months old, when they have shed the old teeth and completed the new, that she thinks them in a capacity to shift for themselves. Then, when they have acquired arms from Nature, and have learned industry and courage from her example, she declines all future care of them, being again engaged in bringing up a new progeny.

The males and females are in a capacity to engender when two years old. It is probable that the females of this species, as well as of most others, are sooner completed than the males; but this is certain, that they never desire to copulate until their second winter; from whence we may suppose that they live fifteen or twenty years; for, allowing three years for their complete growth, this multiplied by seven gives them a life of twenty-one—most animals, as has been observed, living about seven times the number of years which it takes them to come to perfection. Of this, however, there is as yet no certainty, no more than of what huntamen assert—that in all the litters there are more males than females. From them we also learn that there are some of the males who attach themselves to the female, who accompany her during her gestation until the time of bringing forth, when she hides the place of her retreat from the male lest he should devour her cubs; but after this, when they are brought forth, that he then takes the same care of them as the female, carries them provisions, and, if the dam should happen to be killed, rears them up in her stead.

The wolf grows grey as he grows old, and his teeth wear, like those of most other animals, by using. He sleeps when his belly is full or when he is fatigued, rather by day than night; and, like the dog, is very easily waked. He drinks frequently; and in times of draught, when there is no water to be found in the trunks of old trees or in the pools about the forest, he comes often in the day down to the brooks or the lakes in the plain. Although very voracious he supports hunger for a long time, and often lives four or five days without food, provided he be supplied with water.

The wolf has great strength, particularly in his fore parts, in the muscles of his neck and jaws. He carries off a sheep in his mouth without letting it touch the ground, and runs with it much swifter than the shepherds

who pursue him; so that nothing but the dogs can overtake and oblige him to quit his prey. He bites cruelly, and always with greater vehemence in proportion as he is least resisted; for he uses precautions with such animals as attempt to stand upon the defensive. He is ever cowardly, and never fights but when under the necessity of satisfying hunger or making good his retreat. When he is wounded by a bullet he is heard to cry out; and yet, when surrounded by the peasants and attacked with clubs, he never howls as the dog under correction, but defends himself in silence, and dies as hard as he lived.

His nature is, in fact, more savage than that of the dog; he has less sensibility and greater strength. He travels, runs, and keeps plundering for whole days and nights together. He is in a manner indefatigable; and perhaps of all animals he is the most difficult to be hunted down. The dog is good natured and courageous; the wolf, though savage, is ever fearful. If he happens to be caught in a pit-fall he is for some time so frightened and astonished that he may be killed without offering to resist, or taken alive without much danger. At that moment one may clap a collar round his neck, muzzle him, and drag him along, without his giving the least signs of anger or resentment. At all other times he has his senses in great perfection—his eye, his ear, and particularly his sense of smelling, which is even superior to the two former. He smells a carcase at more than a league's distance; he also perceives living animals a great way off, and follows them a long time on the scent. Whenever he leaves the wood he always takes care to go out against the wind. When just come to its extremity, he stops on all sides to examine by his smell the emanations that may come either from his enemy or his prey, which he very nicely distinguishes. He prefers those animals which he kills himself to those he finds dead; and yet he does not disdain these when no better is to be had. He is particularly fond of human flesh—and, no doubt, if he was sufficiently powerful he would eat no other. Wolves have been seen following armies, and arriving in numbers on the field of battle, where they devoured such dead bodies as were left upon the field or but negligently interred. These, when once accustomed to human flesh, ever seek particularly to attack mankind, and choose to fall upon the shepherd rather than his flock. We have had a late instance of two or three of these keeping a whole province for more than a month in a continual alarm.

It sometimes happens that a whole country is called out to extirpate these most dangerous invaders. The hunting the wolf is a favourite diversion among the great in some countries; and it must be admitted it seems to be the most rational of any. These animals are distinguished by the huntsmen into the "young wolf," the "old wolf," and the "great wolf." They are known by the prints of their feet—the older the wolf the larger the track he leaves; that of the female is narrower and longer than that of the male. It is necessary to have a good starter to put up the wolf; and it is even convenient to use every art to encourage him in this pursuit—for all dogs have a natural repugnance to this animal, and are but cold in their endeavours. When the wolf is once put up it is then proper to have greyhounds to let fly at him, in leashes, one after the other. The first leash is sent after him in the beginning, accompanied by a man on horseback; the second is let loose about half a mile further, and the third when the rest of the dogs come up with and begin to bait him. He for a long time keeps them off, stands his ground, threatens them on all sides, and frequently gets away; but usually the hunters arrive in aid of the dogs, and despatch him with their outlasses. When the animal is killed the dogs testify no appetite to enjoy their victory, but leave him where he falls—a loathsome and hideous spectacle even in death.

The wolf is also sometimes hunted with harriers; but as he always goes straight forward, and often holds his speed for a whole day together, this kind of chase is tedious and disagreeable, at least if the harriers are not assisted by greyhounds, who may harass him at every view. Several other arts have also been used to take and destroy this noxious animal. He is surrounded and wounded by men and large house-dogs; he is inveigled into traps; he is poisoned by carcases prepared for that purpose; and is caught in pit-falls. Gæner tells us of a friar, a woman, and a wolf being taken in one of these all in the same night. The woman lost her reason through fright, the friar his reputation, and the wolf his life. All these disasters, however, do not prevent this animal's multiplying in great numbers, particularly in countries where woods abound. France, Spain, and Italy are greatly infested with them; but England, Ireland, and Scotland are happily set free.

King Edgar is said to have been the first who endeavoured to rid this country of such disagreeable inmates, by commuting the punishment for certain crimes into the acceptance of a number of wolves' tongues from each criminal. However, some centuries after these animals increased to such a degree as to again become the object of royal attention; accordingly, Edward I. issued out his mandate to one Peter Corbet to superintend and assist in their destruction. They are said to have infested Ireland long after they were extirpated in England. The oldest men in that country, however, remember nothing of these animals; and it is probable that there have been none there for more than a century past. Scotland is similarly situated.

The colour of this animal differs according to the different climates where it is bred, and often changes even in the same country. Beside the common wolves which are found in France and Germany, there are others with thicker hair, inclining to yellow. These are more savage and less noxious than the former, approaching neither flocks nor habitations, and living rather by the chase than rapine. In the northern climates they are found some quite black, and some white all over. The black wolves are larger and stronger than those of any other kind.

The species is very much diffused in every part of the world, being found in Asia, Africa, and in America, as well as Europe. The wolves of Senegal resemble those of France, except that they are larger and much fiercer than those of Europe. Those of Egypt are smaller than those of Greece. In the East the wolf is trained up for a show, being taught to dance and play tricks; one of these thus educated often sells for four or five hundred crowns. It is said that in Lapland this animal will never attack a rein-deer that is haltered; for they are so well acquainted with the nature of a trap that they suspect one whenever they perceive a rope. However, when they see the deer at liberty they seldom fail to destroy it.

The wolf of North America is blacker and much less than those in other parts of the world, and approaches nearer to the dog in form than those of the ordinary kind. In fact, they were made use of as such by the savages till the Europeans introduced others; and even now, on the remoter shores or the more inland parts of the country, the savages still make use of these animals in hunting. They are very tame and gentle; and those that are wild are neither so large nor so fierce as an European wolf—nor do they ever attack mankind. They go together by night in large packs to hunt the deer, which they do as well as any dogs in England; and it is confidently asserted that one of them is sufficient to run down a deer. Whenever they are seen along the banks of those rivers near which the wandering natives pitch their huts, it is taken for granted that the bison or the deer are not far off; and the savages affirm that the wolves come with the tidings in order to

have the garbage after the animal has been killed by the hunters. Catesby adds a circumstance relative to these animals which, if true, invalidates many of Mr Buffon's observations. He asserts that, these being the only dogs used by the Americans before the arrival of the Europeans among them, they have since engendered together, and that their breed has become prolific; which proves the dog and the wolf to be of the same species. It were to be wished that this opinion were better ascertained, and we should then know to a certainty in what degree the dog and wolf resemble each other, as well in nature as in conformation; we might then, perhaps, be enabled to improve the breed of our dogs by bringing them back to their native forms and instincts; we might, by crossing the strain, restore that race of those bold animals which the ancients assure us were more than a match for the lion.

However this animal may be useful in North America, the wolf of Europe is a very noxious animal, and scarce anything belonging to him is good except his skin, of which the furriers make a covering that is warm and durable, though coarse and unsightly. His flesh is very indifferent, and seems to be disliked by all other animals, no other creature being known to eat wolves' flesh except the wolf himself. He emits a most fetid vapour from his jaws, as his food is indiscriminate, often putrid, and seldom cleanly. In short, every way offensive—a hideous howl, an unbearable odour, a perverse disposition, and fierce habits—he is hateful while living and useless when dead.

THE FOX.—The fox exactly resembles the wolf and the dog internally; and although he differs greatly from both in size and carriage, yet when we come to examine his shape minutely there will appear to be but a trifling difference in the description. Were, for instance, a painter to draw from a natural historian's most exact description the figure of a dog, a wolf, and a fox, without having ever seen either, he would be apt to confound all these animals together—or rather, he would be unable to catch those peculiar outlines that no description can supply. Words will never give any person an exact idea of forms any way irregular; for although they be extremely just and precise, yet the numberless discriminations to be attended to will confound each other, and we shall no more conceive the precise form than we should be able to tell when one pebble more was added or taken away from a thousand. To conceive, therefore, how the fox differs in form from the wolf or the dog, it is necessary to see all three, or at least to supply the defects of description by examining the difference in a print.

The fox is of a more slender make than the wolf, and not near so large; for as the former is above three feet and a half long, so the other is not above two feet three inches. The tail of the fox, also, is longer in proportion and more bushy; its nose is smaller, and approaching more nearly to that of the greyhound, and its hair softer. On the other hand, it differs from the dog in having its eyes obliquely situated, like those of the wolf; its ears are directed also in the same manner as those of the wolf, and its head is equally large in proportion to its size. It differs still more from the dog in its strong offensive smell, which is peculiar to the species, and often the cause of their death. However, some are ignorantly of opinion that it will keep off infectious diseases, and they preserve this animal near their habitations for that very purpose.

The fox has since the beginning been famous for his cunning and his arts, and he partly merits his reputation. Without attempting to oppose either the dogs or the shepherds, without attacking the flock or alarming the village, he finds an easier way to subsist, and gains by his address what is denied to his strength or courage. Patient and prudent, he waits the opportunity of depre-

dation, and varies his conduct with every occasion. His whole study is his preservation; although nearly as indefatigable, and actually more swift than the wolf, he does not entirely trust to either, but makes himself an asylum, to which he retires in case of necessity, where he shelters himself from danger and brings up his young.

As among men, those who lead a domestic life are more civilised and more endued with wisdom than those who wander from place to place; so, in the inferior ranks of animated nature, the taking possession of a home supposes a degree of instinct which others are without. The choice of the situation for this domicile, the art of making it convenient, of hiding its entrance, and securing it against more powerful animals, are all so many marks of superior skill and industry. The fox is furnished with both, and turns them to his advantage. He generally keeps his kennel at the edge of the wood, and yet within an easy journey of some neighbouring cottage. From thence he listens to the crowing of the cock and the cackling of the domestic fowls. He scents them at a distance; he seizes his opportunity, conceals his approaches, creeps slyly along, makes the attack, and seldom returns without his booty. If he be able to get into the yard he begins by levelling all the poultry without remorse, and, carrying off a part of the spoil, hides it at some convenient distance, and again returns to the charge. Taking off another fowl in the same manner he hides that also, but not in the same place; and this he practises for several times together, until the approach of day or the noise of the domestics give him warning to retire. The same arts are practised when he finds birds entangled in springes laid for them by the fowler; the fox takes care to be beforehand, very expertly takes the bird out of the snare, hides it for three or four days, and knows exactly when and where to return to avail himself of the hidden treasure. He is equally alert in seizing the young hares and rabbits before they have strength enough to escape him, and when the old ones are wounded and fatigued he is sure to come upon them in their moments of distress, and to show them no mercy. In the same manner he finds out birds' nests, seizes the partridge and the quail while sitting, and destroys a large quantity of game. The wolf is most hurtful to the peasant, but the fox to the gentleman. In short, nothing that can be eaten seems to come amiss—rats, mice, serpents, toads, and lizards. He will when urged by hunger eat vegetables and insects; and those that live near the sea-coasts will for want of food eat crabs, shrimps, and shell-fish. The hedge-hog in vain rolls itself up into a ball to oppose him; this determined glutton teizes it until it is obliged to appear uncovered, and then he devours it. The wasp and the wild bee are attacked with equal success. Although at first they fly out upon the invader, and actually oblige him to retire, this is but for a few minutes, until he has rolled himself upon the ground, and thus crushed such as stick to his skin; he then returns to the charge, and at last by perseverance obliges them to abandon their combs, which he greedily devours, both wax and honey.

The chase of the fox requires less preparation than that of the wolf, and it is also more pleasant and amusing. As dogs have a natural repugnance to pursue the wolf, so they are equally alert in following the fox, which they prefer even to the chase of the hare or the buck. The huntmen, as upon other occasions, have their cant terms for every part of this chase. The fox the first year is called a "cub;" the second, a "fox;" and the third, an "old fox;" his tail is called the "brush" or "drag;" and his excrement the "billiting." He is usually pursued by a large kind of harrier or hound, assisted by terriers, or a smaller breed that follow him into his kennel and attack him there. The instant he perceives himself pursued he makes to his kennel, and takes refuge at the bottom of it, where for a while he loses t' e cry of his

enemies; but the whole pack, coming to the mouth, redouble their vehemence and rage, and the little terrier boldly ventures in. It often happens that the kennel is made under a rock, or among the roots of old trees; and in such cases the fox cannot be dug out, nor is the terrier able to contend with him at the bottom of his hole. By this contrivance he continues secure; but when he can be dug out the usual way is to carry him in a bag to some open country, and there set him loose before the hounds. The hounds and the men follow, barking and shouting wherever he runs; and the body being strongly employed, the mind has not time to make any reflection on the futility of the pursuit. What adds to this entertainment is the strong scent which the fox leaves, which always keeps up a full cry; although as his scent is stronger than that of the hare it is much sooner evaporated. His shifts to escape when all retreat is cut off to his kennel are various and surprising. He always chooses the most woody country, and takes those paths that are most embarrassed with thorns and briars. He does not double, nor use the unavailing shifts of the hare, but flies in a direct line before the hounds, though at no very great distance—manages his strength—takes to the low and plashy grounds, where the scent will be less apt to lie; and at last, when overtaken, he defends himself with desperate obstinacy, and fights in silence to the very last gasp.

The fox, though resembling the dog in many respects, is nevertheless very distinct in its nature, refusing to engender with it; and though not testifying the antipathy of the wolf, yet discovering nothing more than indifference. This animal also brings forth fewer at a time than the dog, and that but once a year. Its litter is generally from four to six, and seldom less than three. The female goes with young about six weeks, and seldom stirs out while pregnant, but makes a bed for her young, and takes every precaution to prepare for their production. When she finds the place of their retreat discovered, and that her young have been disturbed during her absence, she removes them one after the other in her mouth, and endeavours to find them out a place of better security. A remarkable instance of this animal's parental affection happened while I was writing this history in the county of Essex. A she-fox that had, as it would seem, but one cub, was unkenelled by a gentleman's hounds near Chelmsford, and hotly pursued. In such a case, when her own life was in imminent peril, one would think that it was not a time to consult the safety of her young; however, the poor animal, braving every danger, rather than leave her cub behind to be worried by the dogs, took it up in her mouth and ran with it in this manner for some miles. At last, making her way through a farmer's yard, she was assaulted by a mastiff, and at last obliged to drop her cub, which was taken up by the farmer. I was not displeased to hear that this faithful creature escaped the pursuit, and at last got off in safety. The cubs of the fox are born blind like those of the dog; they are eighteen months or two years in coming to perfection, and live about twelve or fourteen years.

As the fox makes war upon all animals, so all others seem to make war upon him. The dog hunts him with peculiar acrimony; the wolf is still a greater and more necessitous enemy, who pursues him to his very retreat. Some pretend to say that to keep the wolf away the fox lays at the mouth of its kennel a certain herb to which the wolf has a particular aversion. This, which no doubt is a fable, at least shows that these two animals are as much enemies to each other as to the rest of Animated Nature. But the fox is not hunted by quadrupeds alone; for the birds, who know him for their mortal enemy, attend him in his excursions, and give each other warning of their approaching danger. The daw, the magpie, and the blackbird conduct him along, perching on the hedges as he creeps below, and, with their cries and notes of hostility, apprise all other animals to beware—a caution

which they perfectly understand, and put into practice. The hunters themselves are often informed by the birds of the place of his retreat, and set the dogs into those thickets where they see them particularly noisy and querulous. So that it is the fate of this petty plunderer to be detested by every rank of animals; all the weaker classes shun, and all the stronger pursue him.

The fox of all wild animals is most subject to the influence of the climate; and there are found as many varieties in this kind almost as in any of the domestic animals. The generality of foxes, as is well known, are red; but there are some, though not in England, of a greyish cast; and Mr. Buffon asserts that the tip of the tail in all foxes is white; which, however, is not so in those of this country. There are only three varieties of this animal in Great Britain, and these are rather established upon a difference of size than of colour or form. The greyhound fox is the largest, tallest, and boldest, and will attack a grown sheep; the mastiff fox is less, but more strongly built; the cur fox is the least and most common—he lurks about hedges and out-houses, and is the most pernicious of the three to the peasant and the farmer.

In the colder countries round the pole the foxes are of all colours—black, blue, grey, iron grey, silver grey, white, white with red legs, white with black heads, white with tip of the tail black, red with the throat and belly entirely white, and, lastly, with a stripe of black running along the back and another crossing it at the shoulders. The common kind, however, is more universally diffused than any of the former, being found in Europe, in the temperate climates of Asia, and also in America; they are very rare in Africa, and in the countries lying under the torrid zone. Those travellers who talk of having seen them at Calicut and other parts of Southern India have mistaken the jackal for the fox. The fur of the white fox is held in no great estimation, because the hair falls off. The blue fox skins are bought up with great avidity, from their scarceness; but the black fox skin is of all others the most esteemed, a single skin often selling for forty or fifty crowns. The hair of these is so disposed that it is impossible to tell which way the grain lies; for if we hold the skin by the head the hair hangs to the tail, and if we hold it by the tail it hangs down equally smooth and even to the head. These are often made into females' muffs, and are at once very beautiful and warm. In our temperate climate, however, furs are of very little service, there being scarce any weather so severe in England from which our ordinary clothes may not very well defend us.

THE JACKAL.—The jackal is one of the commonest wild animals in the East; and yet there is scarce any less known in Europe, or more confusedly described by natural historians. In general we are assured that it resembles the fox in figure and disposition; but we are still ignorant of those nice distinctions by which it is known to be of a different species. It is said to be of the size of a middling dog, resembling the fox in the hinder parts, particularly the tail, and the wolf in the fore-parts, especially the nose. Its legs are shorter than those of the fox, and its colour is of a bright yellow, or sorrel, as we express it in horses. This is the reason it has been called in Latin the "golden wolf"—a name, however, which is entirely unknown in the countries where they are most common.

The species of the jackal is diffused all over Asia, and is also found in most parts of Africa—seeming to take up the place of the wolf, which in those countries is not so common. There seem to be many varieties among them; those of the warmest climates appear to be the largest, and their colour is rather of a reddish brown than of that beautiful yellow by which the smaller jackals are chiefly distinguished.

Although the species of the wolf approaches very near

to that of the dog, yet the jackal seems to be placed between them; to the savage fierceness of the wolf it adds the impudent familiarity of the dog. Its cry is a howl, mixed with barking, and a lamentation resembling that of human distress. It is more noisy in its pursuits even than the dog, and more voracious than the wolf. The jackal never goes alone, but always in a pack of forty or fifty together. These unite regularly every day to form a combination against the rest of the forest. Nothing then can escape them; they are content to take up with the smallest animals; and yet, when thus united, they have courage to face the largest. They seem very little afraid of mankind, but pursue their game to the very doors without testifying either attachment or apprehension. They enter insolently into the sheepfolds, the yards, and the stables, and when they can find nothing else, devour the leather harness, boots, and shoes, and run off with what they have not time to swallow.

They not only attack the living but the dead. They scratch up with their feet the new-made graves, and devour the corpse no matter how putrid. In those countries, therefore, where they abound they are obliged to beat the earth over the grave and mix it with thorns, to prevent the jackals from scraping it away. They always assist each other, as well in this employment of exhumation as in that of the chase. While they are at this dreary work they exhort each other by a mournful cry, resembling that of children under chastisement; and when they have thus dug up the body they share it amicably between them. These, like all other savage animals, when they have once tasted human flesh can never after refrain from pursuing mankind. They watch the burying-grounds, follow armies, and keep in the rear of caravans. They may be considered as the vulture of the quadruped kind; everything that once had animal life seems equally agreeable to them; the most putrid substances are greedily devoured; dried leather, and anything that has been rabbed with grease, how insipid soever in itself, is sufficient to make the whole go down.

They hide themselves in holes by day, and seldom appear abroad till night-fall, when the jackal that has first hit upon the scent of some larger beast gives notice to the rest by a howl, which it repeats as it runs; while all the rest that are within hearing pack in to its assistance. The gazelle, or whatever other beast it may be, finding itself pursued, makes off towards the houses and the towns; hoping by that means to deter its pursuers from following; but hunger gives the jackal the same degree of boldness that fear gives the gazelle, and it pursues even to the verge of the city, and often along the streets. The gazelle, however, by this means most frequently escapes; for the inhabitants sallying out often disturb the jackal in the chase; and as it hunts by the scent, when once driven off it never recovers it again. In this manner we see how experience prompts the gazelle—which is naturally a very timid animal, and particularly fearful of man—to take refuge near him, considering him as the least dangerous enemy, and often escaping by his assistance.

But man is not the only intruder upon the jackal's industry and pursuits. The lion, the tiger, and the panther, whose appetites are superior to their swiftness, attend to its call, and follow in silence at some distance behind. The jackal pursues the whole night with unceasing assiduity, keeping up the cry, and with great perseverance at last tires down its prey; but just at the moment it supposes itself going to share the fruits of its labour, the lion or the leopard comes in, satiates himself upon the spoil, and his poor provider must be content with the bare carcase he leaves behind. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, if the jackal be voracious, since it so seldom has a sufficiency; nor that it feeds on putrid substances, since it is not permitted to feast on what it has newly killed. Besides these enemies the jackal has another to cope with—for between him and the dog

there is an irreconcilable antipathy, and they never part without an engagement. The Indian peasants often chase them as we do foxes, and have learned by experience when they have got a lion or a tiger in their rear. Upon such occasions they keep their dogs close, as they would be no match for such formidable animals, and endeavour to put them to flight by their cries. When the lion is dismissed they more easily cope with the jackal, who is as stupid as it is impudent, and seems much better fitted for pursuing than retreating. It sometimes happens that one of them steals silently into an out-house to seize the poultry or devour the furniture, but hearing others in full cry at a distance, without thought it instantly answers the call, and thus betrays its own depredations. The peasants sally out upon it, and the foolish animal finds too late that its instinct was too powerful for its safety.

THE ISATIS.—As the jackal is a sort of intermediate species between the dog and the wolf, so the isatis may be considered as placed between the dog and the fox. This animal has hitherto been supposed to be only a variety of the latter; but from the latest observations there is no doubt of their being perfectly distinct. The isatis is very common in all the northern countries bordering upon the Icy Sea, and is seldom found except in the coldest countries. It very much resembles a fox in the form of its body and the length of its tail, and a dog in the make of its head and the position of its eyes. The hair of these animals is softer than that of a common fox; some are blue, some are white at one season, and at another of a russet brown. Although the whole of its hair is two inches long, thick, tufted, and glossy, yet the under jaw is entirely without any, and the skin appears bare in that part.

This animal can bear only the coldest climates, and is chiefly seen along the coasts of the Icy Sea, and on the banks of the great rivers that discharge themselves therein. It is fond of living in the open country, and is seldom seen in the forest, being mostly found in the mountainous and naked regions of Norway, Siberia, and Lapland. It burrows like the fox; and when wit's young, the female retires to her kennel in the same manner as the fox is seen to do. These holes, which are very narrow and extremely deep, have many outlets. They are kept very clean, and are bedded at the bottom with moss for the animal to be more at its ease. Its manner of coupling, time of gestation, and number of young, are all similar to what is found in the fox; and it usually brings forth at the end of May or the beginning of June.

Such are the particulars in which this animal differs from those of the dog kind and in which it resembles them; but its most striking peculiarity remains still to be mentioned—namely, its changing colour, and being seen at one time brown and at another perfectly white. As was already said, some are naturally blue, and their colour never changes; but such as are to be white are when brought forth of a yellow hue, which in the beginning of September is changed to white, all except along the top of the back, along which runs a stripe of brown, and another crossing it down the shoulders, at which time the animal is called the "crossed fox;" however, this brown cross totally disappears before winter, and then the creature is all over white, and its fur is two inches long; this about the beginning of May again begins to fall; and the moulting is completed about the middle of July, when the isatis becomes brown once more. The fur of this animal is of no value unless it be killed in winter.

THE HYÆNA.—The hyæna is the last animal I shall mention among those of the dog kind, which it in many respects resembles, although too strongly marked to be strictly reduced to any type. The hyæna is nearly of the

size of a wolf, and has some similitude to that animal in the shape of its head and body. The head at first sight does not appear to differ, except that the ears of the hyæna are longer, and with less hair; but upon observing more closely we shall find the head broader, the nose flatter, and not so pointed. The eyes are not placed obliquely, but more like those of a dog. The legs, particularly the hinder, are longer than those either of the dog or the wolf, and different from all other quadrupeds in having but four toes, as well on the fore-feet as on the hinder. Its hair is of a dirty greyish, marked with black, disposed in waves down its body. Its tail is short, with pretty long hair; and immediately under it, above the anus, there is an opening into a kind of glandular pouch, which separates a substance of the consistence but not of the colour of civet. This opening might have given rise to the error of the ancients, who asserted that this animal was every year alternately male and female. Such are the most striking distinctions of the hyæna as given us by naturalists—which, nevertheless, convey but a very confused idea of the peculiarity of its form. Its manner of holding its head seems remarkable—somewhat like a dog pursuing the scent with its nose near the ground. The head being held thus low, the back appears elevated like that of the hog, which, with a long bristly band of hair that runs all along, gives it a good deal the air of that animal; and it is probable that from this similitude it first took its name—the word “huoina” being Greek, and derived from “hus,” which signifies a sow.

But no words can give an adequate idea of this animal's figure, deformity, and fierceness; more savage and untameable than any other quadruped, it seems to be for ever in a state of rage or rapacity—for ever growling, except when receiving its food. Its eyes then glisten, the bristles of its back all stand upright, its head hangs low, and yet its teeth appear—all which give it a most frightful aspect, and which a dreadful howl tends to heighten. This, which I have often heard, is very peculiar; its beginning resembles the voice of a man moaning, and its latter part as if he were making a violent effort to vomit. As it is loud and frequent, it might, perhaps, have been sometimes mistaken for that of a human voice in distress, and have given rise to the accounts of the ancients, who tell us that the hyæna makes its moan to attract unwary travellers, and then to destroy them: however this be, it seems the most untractable and, for its size, the most terrible of all other quadrupeds; nor does its courage fall short of its ferocity; it defends itself against the lion, is a match for the panther, attacks the ounce, and seldom fails to conquer.

It is an obscene and solitary animal, to be found chiefly in the most desolate and uncultivated parts of the torrid zone, of which it is a native. It resides in the caverns of mountains, in the clefts of rocks, or in dens that it has formed for itself under the earth. Though taken never so young it cannot be tamed; it lives by depredation, like the wolf, but is much stronger and more courageous. It sometimes attacks man, carries off cattle, follows the flock, breaks open the sheep-cots by night, and ravages with insatiable voracity. Its eyes shine by night; and it is asserted, not without great appearance of truth, that it sees better by night than by day. When destitute of other provision, it scrapes up the graves and devours the dead bodies, how putrid soever. To these dispositions, which are sufficiently noxious and formidable, the ancients have added numberless others, which are long since known to be fables—as, for instance, that the hyæna was male and female alternately; that having brought forth and suckled its young, it then changed sexes for a year and became a male. This, as was mentioned above, could only proceed from the opening under the tail, which all animals of this species are found to have, and which is found in the same manner in no other quadruped except the badger.

There is in the weasel kind indeed an opening, but it is lower down, and not placed above the anus, as in the badger and the hyæna. Some have said that this animal changed the colour of its hair at will; others, that a stone was found in its eye, which, put under a man's tongue, gave him the gift of prophecy; some have said that it had no joints in the neck, which, however, all quadrupeds are known to have; and some, that the shadow of the hyæna kept dogs from barking. These, among many other absurdities, have been asserted of this quadruped, and which I mention to show the natural disposition of mankind to load those that are already but too guilty with accumulated reproach.

CHAP. III.

OF ANIMALS OF THE WEASEL KIND.

Having described the bolder ranks of carnivorous animals, we now come to a minuter and more feeble class, less formidable indeed than any of the former, but considerably more numerous, and, in proportion to their size, more active and enterprising. The weasel kind may be particularly distinguished from other carnivorous animals by the length and slenderness of their bodies, which are so fitted as to wind, like the worm, into very small openings after their prey; hence, also, they have received the name of vermin, from their similitude to the worm in this particular. These animals differ from all of the cat kind in the formation and disposition of their claws, which, as in the dog kinds, they can neither draw nor extend at pleasure, as cats are known to do. They differ from the dog kind in being clothed rather with fur than hair; and although some varieties of the fox may resemble them in this particular, yet the coat of the latter is longer, stronger, and always more resembling hair. Beside these distinctions, all animals of the weasel kind have glands placed near the anus, that either open into or beneath it, furnishing a substance that in some has the most offensive smell in nature—in others, the most pleasing perfume. All of this kind are still more marked by their habitudes and dispositions than their external form; cruel, voracious, and cowardly, they subsist only by theft, and find their chief protection in their minuteness. They are all, from the shortness of their legs, slow in pursuit, and therefore owe their support to their patience, assiduity, and cunning. As their prey is precarious they live a long time without food; and if they happen to fall in where it is in plenty, they immediately destroy all about them before they begin to satisfy their appetite, and suck the blood of every animal before they begin to touch its flesh.

These are the marks common to this kind, all the species of which have a most striking resemblance to each other; and he that has seen one, in some measure may be said to have seen all. The chief distinction in this numerous class of animals is to be taken from the size; for no words can give the minute irregularities of that outline by which one species is to be distinguished from that which is next it. I will begin, therefore, with the least and the best known of this kind, and still marking the size, will proceed gradually to larger and larger, until we come from the weasel to the glutton, which I take to be the largest of all. The weasel will serve as a model for all the rest; and indeed the points in which they differ from this little animal are but very inconsiderable.

The weasel, as was said, is the smallest of this numerous tribe, its length not exceeding seven inches from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail. This length, however, seems to be very great if we compare it with the height of the animal, which is not above an inch and a half. In measuring the wolf, we find him to be not above once and a half as long as he is high; in ob-

serving the weasel, we find it near five times as long as it is high, which shows an amazing disproportion. The tail, also, which is bushy, is two inches and a half long, and adds to the apparent length of this little animal's body. The colour of the weasel is of a bright red on the back and sides, but white under the throat and the belly. It has whiskers like a cat, and thirty-two teeth, which is two more than any of the cat kind; and these also seem better adapted for tearing and chewing than those of the cat kind are. The eyes are little and black; the ears short, broad, and roundish, and have a fold at the lower part, which makes them look as if they were double. Beneath the corners of the mouth on each jaw is a spot of brown.

This animal, though very diminutive to appearance, is nevertheless a very formidable enemy to quadrupeds a hundred times its own size. It is very common and well known in most parts of this country, but seems held in very different estimation in different parts of it. In those places where sheep or lambs are bred the weasel is a most noxious inmate, and every art is used to destroy it; on the contrary, in places where agriculture is chiefly followed, the weasel is considered as a friend that thins the number of such vermin as chiefly live upon corn: however, in all places it is one of the most untameable and untractable animals in the world. When kept in a cage, either for the purpose of amusement or inspection, it will not touch any part of its victuals while any body looks on. It keeps in a continual agitation, and seems frightened so much at the sight of mankind, that it will die if not permitted to hide itself from their presence. For this purpose it must be provided in its cage with a sufficient quantity of wool or hay, in which it may conceal itself, and where it may carry whatever it has got to eat—which, however, it will not touch until it begins to putrefy. In this state it is seen to pass three parts of the day in sleeping, and reserves the night for its times of exercise and eating.

In its wild state, the night is likewise the time during which it may be properly said to live. At the approach of evening it is seen stealing from its hole, and creeping about the farmer's yard for its prey. If it enters the place where poultry are kept it never attacks the cocks or the old hens, but immediately aims at the young ones. It does not eat its prey on the place, but, after killing it by a single bite near the head, and with a wound so small that the place can scarcely be perceived, it carries it off to its young, or its retreat. It also breaks and sacks the eggs, and sometimes kills the hen that attempts to defend them. It is remarkably active; and, in a confined place, scarce any animal can escape it. It will run up the sides of walls with such facility that no place is secure from it; and its body is so small that there is scarce any hole but what it can wind through. During the summer its excursions are more extensive; but in winter it chiefly confines itself to barns and farm-yards, where it remains till spring, and where it brings forth its young. All this season it makes war upon the rats and mice with still greater success than the cat; for, being more active and slender, it pursues them into their holes, and after a short resistance destroys them. It also creeps into pigeon-holes, destroys the young, catches sparrows and all kinds of small birds, and if it has brought forth its young, hunts with still greater boldness and avility. In summer it ventures farther from the house, and particularly goes into those places where the rat, its principal prey, goes before it. Accordingly, it is found in the lower grounds, by the side of waters, near mills, and often is seen to hide its young in the hollow of a tree:

The female takes every precaution to make an easy bed for her little ones: she lines the bottom of her hole with grass, hay, leaves, and moss, and generally brings forth from three to five at a time. All animals of this as well as the dog kind bring forth their young with

closed eyes; but they very soon acquire strength sufficient to follow the dam in her excursions, and assist in her projects of petty rapine. The weasel, like all others of its kind, does not run on equably, but moves by bounding; and when it climbs a tree, by a single spring it gets a good way from the ground. It jumps in the same manner upon its prey; and having an extremely limber body, evades the attempts of much stronger animals to seize it.

This animal, like all of its kind, has a very strong smell; and that of the weasel is peculiarly fœtid. This scent is very distinguishable in those creatures when they void their excrement; for the glands which furnish this fœtid substance, which is of the consistence of suet, open directly into the orifice of the anus, and taint the excrement with the strong effluvia. The weasel smells more strongly in summer than in winter, and more abominably when irritated or pursued than when at its ease. It always preys in silence, and never has a cry except when struck, and then it has a rough kind of squeaking, which at once expresses resentment and pain. Its appetite for animal food never forsakes it; and it seems even to take a pleasure in the vicinity of putrefaction. Mr. Buffon tells us of one of them being found with three young ones in the carcase of a wolf that was grown putrid, and that had been hung up by the hind legs as a terror to others. Into this horrid retreat the weasel thought proper to retire to bring forth her young; she had furnished the cavity with hay, grass, and leaves, and the young were just brought forth when they were discovered by a peasant passing that way.

THE ERMINE, OR STOAT.—Next to the weasel in size, and perfectly alike in figure, is the ermine. The difference between this and the former animal is so very small, that many (and among the rest Linnæus, who gives but one description of both) have confounded the two kinds together. However, their differences are sufficient to induce later naturalists to suppose the two kinds distinct; and as their lights seem preferable, we choose to follow their descriptions.

The stoat or ermine differs from the weasel in size, being usually nine inches long, whereas the former is not much above six. The tail of the ermine is always tipped with black, and is longer in proportion to the body and furnished with hair. The edges of the ears and the ends of the toes in this animal are of a yellowish white; and although it is of the same colour with the weasel, being of a lightish brown, and though both this animal as well as the weasel in the most northern parts of Europe changes its colour in winter and becomes white, yet even then the weasel may be easily distinguished from the ermine by the tip of the tail, which in the latter is always black.

It is well known that the fur of the ermine is the most valuable of any hitherto known, and it is in winter only that this little animal has it of the proper colour and consistence. In summer, the ermine, as was said before, is brown, and it may at that time more properly be called the "stoat." There are few so unacquainted with quadrupeds as not to perceive this change of colour in the hair, which in some degree obtains in them all. The horse, the cow, and the goat, all manifestly change colour in the beginning of summer, the old long hair falling off, and a shorter coat of hair appearing in its room, generally of a darker colour, and yet more glossy. What obtains in our temperate climate is seen to prevail still more strongly in those regions where the winters are long and severe, and the summers short and yet generally hot in an extreme degree. The animal has strength enough during that season to throw off a warm coat of fur, which would but incommode it, and continues for two or three months in a state somewhat resembling the ordinary quadrupeds of the milder climates. At the approach of winter, however, the cold increasing, the coat

of hair seems to thicken in proportion; from being coarse and short it lengthens and grows finer, while multitudes of smaller hairs grow up between the longer, thicken the coat, and give it all that warmth and softness which are so much valued in the furs of the northern animals.

It is no easy matter to account for this remarkable warmth of the furs of northern quadrupeds, or how they come to be furnished with such an abundant covering. It is easy enough indeed to say that Nature fits them thus for the climate, and, like an indulgent mother, when she exposes them to the severe rigour of an intemperate winter, supplies them with a covering against its inclemency. But this is only flourishing; it is not easy, I say, to tell how Nature comes to furnish them in this manner. A few particulars on this subject are all we yet know. It is observable among quadrupeds, as well as even among the human species itself, that a thin, sparing diet is apt to produce hair; children that have been ill fed, famished dogs and horses, are more hairy than others whose food has been more plentiful. This, therefore, may be one cause that the animals of the north in winter are more hairy than those of the milder climates. At that season the whole country is covered with deep snow, and the provisions which these creatures are able to procure can be but precarious and scanty. Its becoming finer may also proceed from the severity of the cold, which contracts the pores of the skin, and the hair consequently takes the shape of the aperture through which it grows, as wires are made smaller by being drawn through a smaller orifice. However this may be, all the animals of the arctic climates may be said to have their winter and summer garments, except very far to the north, as in Greenland, where the cold is so intense and the food so scarce, that neither the bears nor foxes change colour.

The ermine, as was said, is remarkable among these for the softness, the closeness, and the warmth of its fur. It is brown in summer, like the weasel, and changes colour before the winter is begun, becoming a beautiful cream-colour, all except the tip of the tail, which, as was said before, still continues black. Mr. Daubenton had one of these brought him with its white winter fur, which he put into a cage and kept, in order to observe the manner of moulting its hair. He received it in the beginning of March; in a short time it began to shed its coat, and a mixture of brown was seen to prevail among the white, so that on the ninth of the same month its head was nearly become of a redish brown. Day after day this colour appeared to extend at first along the neck and down the back, in the manner of a stripe of about half an inch broad. The fore part of the legs then assumed the same colour; a part of the head, the thighs, and the tail were the last that changed; but at the end of the month there was no white remaining, except on those parts which are invariably white in this species, particularly the throat and the belly. However, he had not the pleasure of seeing this animal resume its former whiteness, although he kept it for above two years—which, without doubt, was owing to its imprisoned state, this colour being partly owing to its stinted food and partly to the rigour of the season. During its state of confinement this little animal always continued very wild and untractable—for ever in a state of violent agitation, except when asleep, which it often continued for three parts of the day. Except for its most disagreeable scent, it was an exceedingly pretty creature—its eyes sprightly, its physiognomy pleasant, and its motions so swift that the eye could scarce attend them. It was fed with eggs and flesh, but it always let them putrefy before it touched either. As some of this kind are known to be fond of honey, they tried to feed this animal with such food for a while; after having for three or four days deprived it of other food, it ate of this, and died shortly after—a strong proof of its being a distinct species from the polecat or

the martin, who feed upon honey, but otherwise pretty much resemble the ermine in figure and disposition.

In the north of Europe and Siberia their skins make a valuable article of commerce, and they are found there much more frequently than among us. In Siberia they burrow in the fields, and are taken in traps baited with flesh. In Norway they are either shot with blunt arrows or taken in traps made of two flat stones, one being propped with a stick, to which is fastened a baited string, and when the animals attempt to pull this away the stone drops and crushes them to death. This animal is sometimes found white in Great Britain, and is then called a white weasel. Its furs, however, among us are of no value, having neither the thickness, the closeness, nor the whiteness of those which come from Siberia. The fur of the ermine in every country changes by time; for, as much of its beautiful whiteness is given it by certain arts known to the furriers, so its natural colour returns, and its former whiteness can never again be restored.

THE FERRET.—The animal next in size to the ermine is the ferret, which is a kind of domestic in Europe, though said to be originally brought from Africa into Spain, which, being a country abounding in rabbits, required an animal of this kind more than any other; however this be, it is not to be found at present among us except in its domestic state, and it is chiefly kept tame for the purposes of the warren.

The ferret is about twelve inches long, being nearly four inches longer than the weasel. It resembles that animal in the slenderness of its body and the shortness of its legs; but its nose is sharper, and its body more slender in proportion to its length. The ferret is commonly of a cream-colour; but they are also found of all the colours of the weasel kind—white, blackish, brown, and party-coloured. Those that are of the whitish kind have their eyes red, as is almost general with all animals entirely of that colour. But its principal distinction from the weasel is the length of the hair on its tail, which is much longer in the ferret than the weasel. Words will not well express the other distinctions; and what might take up a page in dull description, a single glance of the eye when the animals themselves are presented can discover.

As this animal is a native of the torrid zone, so it cannot bear the rigours of our climate without care and shelter; and it generally repays the trouble of its keeping by its great agility in the warren. It is naturally such an enemy to the rabbit kind, that if a dead body of the latter be presented to a young ferret, although it has never seen one before, it instantly attacks and bites it with an appearance of rapacity. If the rabbit be alive the ferret is still more eager, seizes it by the neck, winds itself round it, and continues to suck its blood till it be satiated.

Their chief use in warrens is to enter the holes, and drive the rabbits into the nets that are prepared for them at the mouth. For this purpose the ferret's mouth is secured by a muzzle—otherwise, instead of driving out the rabbit, it would content itself with killing it and sucking its blood at the bottom of the hole; but by this contrivance, being rendered unable to seize its prey, the rabbit escapes from its claws, and makes to the mouth of the hole with such precipitation, that it is inextricably entangled in the net placed there for its reception. It often happens, however, that the ferret disengages itself from its muzzle, and then it is most commonly lost, unless it be dug out; for, finding all its wants satisfied in the warren, it never thinks of returning to its owner, but continues to lead a rapacious, solitary life while the summer continues, and dies with the cold of the winter. In order to bring the ferret from its hole the owners often burn straw and other ignitable substances at the mouth; they also beat above to terrify it; but this does not always succeed; for as there are

often several outlets to each hole the ferret is affected neither by the noise nor the smoke, but remains secure at the bottom, sleeping the greatest part of the time, and waking only to satisfy the calls of hunger.

The female of this species is much less than the male, whom she seeks with great ardour, and, it is said, often dies without being admitted. They are usually kept in boxes, with wool, of which they make themselves a warm bed that serves to defend them from the rigour of the climate. They sleep almost continually, and the instant they awake they seem eager for food. They are in general fed with bread and milk. They breed twice a year. Some of them devour their young as soon as brought forth, and then become fit for the male again. Their number is usually from five to six at a litter; and this is said to consist of more females than males. On the whole, this is an useful but a disagreeable and offensive animal; its smell is foetid, its nature voracious, it is tame without any attachment, and such is its appetite for blood, that it has been known to attack and kill children in the cradle. It is easily irritated, and though its smell at all times is very offensive, it then is much more so; and its bite is very difficult of cure.

To the ferret kind we may add an animal which Mr. Buffon calls the "vanfire," the skin of which was sent him stuffed from Madagascar. It was thirteen inches long, a good deal resembling the ferret in figure, but differing in the number of its grinding teeth, which amounted to twelve, whereas in the ferret there are but eight; it also differed in colour, being of a dark brown, and exactly the same on all parts of its body. Of this animal, so nearly resembling the ferret, we have no other history but the mere description of its figure; and in a quadruped whose kind is so strongly marked, perhaps this is sufficient to satisfy curiosity.

THE POLECAT.—The polecat is larger than the weasel, the ermine, or the ferret, being seventeen inches long, whereas the weasel is but six inches, the ermine nine, and the ferret eleven inches. It so much resembles the ferret in form that some have been of opinion they are one and the same animal; nevertheless, there are sufficient distinctions between them: it is, in the first place, larger than the ferret; it is not quite so slender, and has a blunter nose; it also differs internally, having but fourteen ribs, whereas the ferret has fifteen; it likewise wants one of the breast-bones which is found in the ferret. However, warreners assert that the polecat will mix with the ferret; and they are sometimes obliged to procure an intercourse between these two animals to improve the breed of the latter, which, by long confinement, is sometimes seen to abate of its rapacious disposition. Mr. Buffon denies that the ferret will admit the polecat, yet gives a variety, under the name of both animals, which may very probably be a spurious race between the two.

However this be, the polecat seems by much the more pleasing animal of the two; for although the long, slender shape of all these vermin tribes gives them a very disagreeable appearance, yet the softness and colour of the hair in some of them atones for the defect, and renders them, if not pretty, at least not frightful. The polecat for the most part is of a deep chocolate colour; it is white about the mouth; the ears are short, round, and tipped with white; a little beyond the corners of the mouth a stripe begins, which runs backward, partly white and partly yellow; its hair, like that of all of this class, is of two sorts—the long and the furry; but in this animal the two kinds are of different colours—the longest is black and the shorter yellowish; the throat, feet, and tail are blacker than any other parts of the body; the claws are white underneath and brown above; and it is about two inches and a half in length.

It is very destructive to young game of all kinds; but the rabbit seems to be its favourite prey: a single pole-

cat is often sufficient to destroy a whole warren—for, with that insatiable thirst for blood which is natural to all the weasel kind, it kills much more than it can devour; and I have seen twenty rabbits at a time taken out dead which they had destroyed, and that by a wound scarcely perceptible. Their size, however, which is so much larger than the weasel, renders their retreats near houses more precarious—although I have seen them burrow near a village so as scarcely to be extirpated. But in general they reside in woods or thick brakes, making holes under-ground of about two yards deep, commonly ending among the roots of large trees for greater security. In winter they frequent houses, and make a common practice of robbing the hen-roost and the dairy.

The polecat is particularly destructive among pigeons when it gets into a dove-house; without making so much noise as the weasel it does a great deal more mischief; it despatches each with a single wound in the head; and, after killing a great number and satiating itself with their blood, it then begins to think of carrying them home. This it carefully performs, going and returning, and bringing them one by one to its hole; but if it should happen that the opening by which it got into the dove-house be not large enough for the body of the pigeon to get through, this rapacious creature contents itself with carrying away the heads, and makes a most delicious feast upon the brains.

It is not less fond of honey, attacking the hives in winter and forcing the bees away. It does not remove far from houses in winter, as its prey is not so easily found in the woods during that season. The female brings forth her young in summer, to the number of five or six at a time; these she soon trains to her own rapacious habits, supplying the want of milk, which no carnivorous quadruped has in plenty, with the blood of such animals as she happens to seize. The fur of this animal is soft and warm; yet it is in less estimation than some of a much inferior kind, from its offensive smell, which can never be wholly removed or suppressed. The polecat seems to be an inhabitant of the temperate climates, scarce any being found towards the north, and but very few in the warmer latitudes. The species appears to be confined in Europe from Poland to Italy. It is certain that these animals are afraid of the cold, as they are often seen to come into houses in winter, and as their tracks are never found in the snow near their retreats. It is probable, also, that they are afraid of heat, as they are but thinly scattered in the southern climates.

THE MARTIN.—The martin is a larger animal than any of the former, being generally eighteen inches long, and the tail ten more. It differs from the polecat in being about four or five inches longer; its tail is also longer in proportion, and more bushy at the end; its nose is flatter; its cry is sharper and more piercing; its colours are more elegant; and, what still adds to its beauty, its scent is very unlike the former; instead of being offensive it is considered as a most pleasing perfume. The martin, in short, is the most beautiful of all British beasts of prey: its head is small and elegantly formed; its eyes lively; its ears are broad, rounded, and open; its back, its sides, and tail are covered with a fine thick downy fur, with longer hair intermixed; the roots are ash-colour, the middle of a bright chestnut, the points black; the head is brown, with a slight cast of red; the legs and upper sides of the feet are of a chocolate colour; the palms or under sides are covered with a thick down like that of the body; the feet are broad, the claws white, large, and sharp, well adapted for the purposes of climbing, but, as in others of the weasel kind, incapable of being sheathed or unsheathed at pleasure; the throat and breast are white; the belly of the same colour with the back, but rather paler; the hair on the tail is very long, especially at the end, where it appears much thicker than near the insertion.

There is also a variety of this animal, called the "yellow-breasted martin," which in no respect differs from the former, except that this has a yellow breast, whereas the other has a white one: the colour of the body is also darker; and, as it lives more among trees than the other martin, its fur is more valuable, beautiful, and glossy. The former of these Mr Buffon calls the "fouine"—the latter, simply the "martin;" and he supposes them to be a distinct species: but as they differ only in colour, it is unnecessary to embarrass history by a new distinction where there is only so minute a difference.

Of all animals of the weasel kind the martin is the most pleasing; all its motions show great grace as well as agility; and there is scarcely an animal in our woods that will venture to oppose it. Quadrupeds five times as big are easily vanquished; the hare, the sheep, and even the wild cat itself, though much stronger, is not a match for the martin; and although carnivorous animals are not fond of engaging each other, yet the wild cat and the martin seldom meet without a combat. Gesner tells us of one of this kind that he kept tame, which was extremely playful and pretty; it went among the houses of the neighbourhood, and always returned home when hungry: it was extremely fond of a dog that had been bred up with it, and used to play with it as cats are seen to play, lying on its back, and biting without anger or injury. That which was kept tame by Mr. Buffon was not quiet so social: it was divested of its ferocity, but continued without attachment; and was still so wild as to be obliged to be held by a chain. Whenever a cat appeared it prepared for war; and if any of the poultry came within its reach it flew upon them with avidity. Though it was tied by the middle of the body it frequently escaped: at first it returned after some hours, but without seeming pleased, as if it only came to be fed: the next time it continued abroad longer; and, at last, went away without ever returning. It was a female, and was when it went off a year and a half old; and Mr. Buffon supposes it to have gone in quest of the male. It ate everything that was given it except salad or herbs; and it was remarkably fond of honey. It was remarked that it drank often, and often slept for two days together; and that in like manner it was often two or three days without sleeping. Before it went to sleep it drew itself up into a circle, hid its head, and covered it with its tail. When awake it was in continual agitation, and was obliged to be tied up, not less to prevent its attacking the poultry than to hinder it breaking whatever it came near by the capricious wildness of its motions.

The yellow-breasted martin is much more common in France than in England; and yet even there this variety is much scarcer than that with the white breast. The latter keeps nearer houses and villages to make its petty ravages among the sheep and the poultry; the other keeps in the woods, and leads in every respect a savage life, building its nest on the tops of trees, and living upon such animals as are entirely wild like itself. About nightfall it usually quits its solitude to seek its prey, hunts after squirrels, rats, and rabbits; destroys great numbers of birds and their young, takes the eggs from the nest, and often removes them to its own without breaking. The instant the martin finds itself pursued by dogs, for which purpose there is a particular breed that seem fit for this chase only, it immediately makes to its retreat, which is generally in the hollow of some tree, towards the top, and which it is impossible to come at without cutting it down. Their nest is generally the original tenement of the squirrel, which that little animal bestowed great pains in completing; but the martin, having killed and dispossessed the little architect, takes possession of it for its own use, enlarges its dimensions, improves the softness of the bed, and in that retreat brings forth its young. Its litter is never above three or four at a time; they are brought forth with their eyes

closed, as in all the rest of this kind, and very soon come to a state of perfection. The dam compensates for her own deficiency of milk by bringing them eggs and live birds, accustoming them from the beginning to a life of carnage and rapine. When she leads them from the nest into the woods the birds at once distinguish their enemies, and watch them, as we before observed of the fox, with all the marks of alarm and animosity. Wherever the martin conducts her young a flock of small birds are seen threatening and insulting her, alarming every thicket, and often directing the hunter in his pursuit. The martin is more common in North America than in any part of Europe. These animals are found in all the northern parts of the world, from Siberia to China and Canada. In every country they are hunted for their furs, which are very valuable, and chiefly so when taken in the beginning of winter. The most esteemed part of the martin's skin is that part of it which is browner than the rest, and stretches along the back-bone. Above twelve thousand of these skins are annually imported into England from Hudson's Bay, and above thirty thousand from Canada.

THE SABLE.—Most of the classes of the weasel kind would have continued utterly unknown and disregarded were it not for their furs, which are finer, more glossy, and softer than those of any other quadruped. Their dispositions are fierce and untameable, their scent generally offensive, and their figure disproportioned and displeasing. The knowledge of one or two of them would therefore have satisfied curiosity; and the rest would probably have been confounded together under one common name as things useless and uninteresting, had not their skins been coveted by the vain, and considered as capable of adding to human magnificence or beauty.

Of all these, however, the skin of the sable is the most coveted, and held in the highest esteem. It is of a brownish black—and the darker it is it becomes the more valuable. A single skin, though not above four inches broad, is often valued at an enormous amount; the fur differs from others in this, that it has no grain, so that rub it which way you will it is equally smooth and unresisting. Nevertheless, though this little animal's robe was so much coveted by the great, its history till of late was but very little known; and we are obliged to Mr. Jonelin for the first accurate description of its form and nature. From him we learn that the sable resembles the martin in form and size, and the weasel in the number of its teeth; for it is to be observed, that whereas the martin has thirty-eight teeth the weasel has but thirty-four; in this respect, therefore, the sable seems to make the shade between these two animals, being shaped like the one and furnished with teeth like the other. It is also furnished with very large whiskers about the mouth; its feet are broad, and, as in the rest of its kind, furnished with five claws on each foot. These are its constant marks; but its fur, for which it is so much valued, is not always the same. Some of these species are of a dark brown over all the body, except the ears and the throat, where the hair is rather yellow; others are more of a yellowish tincture, their ears and throat being also much paler. These in both are the colours they have in winter. and which they are seen to change in the beginning of the spring—the former becoming of a yellow brown and the latter of a pale yellow. In other respects they resemble their kind in vivacity, agility, and inquietude—in sleeping by day and seeking their prey by night—in living upon smaller animals, and in the disagreeable odour that chiefly characterises their race.

They generally inhabit along the banks of rivers, in shady places, and in the thickest woods. They leap with great ease from tree to tree, and are said to be afraid of the sun, which tarnishes the lustre of their robes.

They are chiefly hunted in winter for their skins, during which part of the year they are only in season. They are mostly found in Siberia, and but very few in any other country of the world, and this scarcity it is which enhances their value. The hunting of the sable chiefly falls to the lot of the condemned criminals, who are sent from Russia into these wild and extensive forests, which for a great part of the year are covered with snow; and, in this instance as in many others, the luxuries and ornaments of the vain are wrought out of the dangers and miseries of the wretched. These are obliged to furnish a certain number of skins every year, and are punished if the proper quantity be not provided.

The sable is also killed by the Russian soldiers, who are sent into those parts for that purpose. They are taxed a certain number of skins yearly, like the former, and are obliged to shoot with only a single ball, to avoid spoiling the skin, or else with a cross-bow and blunt arrows. As an encouragement to the hunters, they are allowed to share among themselves the surplus of those skins which they thus procure; and this, in the process of six or seven years, amounts to a very considerable sum. A colonel during his seven years' stay gains about four thousand crowns for his share, and the common men six or seven hundred each for theirs.

THE ICHNEUMON.—The ichneumon, which some have injudiciously denominated the "cat of Pharaoh," is one of the boldest and most useful animals of all the weasel kind. In the kingdom of Egypt, where it is chiefly bred, it is used for the same purposes that cats are in Europe, and is even more serviceable, as being more expert in catching mice than they. This animal is usually the size of the martin, and greatly resembles it in appearance, except that the hair, which is of a grizzled black, is much rougher and less downy. The tail, also, is not so bushy at the end; and each hair in particular has three or four colours, which are seen in different dispositions of its body. Under its rougher hairs there is a softer fur of a brownish colour, the rough hair being about two inches long, but that of the muzzle extremely short, as likewise that on the legs and paws. However, being long since brought into a domestic state, there are many varieties in this animal—some being much larger than the martin, others much less; some being of a lighter mixture of colours, and some being streaked in the manner of a cat.

The ichneumon, with all the strength of a cat, has more instinct and agility—a more universal appetite for carnage, and a greater variety of powers to procure it. Rats, mice, birds, serpents, lizards, and insects are all equally pursued; it attacks every living thing which it is able to overcome, and indiscriminately preys on flesh of all kinds. Its courage is equal to the vehemence of its appetites. It fears neither the force of the dog nor the insidious malice of the cat—neither the claws of the vulture or the poison of the viper. It makes war upon all kinds of serpents with avidity, seizes and kills them, how venomous soever they be; and, we are told, that when it begins to perceive the effects of their rage it has recourse to a certain root, which the Indians call after its name, and assert to be an antidote for the bite of the asp or the viper.

But what this animal is particularly serviceable to the Egyptians for is, that it discovers and destroys the eggs of the crocodile. It also kills the young ones that have not as yet been able to reach the water; and, as fable usually goes hand in hand with truth, it is said that the ichneumon sometimes enters the mouth of the crocodile when it is found sleeping on the shore, boldly attacks the enemy in the inside, and at length, when it has effectually destroyed it, it eats its way out again.

The ichneumon when wild generally resides along the banks of the rivers, and in times of inundation makes to the higher ground, often approaching inhabited places in quest of prey. It goes forward silently and with

caution, changing its manner of moving according to its necessities. Sometimes it carries the head high, shortens its body, and raises itself upon its legs; sometimes it lengthens itself and seems to creep along the ground; it is often observed to sit upon its hind legs, like a dog when taught to beg; but more commonly it is seen to dart like an arrow upon its prey, and seize it with inevitable certainty. Its eyes are sprightly and full of fire, its physiognomy sensible, its body nimble, its tail long, and its hair rough and various. Like all of its kind, it has glands that open behind, and which furnish an odorous substance. Its nose is too sharp and its mouth too small to permit its seizing things that are large; however, it makes up by its courage and activity its want of arms; it easily strangles a cat, though stronger and larger than itself; and often fights with dogs, which, though never so bold, learn to dread the ichneumon as a formidable enemy. It also takes the water like the otter, and, as we are told, will continue under it much longer.

This animal grows fast and dies soon. It is found in great numbers in all the southern parts of Asia, from Egypt to Java; and it is also found in Africa, particularly at the Cape of Good Hope. It is domesticated, as was said, in Egypt; but in our colder climates it is not easy to breed or maintain them, as they are not able to support the rigour of our winters. Nevertheless, they take every precaution that instinct can dictate to keep themselves warm; they rap themselves up into a ball, hiding the head between the legs, and in this manner continue to sleep all day long. Seba had one sent him from the island of Ceylon, which he permitted for some months to run about the house. It was heavy and slothful by day, and often could not be awakened even with a blow; but it made up for this indolence by its nocturnal activity, smelling about without either being wholly tame or wholly mischievous. It climbed up the walls and the trees with great ease, and appeared very fond of spiders and worms, which it preferred, probably from their resemblance to serpents—its natural food. It was also particularly eager to scratch up holes in the ground; and this, added to its wildness and uncleanness, obliged our naturalist to smother it in spirits in order to preserve it, and added it to the rest of his collection.

This animal was one of those formerly worshiped by the Egyptians, who considered everything that was serviceable to them as an emanation from the Deity, and worshiped such as the best representatives of God below. Indeed, if we consider the number of eggs which the crocodile lays in the sand at a time, which often amount to three or four hundred, we have reason to admire this little animal's usefulness as well as industry in destroying them, since otherwise the crocodile might be produced in sufficient numbers to overrun the whole earth.

THE STINKARDS.—This is a name which our sailors give to one or two animals of the weasel kind, which are chiefly found in America. All the weasel kind, as was already observed, have a very strong smell—some of them indeed approaching to a perfume, but the greatest number most insupportably fetid. But the smell of our weasels, ermines, and polecats is fragrance itself when compared to that of the "squash" and the "skink," which have been called the "polecats" of America. These two are found in different parts of America, both differing in colour and fur, but both obviously of the weasel kind, as appears not only from their figure and odour but also from their disposition. The squash is about the size of a polecat, its hair of a deep brown, but principally differing from all of this kind in having only four toes on the feet before, whereas all other weasels have five. The skink, which I take to be Catesby's Virginia polecat, resembles a polecat in shape and size, but particularly differs in the length of its hair and

colour. The hair is above three inches and a half long, and that at the end of the tail above four inches. The colour is partly black and partly white, variously disposed over the body, very glossy, long, and beautiful. There seem to be two varieties more of this animal, which Mr. Buffon calls the "conepate" and the "zorille." He supposes each to be a distinct species; but as they are both said to resemble the polecat in form, and both clothed with long fur of a black and white colour, it seems needless to make a distinction. The conepate resembles the skink in all things except in size, being smaller, and in the disposition of its colours, which are more exact, having five white stripes on a black ground, running longitudinally from the head to the tail. The zorille resembles the skink, but is rather smaller and more beautifully coloured, its streaks of black and white being more distinct, and the colours of its tail being black at its insertion and white at the extremity, whereas in the skink they are all of one grey colour.

But whatever differences there may be in the figure or colour of these little animals, they all agree in one common affection—that of being intolerably foetid and loathsome. I have already observed that all the weasel kind have glands furnishing an odorous matter near the anus, the conduits of which generally have their aperture just at its opening. That substance which is stored up in these receptacles is in some of these kind—such as in the martin, already mentioned, and also in the genet and the civet, to be described hereafter—a most grateful perfume; but in the weasel, the ermine, the ferret, and the polecat it is extremely foetid and offensive. These glands in the animals now under consideration are much larger, and furnish a matter sublimed to a degree of putrescence that is truly amazing. As to the perfumes of musk and civet, we know that a single grain will diffuse itself over a whole house, and continue for months to spread an agreeable odour without diminution. However, the perfume of the musk or the civet is nothing either for strength or duration to the insupportable odour of these. It is usually voided with their excrement; and if but a single drop happens to touch any part of a man's garment, it is more than probable that he can never wear any part of it more.

In describing the effects produced by the excrement of these animals, we often hear of its raising this diabolical smell by its urine. However, of this I am apt to doubt; and it should seem to me, that as all the weasel kind have their excrements so extremely foetid from the cause above-mentioned, we may consider these also as being foetid from the same causes. Besides, they are not furnished with glands to give their urine such a smell; and the analogy between them and the weasel kind being so strong in other respects, we may suppose they resemble each other in this. It has also been said that they take this method of ejecting their excrement to defend themselves against their pursuers; but it is much more probable that this ejection is the convulsive effect of terror, and that it serves as their defence without their own concurrence. Certain it is that they never smell thus horribly except when enraged or affrighted, for they are often kept tame about the houses of the planters of America without being very offensive.

The habitudes of all these animals are the same, living like all the rest of the weasel kind, as they prey upon smaller animals and birds' eggs. The squash, for instance, burrows like the polecat in the clefts of rocks, where it brings forth its young. It often steals into farm-yards and kills the poultry, eating only their brains. Nor is it safe to pursue or offend it, for then it calls up all its scents, which are its most powerful protection. At that time neither men nor dogs will offer to approach it; the scent is so strong that it reaches for half a mile round, and more near at hand is almost stifling. If the dogs continue to pursue it does all in its power to escape by getting up a tree, or by some such means; but

if driven to an extremity it then lets fly upon the hunters; and if it should happen that a drop of this foetid discharge falls in the eye, the person runs the risk of being blinded for ever. Consequently the stinkard frequently escapes its persecutors from their fear of inhaling its abominable effluvia when hunted to bay.

The dogs themselves instantly abate of their ardour when they find this extraordinary battery played off against them; they instantly turn tail, and leave the animal undisputed master of the field; and no exhortations can ever bring them to rally. "In the year 1749," says Kalm, "one of these animals came near the farm where I lived. It was in winter time, during the night; and the dogs that were upon the watch pursued it for some time, until it discharged against them. Although I was in my bed a good way off I thought I should have been suffocated; and the cows and oxen by their lowings showed how much they were affected by the stench. About the end of the same year another of these animals crept into our cellar, but did not exhale the smallest scent, because it was not disturbed. A foolish woman, however, who perceived it at night by the shining of its eyes, killed it, and at that moment its stench began to spread. The whole cellar was filled with it to such a degree, that the woman kept her bed for several days after; and all the bread, meat, and other provisions that were kept there were so infected, that they were obliged to be thrown out of doors. And yet many of the planters and the native Americans keep this animal tame about their houses; and seldom perceive any disagreeable scents, except it is injured or frightened. The native Americans, it is said, are known to eat its flesh, which some assert to be tolerable food; however, they take care to deprive it of those glands which are so horribly offensive.

THE GENET.—From the squash, which is the most offensive animal in nature, we come to the genet, which is one of the most beautiful and pleasing. Instead of the horrid stench with which the former affects us, this has a most grateful odour—more faint than civet, but to some for that reason more agreeable. This animal is rather less than the martin; though there are genets of different sizes, and I have seen one rather larger. It also differs somewhat in the form of its body. It is not easy in words to give an idea of the distinction: it resembles all those of the weasel kind in its length compared to its height—it resembles them in having a soft, beautiful fur, in having its feet armed with claws that cannot be sheathed, and in its appetite for petty carnage; but then it differs from them in having the nose much smaller and longer, rather resembling that of a fox than a weasel. The tail, also, instead of being bushy, tapers to a point, and is much longer; its ears are larger and its paws smaller. As to its colours and figure generally, the genet is spotted with black upon a ground mixed with red and grey. It has two sorts of hair, the one shorter and softer, the other longer and stronger, but not above half an inch long on any part of its body except the tail. Its spots are distinct and separate upon the sides, but unite towards the back, and form black stripes, which run longitudinally from the neck backwards. It has also along the back a kind of mane or longish hair, which forms a black streak from the head to the tail, which last is marked with rings, alternately black and white, its whole length.

The genet, like all the rest of the weasel kinds, has glands that secrete a kind of perfume resembling civet, but which soon flies off. These glands open differently from those of other animals of this kind; for as the latter have their aperture just at the opening of the anus, these have their aperture immediately under it; so that the male seems for this reason to the superficial observer to be of two sexes.

It resembles the martin very much in its habits and

disposition, except that it seems tamed much more easily. Belonius assures us that he has seen them in the houses at Constantinople as tame as cats, and that they were permitted to run everywhere about without doing the slightest mischief. For this reason they have been called the "cats of Constantinople"—although they have little more in common with that animal except their skill in spying out and destroying vermin. Naturalists pretend that it inhabits only the moister grounds, and chiefly resides along the banks of rivers, having never been found in mountains or dry places. The species is not much diffused; it is not to be found in any part of Europe except Spain and Turkey: it requires a warm climate to subsist and multiply in; and yet it is not to be found in the warmer regions of India or Africa. From such as have seen its uses at Constantinople, I learn that it is one of the most beautiful, cleanly, and industrious animals in the world; that it keeps whatever house it is in perfectly free from mice and rats, which cannot endure its smell. Added to this, its nature is mild and gentle, its colours various and glossy, its fur valuable; and, upon the whole, it seems to be one of those animals which with proper care might be propagated amongst us, and might become one of the most serviceable of our domestics.

THE CIVET.—Proceeding from the smaller to the greater of this kind, we come in the first place to the civet, which is much larger than any of the former; for as the martin is not above sixteen inches long, the civet is found to be above thirty. Mr. Buffon distinguishes this species into two kinds, one of which he calls the "civet," and the other the "zibet." The latter principally differs from the former in having the body longer and more slender, the nose smaller, the ears longer and broader—no mane or long hair running down the back in the latter; and the tail is longer and better marked with rings of different colours from one end to the other. These are the differences which have induced this great naturalist to suppose them animals of distinct species, and to allot each a separate description. How far future experience may confirm this conjecture time must discover; but certain it is, that if such small varieties make a separate class there may be a great many other animals equally entitled to peculiar distinction that now are classed together. We shall therefore content ourselves at present with considering, as former naturalists have done, these two merely as varieties of the same animal, and only altered in figure by climate, food, or education.

The civet resembles animals of the weasel kind in the long slenderness of its body, the shortness of its legs, the odorous matter that exudes from the glands behind, the softness of its fur, the number of its claws, and their incapacity of being sheathed. It differs from them in being much larger than any hitherto described; in having the nose lengthened, so as to resemble that of the fox; the tail long, and tapering to a point; and its ears straight, like those of a cat. The colour of the civet varies; it is commonly ash-colour, spotted with black; though it is whiter in the female, tending to yellow, and the spots are much larger, like those of the panther. The colour on the belly and under the throat is black, whereas the other parts of the body are black or streaked with grey. This animal varies in its colour, being sometimes streaked, as in our kind of cats called "tabbies." It has whiskers like the rest of its kind; and its eye is a beautiful black.

The opening of the pouch or bag, which is the receptacle of the civet, differs from that of the rest of the weasel kind—not opening into, but under, the anus. Besides this opening, which is large, there is still another lower down, but for what purposes designed is not at present known. The pouch itself is about two inches and a half broad and two long; its opening makes a

chink from the top downwards, which is about the same length as the pouch is broad, and is covered on the edges and within with short hair; when the two sides are drawn asunder the inward cavity may be seen, large enough to hold a small pullet's egg; all round this are small glands, opening and furnishing that strong perfume which is so well known, and is found in this pouch of the colour and consistence of pomatum. Those who make it their business to breed these animals for their perfume usually take it from them twice or thrice a week, and sometimes oftener. The animal is kept in a sort of long box, in which it cannot turn round. The breeder, therefore, opens this box behind, drags the animal backwards by the tail, keeps it in this position by a bar before, and, with a wooden spoon, takes the civet from the pouch as carefully as he can; he then lets the tail go and shuts the box again. The perfume thus procured is put into a vessel, which he takes care to keep closed; and when a sufficient quantity is procured it is sold to great advantage.

The civet, although a native of the warmest climates, is found to live in temperate and even in cold countries, provided it be defended carefully from the injuries of the air. Wherefore it is not only bred among the Turks, the Indians, and the Africans, but great numbers of these animals are also bred in Holland, where this scraping people make no small gain of its perfume. The perfume of Amsterdam is reckoned the purest of any—the people of other countries adulterating it with gums and other matters, which diminish its value but increase its weight. The quantity which a single animal affords generally depends upon its health and nourishment. It gives most in proportion as it is more delicately and abundantly fed. Raw flesh hashed small, eggs, rice, birds, young fowls, and particularly fish, are the kinds of food the civet more delights in. These are to be changed and altered to suit and entice its appetite and continue its health. It gets but very little water; and although it drinks but rarely, yet it makes urine very frequently; and upon such occasions we cannot, as in other animals, distinguish the male from the female.

The perfume of the civet is so strong that it communicates itself to all parts of the animal's body; the fur is impregnated thereby, and the skin penetrated to such a degree that it continues to preserve the odour for a long time after it is stripped off. If a person be shut up with one of them in a close room he cannot support the perfume which is so copiously diffused. When the animal is irritated, as in all the weasel kind, its scent is much more violent than ordinary; and if it be tormented so as to make it sweat, it emits a very strong perfume, and serves to adulterate or increase what is otherwise obtained from it. In general it is sold in Holland for about fifty shillings an ounce; though, like all other commodities, its value alters in proportion to the demand. Civet must be chosen new, of good consistence, a whitish colour, and a strong, disagreeable smell. There is still a very considerable traffic carried on from Busserah, Calicut, and other places in India, where the animal that produces it is bred—from the Levant, also from Guinea, and especially from Brazil, in South America, although Mr. Buffon is of opinion that the animal is a native only of the Old Continent, and not to be found wild in the New. The best civet, however, is furnished, as was observed, by the Dutch, though not in such quantities at present as some years past when this perfume was more in fashion. Civet is a much more grateful perfume than musk, to which it has a resemblance; and was some years ago used for the same purposes in medicine. But at present it is quite discontinued in prescriptions; and persons of taste or elegance seem to proscribe it from their toilet. Perfumes, like dress, have their vicissitudes; musk was in peculiar repute until displaced by civet; both gave ground upon discovering the manner of preparing ambergris; and even this is now disused for the less powerful vegetable

kinds of fragrance—spirit of lavender, or otto of roses.

As to the rest, the civet is said to be a wild, fierce animal; and, although sometimes tamed, is never thoroughly familiar. Its teeth are strong and cutting, although its claws are feeble and inflexible. It is light and active, and lives by prey as the rest of its kind, pursuing birds and other small animals that it is able to overcome. They are sometimes seen stealing into the yards and out-houses to seize upon the poultry; their eyes shine in the night, and it is very probable that they see better in the dark than by day. When they fail of animal food they are found to subsist on roots and fruits, and very seldom drink; for which reason they are never found near great waters. They breed very fast in their native climates, where the heat seems to conduce to their propagation; but in our temperate latitudes, although they furnish their perfume in great quantities, yet they are not found to multiply—a proof that their perfume has no analogy with their appetite for generation.

THE GLUTTON.—I will add but one animal more to this numerous class of the weasel kind—namely, the glutton, which for several reasons seems to belong to this tribe and this only. We have hitherto had no precise description of this quadruped—some resembling it to a badger, some to a fox, and some to a hyæna. Linnæus places it among the weasels from the similitude of its teeth; it would seem to me to resemble this animal still more from the great length of its body and the shortness of its legs—from the shortness of its fur, its disagreeable scent, and its insatiable appetite for animal food. Mr. Klein, who saw one of them which was brought alive from Siberia, assures us that it was about three feet long, and about a foot and a half high. If we compare these dimensions with those of other animals, we shall find that they approach more nearly to the class we are at present describing than any other; and that the glutton may very justly be conceived under the form of a great, overgrown weasel. Its nose, its ears, its teeth, and its long bushy tail are entirely familiar; and as to what is said of its being rather corpulent than slender, it is most probable that those who described it thus saw it after eating, at which time its belly is very much distended; however, suspending all certainty upon this subject, I will take leave rather to follow Linnæus than Buffon in describing this animal, and leave future experience to judge between them.

The glutton, which is so called from its voracious appetite, is an animal found as well in the north of Europe and Siberia as in the northern parts of America, where it has the name of the "carcajou." Amidst the variety of descriptions which have been given of it no very just idea can be formed of its figure; and, indeed, some naturalists, among whom was Ray, entirely doubted of its existence. From the best accounts we have of it, however, the body is thick and long, the legs short; it is black along the back, and of a redish brown on the sides; its fur is held in the highest estimation for its softness and beautiful gloss; the tail is bushy like that of the weasel, but rather shorter; and its legs and claws are better fitted for climbing trees than for running along the ground. Thus far it entirely resembles the weasel; and its manner of taking its prey is also by surprise, and not by pursuit.

Scarce any of the animals with short legs and long bodies pursue their prey; but, knowing their own incapacity to overtake it by swiftness, either creep upon it in its retreats, or wait in ambush and seize it with a bound. The glutton, from the make of its legs and the length of its body, must be particularly slow; and consequently its only resource is in taking its prey by surprise. All the rest of the weasel kind, from the smallness of their size, are better fitted for a life of insidious rapine than this; they can pursue their prey into its retreats—they can lurk unseen among the branches of trees, and hide

themselves with ease under the leaves; but the glutton is too large to follow small prey into their retreats—nor would such, even if obtained, be sufficient to sustain it. For these reasons, therefore, this animal seems naturally compelled to the life for which it has long been remarkable. Its only resource is to climb a tree, which it does with great ease, and there it waits with patience until some large animal passes underneath, upon which it darts with unerring certainty and destroys it.

It is chiefly in North America that this voracious creature is seen lurking among the thick branches of trees in order to surprise the deer, with which the extensive forests of that part of the world abound. Endued with a degree of patience equal to its rapacity, the glutton singles out such trees as it observes marked by the teeth or the antlers of the deer, and is known to remain there watching for several days together. If it has fixed upon a wrong tree, and finds that the deer have either left that part of the country or cautiously shun the place, it reluctantly descends, pursues the beaver to its retreat, or even ventures into the water in pursuit of fishes. But if it happens that, by long attention and keeping close, at last the elk or the rein-deer happens to pass that way, it at once darts down upon them, sticks its claws between their shoulders, and remains there unalterably firm. It is in vain that the large, frightened animal increases its speed or threatens with its branching horns; the glutton having taken possession of its post, nothing can drive it off; its enormous prey drives rapidly along amongst the thickest woods, rubs itself against the largest trees, and tears down the branches with its expanded horns; but still its insatiable foe sticks behind, eating its neck, and digging its passage to the great blood-vessels which lie in that part. Travellers who wander through those deserts often see pieces of the glutton's skin sticking to the trees against which it was rubbed by the deer. But the animal's voracity is greater than its feelings, and it never seizes without bringing down its prey. When, therefore, the deer, wounded and feeble with the loss of blood, falls, the glutton is seen to make up for its former abstinence by its present voracity. As it is not possessed of a feast of this kind every day, it resolves to lay in a store to serve it for a good while to come. It is, indeed, amazing how much these animals can eat at a time. That which was seen by Mr. Klein—although without exercise or air, although taken from its native climate and enjoying but an indifferent state of health—was seen to eat thirteen pounds of flesh every day, and yet remain unsatisfied. We may therefore easily conceive how much more it must devour at once after a long fast of a food of its own procuring, and in the climate most natural to its constitution. We are told, accordingly, that from being a lank, thin animal, which it naturally is, it then gorges in such quantities that its belly is distended and its whole figure seems to alter. Thus voraciously it continues eating until, incapable of any other animal function, it lies totally torpid by the animal it has killed, and in this situation continues for two or three days. In this loathsome and helpless state it finds its chief protection from its horrid smell, which few animals care to come near; so that it continues eating and sleeping till its prey be devoured, bones and all, and then it mounts into a tree in quest of other adventures.

The glutton, like many others of the weasel kind, seems to prefer the most putrid flesh to that newly killed; and such is the voracity of this hateful creature, that if its swiftness and strength were equal to its rapacity it would soon clear the forest of every other living creature. But fortunately it is so slow that there is scarce a quadruped that cannot escape it, except the beaver. This, therefore, it very frequently pursues upon land; but the beaver generally makes good its retreat by taking to the water, where the glutton has no chance to succeed. This pursuit only happens in summer; for in winter all

that remains is to attack the beaver's house, as at that time it never stirs from home. This attack, however, seldom succeeds; for the beaver has a covert way bored under the ice, and the glutton has only the trouble and disappointment of sacking an empty town.

A life of necessity generally produces a good fertile invention. The glutton, continually pressed by the calls of appetite, and having neither swiftness nor activity to satisfy it, is obliged to make up by stratagem the defects of Nature. It is often seen to examine the traps and the snares laid for other animals, in order to anticipate the fowlers. It is said to practise a thousand arts to procure its prey—to steal upon the retreats of the reindeer, the flesh of which animal it loves in preference to all others; to lie in wait for such animals as have been maimed by the hunters; to pursue the isatis while it is hunting for itself, and when that animal has run down its prey, to come in and seize upon the whole, and sometimes to devour even the poor provider; when these pursuits fail, even to dig up the graves and fall upon the bodies interred there, devouring them bones and all. For these reasons the natives of the countries where the glutton inhabits hold it in utter detestation, and usually term it the vulture of quadrupeds. And yet it is extraordinary enough that, being so very obnoxious to man, it does not seem to fear him. We are told by Gemelin of one of these coming up boldly and calmly where there were several persons at work, without testifying the smallest apprehension, or attempting to run until it had received several blows that at last totally disabled it. In all probability it came among them seeking its prey; and, having been used to attack animals of inferior strength, it had no idea of a force superior to its own. The glutton, like all the rest of its kind, is a solitary animal, and is never seen in company except with its female, with which it couples in the midst of winter. The latter goes with young about four months, and brings forth two or three at a time. They burrow in holes as the weasel; and the male and female are generally found together, both equally resolute in defence of their young. Upon this occasion the boldest dogs are afraid to approach them; they fight obstinately and bite most cruelly. However, as they are unable to escape by flight, the hunters come to the assistance of the dogs and easily overpower them. Their flesh, it may readily be supposed, is not fit to be eaten: but the skins amply recompense the hunters for their toil and danger. The fur has the most beautiful lustre that can be imagined, and is preferred before all others, except that of the Siberian fox or the sable. Among other peculiarities of this animal, Linnæus informs us that it is very difficult to be skinned; but from what cause, whether its abominable stench or the skin's tenacity to the flesh, he has not thought fit to inform us.

ANIMALS OF THE HARE KIND.

BOOK V.—CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.—Having described in the last chapter a tribe of minute, fierce, rapacious animals, I come now to a race of minute animals of a more harmless and gentle kind, that without being enemies to any are preyed upon by all. As Nature has fitted the former for hostility, so it has entirely formed the latter for evasion; and as the one kind subsist by their courage and activity, so the other find safety from their swiftness and their fears. The hare is the swiftest animal in the world for the time it continues; and few quadrupeds can overtake even the rabbit when it has but a short way to run. To this class also we may add the squirrel, somewhat resembling the hare and rabbit in its form and nature, and equally pretty, inoffensive, and pleasing.

If we were methodically to distinguish animals of the hare kind from all others, we might say that they have but two cutting teeth above and two below, that they are covered with a soft downy fur, and that they have a bushy tail. The combination of these marks might perhaps distinguish them tolerably well, whether from the rat, the beaver, the otter, or any other most nearly approaching in form; but as I have declined all method that rather tends to embarrass history than enlighten it, I am contented to class these animals together for no precise reason, but because I find a general resemblance between them in their natural habits and in the shape of their heads and body. I call a squirrel an animal of the hare kind, because it is something like a hare. I call the paca of the same kind, merely because it is more like a rabbit than any other animal I know of. In short, it is fit to erect some particular standard in the imagination of the reader, to refer him to some animals that he knows in order to direct him in conceiving the figure of such as he does not know. Still, however, he should be apprised that his knowledge will be defective without an examination of each particular species, and that saying an animal is of this or that particular kind is but a very trifling part of its history.

Animals of the hare kind, like all others that feed entirely upon vegetables, are inoffensive and timorous. As Nature furnishes them with a most abundant supply, they have not that rapacity for food remarkable in such as are often stinted in their provision. They are extremely active and amazingly swift, to which they chiefly owe their protection; for being the prey of every voracious animal they are incessantly pursued. The hare, the rabbit, and the squirrel are placed by Pyrius in his Treatise of Ruminating Animals among the number of those that chew the cud; but how far this may be true I will not pretend to determine. Certain it is that their lips continually move whether sleeping or waking. Nevertheless, they chew their meat very much before they swallow it, and for that reason I should suppose that it does not want a second mastication. All these animals use their fore-paws like hands; they are remarkably salacious, and are furnished by Nature with more ample powers than most others for the business of propagation. They are so very prolific, that were they not thinned by the constant depredations made upon them by most other animals they would quickly over-run the earth.

THE HARE.—Of all these the hare is the largest, the most persecuted, and the most timorous; all its muscles are formed for swiftness, and all its senses seem only given to direct its flight. It has very large prominent eyes, placed backwards in its head, so that it can almost see behind it as it runs. These are never wholly closed; but as the animal is continually upon the watch it sleeps with them open. The ears are still more remarkable for their size; they are moveable, and capable of being directed to every quarter; so that the smallest sounds are readily received, and the animal's motions directed accordingly. The muscles of the body are very strong and without fat, so that it may be said to carry no superfluous burden of flesh about it; the hinder legs are longer than the fore, which still adds to the rapidity of its motions; and almost all animals that are remarkable for their speed, except the horse, are formed in the same manner.

An animal so well formed for a life of escape might be supposed to enjoy a state of tolerable security; but as every rapacious creature is its enemy, it but very seldom lives out its natural term. Dogs of all kinds pursue it by instinct, and follow the hare more eagerly than any other animal. The cat and the weasel kinds are continually lying in ambush, and practising all their little arts to seize it; birds of prey are still more dangerous enemies, as against them no swiftness can avail nor

retreat secure; but man, an enemy far more powerful than all, prefers its flesh to that of other animals, and destroys greater numbers than all the rest. Thus pursued and persecuted on every side, the race would long since have been totally extirpated did it not find a resource in its amazing fertility.

The hare multiplies exceedingly; it is in a state of engendering at a few months old; the females go with young but thirty days, and generally bring forth three or four at a time. As soon as they have produced their young they are again ready for conception, and thus do not lose any time in continuing the breed. But they are in another respect fitted in an extraordinary manner for multiplying their kind; for the female, from the conformation of her womb, is often seen to bring forth and yet to continue pregnant at the same time; or, in other words, to have young ones of different ages in her womb together. Other animals never receive the male when pregnant, but bring forth their young at once. But it is frequently different with the hare—the female often, though already impregnated, admitting the male, and thus receiving a second impregnation. This extraordinary circumstance is, that the womb in these animals is divided in such a manner that it may be considered as a double organ, one side of which may be filled while the other remains empty. Thus these animals may be seen to couple at every period of their pregnancy, and even while they are bringing forth young laying the foundation of another brood.

The young of these animals are brought forth with their eyes open, and the dam suckles them for twenty days, after which they leave her and seek out for themselves. From this we observe that the education these animals receive is but trifling, and the family connection but of a short duration. In the rapacious kinds the dam leads her young forth for months together, teaches them the arts of rapine, and, although she wants milk to supply them, yet keeps them under her care until they are able to hunt for themselves. But a long connection of this kind would be very unnecessary as well as dangerous to the timid animals we are describing; their food is easily procured, and their associations, instead of protection, would only expose them to their pursuers. They seldom, however, separate far from each other, or from the place where they were produced, but make each a form at some distance, having a predilection rather for the place than each other's society. They feed during the night rather than by day, choosing the more tender blades of grass, and quenching their thirst with the dew. They live also upon roots, leaves, fruits, and corn, and prefer such plants as are furnished with a milky juice. They also strip the bark of trees during the winter, there being scarce any that they will not feed on except the lime or the alder. They are particularly fond of birch, pinks, and parakey. When they are kept tame they are fed with lettuce and other garden herbs; but the flesh of such as are thus brought up is always indifferent.

They sleep or repose in their forms by day, and may be said to live only by night. It is then that they go forth to feed and couple. They do not pair, however, but in the rutting season, which begins in February; the male pursues and discovers the female by the sagacity of its nose. They are then seen by moonlight playing, skipping, and pursuing each other; but the least motion, the slightest breeze, the falling of a leaf, is sufficient to disturb their revels; they instantly fly off, and each takes a separate way.

As their limbs are made for running they easily outstrip all other animals in the beginning; and could they preserve their speed it would be impossible to overtake them; but as they exhaust their strength at their first efforts, and double back to the place started from, they are more easily taken than the fox, which is a much slower animal than they. As their hind-legs are longer than the fore, they always choose to turn up hill,

by which the speed of their pursuers is diminished while theirs remains the same. Their motions are also without any noise, as they have the sole of the foot furnished with hair; and they seem the only animals that have hair on the inside of their mouths.

They seldom live above seven or eight years at the utmost; they come to their full perfection in a year; and this multiplied by seven, as in other animals, gives the extent of their lives. It is said, however, that the females live longer than the males: of this Mr. Buffon makes a doubt, but I am assured that it is so. They pass their lives in our climate in solitude and silence; and they seldom are heard to cry except when they are seized or wounded. Their voice is not so sharp as the note of some other animals, but more nearly approaching that of the squalling of a child. They are not so wild as their dispositions and their habits seem to indicate; but are of a complying nature, and easily susceptible of a kind of education. They are easily tamed: they even become fond and caressing, but they are incapable of attachment to any particular person, and never can be depended upon; for though taken never so young they regain their native freedom at the first opportunity. As they have a remarkable good ear, and sit upon their hind-legs and use their fore-paws as hands, they have been taught to beat the drum, to dance to music, and go through the manual exercise.

But their natural instincts for their preservation are much more extraordinary than those artificial tricks that are taught them. They make themselves a form, particularly in those places where the colour of the grass most resembles that of their skin; it is open to the south in winter and to the north in summer. The hare, when it hears the hounds at a distance, flies for some time through a natural impulse, without managing its strength or consulting any other means but speed for its safety. Having attained some hill or rising ground, and left the dogs so far behind that it no longer hears their cries, it stops, rears on its hinder legs, and at length looks back to see if it has not lost its pursuers. But these, having once fallen upon the scent, pursue slowly and with united skill, and the poor animal soon again hears the fatal tidings of their approach. Sometimes when sore hunted it will start a fresh hare, and squat in the same form; sometimes it will creep under the door of a sheep-cot, and hide among the sheep; sometimes it will run among them, and no vigilance can drive it from the flock; some will enter holes like the rabbit, which the hunters call going to "vault;" some will go up one side of the hedge and come down the other; and it has been known that a hare hotly pressed has got upon the top of a cut quick-set hedge and run a good way thereon, by which it has effectually evaded the hounds. It is no unusual thing also for them to betake themselves to furze bushes, and to leap from one to another, by which the dogs are frequently misled. However, the first doubling a hare makes is generally a key to all its future attempts of that kind, the latter being exactly like the former. The young hares tread heavier, and leave a stronger scent than the old, because their limbs are weaker; and the more this forlorn creature tires the heavier it treads and the stronger is the scent it leaves. A buck or male hare is known by its choosing to run upon hard highways, feeding farther from the wood-sides, and making its doublings of a greater compass than the female. The male, having made a turn or two about its form, frequently leads the hounds five or six miles on a stretch; but the female keeps close by some covert side, turns, crosses, and winds among the bushes like a rabbit, and seldom runs directly forward. In general, however, both male and female regulate their conduct according to the weather. In a moist day they hold by the highways more than at any other time, because the scent is then strongest upon the grass. If they come to the side of a grove or spring they forbear to enter, but squat down by

the side thereof until the hounds have overshot them; and then, turning along their former path, make to their old form, from which they vainly hope for protection.

Hares are divided by the hunters into mountain and meased hares. The former are more swift, vigorous, and have their flesh better tasted; the latter chiefly frequent the marshes, when hunted keep among low grounds, and their flesh is moist, white, and flabby. When the male and female keep one particular spot, they will not suffer any strange hare to make its form in the same quarter, so that it is usually said that the more you hunt the more hares you shall have; for, having killed one, others come and take possession of its form. Many of these animals are found to live in woods and thickets; but they are naturally fonder of the open country, and are constrained only by fear to take shelter in places that afford them neither a warm sun nor an agreeable pasture. They are therefore usually seen stealing out of the edges of the wood to taste the grass that grows shorter and sweeter in the open fields than under the shade of the trees; however, they seldom enjoy this recreation without being pursued—and every excursion is a new adventure. They are fired at by poachers—traced by their footsteps in the snow—caught in springs—dogs, birds, and cats are all in combination against them—ants, snakes, and adders drive them from their forms, especially in summer—even fleas, from which most other animals are free, persecute this poor creature; and so numerous are its enemies, that it is seldom permitted to reach even that short term to which it is limited by Nature.

The soil and climate have their influence upon this animal as well as on most others. In the countries bordering on the north pole they become white in the winter, and are often seen in troops of four or five hundred running along the banks of the river Irtish or the Jemisa, and are white as the snow they tread on. They are caught in traps for the sake of their skins, which on the spot are sold for less than seven shillings a hundred. Their fur is well known to form a considerable article in the hat manufacture; and we accordingly import great quantities from those countries where the hare abounds in such plenty. They are also found entirely black, but these in much less quantities than the former; and some have even been seen with horns, though these but rarely.

The hares of the hot countries, particularly in Italy, Spain, and Barbary, are smaller than ours; those bred in the Milanese country are said to be the best in Europe. There is scarce a country where this animal is not to be found, from the torrid zone to the neighbourhood of the polar circle. The natives of Guinea knock them on the head as they come down to the sides of the rivers to drink. They also surround the place where they are seen in numbers, and, clattering a short stick, which every man carries, against that which the person next him carries, they diminish their circle gradually till the hares are cooped up in the midst. They then altogether throw their sticks in among them, and with such deadly force, that they seldom fail of killing great numbers at a time.

The flesh of this animal has been esteemed as a delicacy among some nations, and is held in detestation by others. The Jews, the Ancient Britons, and the Mahometans, all considered it as an unclean animal, and religiously abstained from it. On the contrary, there are scarce any other people, however barbarous at present, that do not consider it as the most agreeable food. Fashion seems to preside and govern all the senses; what mankind at one time consider as beautiful, fragrant, or savoury, may at another time or among other nations be regarded as deformed, disgusting, or ill-tasted. That flesh which the Ancient Romans so much admired as to call it the food of the wise was among the Jews and the Druids thought unfit to be eaten; and even the moderns

—who, like the Romans, consider the flesh of this animal as a delicacy—have very different ideas as to dressing it. With us it is simply served up without much seasoning; but Apicius shows us the manner of dressing the hare in true Roman taste, with parsley, rice, vinegar, cummin-seed, and coriander.

THE RABBIT.—The hare and the rabbit, though so very nearly resembling each other in form and disposition, are yet distinct kinds, as they refuse to mix with each other. Mr. Buffon bred up several of both kinds in the same place; but from being at first indifferent they soon became enemies, and their combats were generally continued until one of them was disabled or destroyed. However, though these experiments were not attended with success, I am assured that nothing is more frequent than an animal bred between these two, but which, like the mule, is marked with sterility. Nay, it has been actually known that the rabbit couples with animals of a much more distant nature; and there is at present in the Museum at Brussels a creature covered with feathers and hair, and said to be bred between a rabbit and a hen. The fecundity of the rabbit is still greater than that of the hare; and were we to calculate the produce from a single pair in one year the number would be amazing. They breed seven times in a year, and bring eight young ones each time. On a supposition, therefore, that this happens regularly, at the end of four years a couple of rabbits will see a progeny extending to nearly a million and a half. From hence we might justly apprehend being overstocked by their increase; but, happily for mankind, their enemies are numerous and their nature inoffensive—so that their destruction bears a near proportion to their fertility.

But although their numbers are diminished by every beast and bird of prey, and still more by man himself, yet there is no fear of their extirpation. The hare is a poor, defenceless animal, that has nothing but its swiftness to depend on for safety; its numbers are therefore every day decreasing; and in countries that are well peopled the species are so much kept under that laws are made for their preservation. Still, however, it is most likely that they will at last be totally destroyed and, like the wolf or the elk in some countries, be only kept in remembrance. But it is otherwise with the rabbit, its fecundity being greater and its means of safety more certain. The hare seems to have more various arts and instincts to escape its pursuers by doubling, squatting, and winding; the rabbit has but one solitary mode of defence, but in that one finds safety—by making itself a hole, where it continues a great part of the day and breeds up its young; there it continues secure from the fox, the hound, the kite, and all other enemies.

Nevertheless, though this retreat be safe and convenient, the rabbit does not seem to be naturally fond of remaining there. It loves the sunny field and the open pasture; it seems to be a chilly animal, and dislikes the coldness of its underground habitation. It is therefore continually out when it does not fear pursuit; and the female often brings forth her young at a distance from the warren, in a hole not above a foot deep at the most. There she suckles them for about a month, covering them over with moss and grass whenever she goes to pasture, and scratching them up at her return. It has been said, indeed, that this shallow hole outside the warren is made lest the male should attack and destroy her young; but I have seen the male attend the young there himself, lead them out to feed, and conduct them back on the return of the dam. This external retreat seems a kind of country house at a distance from the general habitation; it is usually made near some spot of excellent pasture, or amidst a field of sprouting corn. To this both male and female often retire from the warren, lead their young by night to the food which lies so convenient, and, if not disturbed, continue

there till they are grown up. There they find a greater variety of pasture than near the warren, which is generally eaten bare, and enjoy a warmer sun by covering themselves up in a shallower hole. Whenever they are disturbed they then forsake their retreat of pleasure for one of safety; they fly to the warren with their utmost speed; and if the distance be short, there is scarce any dog, how swift soever, that can overtake them.

But it does not always happen that these animals are possessed of one of these external apartments; they most usually bring forth their young in the warren, but always in a hole separate from the male. On these occasions the female digs herself a hole, different from the ordinary one by being more intricate, at the bottom of which she makes a more ample apartment. This done, she tears from her belly a quantity of hair, with which she makes a kind of bed for her young. During the first two days she never leaves them, and does not stir out but to procure nourishment, which she takes with the utmost despatch—in this manner suckling her young for near six weeks, until they are strong and able to go abroad themselves. During all this time the male seldom or never visits their separate apartment; but when they are grown up, so as to come to the mouth of the hole, he then seems to acknowledge them as his offspring, takes them between his paws, smooths their skin, and licks their eyes; all of them, one after the other, have an equal share in his caresses.

In this manner the rabbit when wild consults its pleasure and its safety: but those that are bred up tame do not take the trouble of digging a hole, conscious of being already protected. It has also been observed, that when people to make a warren stock it with tame rabbits, these animals, having been unaccustomed to the art of scraping a hole, continue exposed to the weather and every other accident without ever burrowing. Their immediate offspring also are equally regardless of their safety; and it is not till after two or three generations that these animals begin to find the necessity and convenience of an asylum, and practise an art which they could only learn from Nature.

Rabbits of the domestic breed, like all other animals that are under the protection of man, are of various colours—white, brown, black, and mouse-colour. The black are the most scarce; the brown, white, and mouse colour are in greater plenty. Most of the wild rabbits are of a brown, and it is the colour which prevails among the species; for in every nest of rabbits, whether the parents be black or white, there are some brown ones of the number. But in England there are many warrens stocked with the mouse-colour kinds, which some say came originally from an island in the river Humber, and which still continue their original colour after a great number of successive generations. A gentleman who bred up tame rabbits for his amusement gives the following account of their production:—"I began," says he, "by having but one male and female only; the male was entirely white and the female brown, but in their posterity the number of the brown by far exceeded those of any other colour; there were some white, some party-coloured, and some black. It is surprising how much the descendants were obedient and submissive to their common parent; he was easily distinguished from the rest by his superior whiteness; and, however numerous the other males were, this kept them all in subjection. Whenever they quarrelled among each other, either for their females or provisions, as soon as he heard the noise he ran up to them with all despatch, and, upon his appearance, all was instantly reduced to peace and order. If he caught any of them in the fact, he instantly punished them as an example to the rest. Another instance of his superiority was, that having accustomed them to come to me with the call of a whistle, the instant this signal was given I saw him marshalling them up, leading them the foremost, and then suffering them

all to file off before him in the most perfect order."

The rabbit, though less than the hare, generally lives longer. As these animals pass the greater part of their lives in their burrow, where they continue at ease and unmolested, they have nothing to prevent the regularity of their health or the due course of their nourishment. They are therefore generally found fatter than the hare; but their flesh is, notwithstanding, much less delicate. That of the old ones in particular is hard, tough, and dry; but it is said that in warmer countries they are better tasted. This may very well be, as the rabbit, though so very plentiful in Great Britain and Ireland, is nevertheless a native of the warmer climates, and has been originally imported into these kingdoms from Spain. In the country, and in some of the islands in the Mediterranean, we are told that they once multiplied in such numbers as to prove the greatest nuisance to the natives. They at first demanded military aid to destroy them; but soon after they called in the assistance of ferrets, which originally came from Africa, and these, with much more ease and expedition, contrived to lessen the calamity. In fact, rabbits are found to love a warm climate, and to be incapable of bearing the cold of the north; so that in Sweden they are obliged to be littered in the houses. It is otherwise in all the tropical climates, where they are extremely common, and where they seldom burrow as with us. The English counties that are most noted for these animals are Lincolnshire, Norfolk, and Cambridgeshire. They delight in grounds of a sandy soil, which are warmer than those of clay, and which also furnish a softer and finer pasture.

The tame rabbits are larger than the wild ones, from their taking more nourishment and using less exercise; but their flesh is not so good, being more insipid and softer. In order to improve it they are chiefly fed upon bran, and stinted in their water; for if indulged in too great plenty of moist food they ape, as the feeders express it, to grow rotten. The hair or fur is a very useful commodity, and is employed in England for several purposes, as well when the skin is dressed with it on as when it is pulled off. The skins, especially the white ones, are used for lining clothes, and are considered as a cheap imitation of ermine. The skin of the male is usually preferred as being the most lasting, but it is coarser; that on the belly in either sex is the best and finest. But the chief use made of rabbits' fur is in the manufacture of hats; it is always mixed in certain proportions with the fur of the beaver, and it is said to give the latter more strength and consistence.

The Syrian rabbit, like all other animals bred in that country, is remarkable for the length of its hair; it falls along the sides in wavy wreaths, and is in some places curled at the end like wool; it is shed once a year in large masses; and it often happens that the rabbit, dragging a part of its robe on the ground, appears as if it had got another leg or a longer tail. There are no rabbits naturally in America; however, those that have been carried from Europe are found to multiply in the West India Islands in great abundance. In other parts of that continent they have animals that in some measure resemble the rabbits of Europe, and which most European travellers have often called "hares" or "rabbits," as they happened to be large or small. Their giving them even the name will be a sufficient excuse for my placing them among animals of the hare kind, although they may differ in many of the most essential particulars. But before we go to the new continent, we will first examine such as bear even a distant resemblance to the hare kind at home.

THE SQUIRREL.—There are few readers that are not as well acquainted with the figure of a squirrel as that of the rabbit; but supposing it unknown to any, we might give them some idea of its form by comparing it to a rabbit, with shorter ears and a longer tail. The tail,

indeed, is alone sufficient to distinguish it from all others, as it is extremely long, beautiful, and bushy, spreading like a fan, and which, when thrown up behind, covers the whole body. This serves the little animal for a double purpose; when erected, it serves like an umbrella as a secure protection from the injuries of the heat and cold; and when extended, it is very instrumental in promoting those vast leaps that the squirrel takes from tree to tree; nay, some assert that it answers still a third purpose, and when the squirrel takes to the water, which it sometimes does upon a piece of bark, that its tail serves it instead of a sail.

There are few wild animals in which there are so many varieties as in the squirrel. The "common squirrel" is of the size of a small rabbit, and is of a more reddish brown. The belly and breast are white, and the ears beautifully ornamented with long tufts of hair of a deeper colour than that on the body. The eyes are large, black, and lively; the legs are short and muscular like those of the rabbit; but the toes are longer and the claws sharper, so as to fit it for climbing. When it eats or dresses itself it sits erect like the hare or rabbit, making use of its fore-legs as hands, and chiefly resides in trees. The "grey Virginian squirrel," which Mr. Buffon calls the "*petit gris*," is larger than a rabbit, and of a greyish colour. Its body and limbs are thicker than those of the common squirrel; and its ears are shorter, and without tufts at the point. The upper part of the body and external part of the legs are of a fine whitish grey, with a beautiful red streak on each side lengthways. The tail is covered with very long grey hair, variegated with black and white towards the extremity. This variety seems to be common to both continents, and in Sweden is seen to change colour in winter. The "Barbary squirrel," of which Mr. Buffon makes three varieties, is of a mixed colour, between red and black. Along the sides there are white and brown lines, which render this animal very beautiful; but what still adds to its elegance is, that the belly is of a sky-blue surrounded with white. Some of these hold up the tail erect, and others throw it forward over their body. The "Siberian white squirrel" is of the size of a common squirrel. The "Carolina black squirrel" is much bigger than the former, and sometimes tipped with white at all the extremities. The "Brazilian squirrel," which Mr. Buffon calls the "*coqualin*," is a beautiful animal of this kind, and very remarkable for the variety of its colours. Its belly is of a bright yellow; its head and body variegated with white, black, brown, and orange colour. It wants the tufts at the extremity of its ears, and does not climb trees as most of the kind are seen to do. To this list may be added the "little ground-squirrel of Carolina," of a reddish colour and blackish stripes on each side; and, like the former, not delighting in trees. Lastly, the "squirrel of New Spain," which is of a deep iron-grey colour, with seven longitudinal whitish streaks along the sides of the male, and five along those of the female. As for the flying squirrels they are a distinct kind, and shall be treated of by themselves.

These, which I suppose to be but a few of the numerous varieties of the squirrel, sufficiently serve to show how extensively this animal is diffused over all parts of the world. It is not to be supposed, however, that every variety is capable of sustaining every climate; for few animals are so tender or so little able to endure a change of abode as this. Those bred in the tropical climates will only live near a warm sun: while, on the contrary, the squirrel of Siberia will scarce endure the temperature of ours. These varieties not only differ in their constitutions and colour, but in their dispositions also; for while some live on the tops of trees, others feed, like rabbits, on vegetables below. Whether any of these, so variously coloured and so differently disposed, would breed among each other we cannot tell; and since, therefore, we are left in uncertainty upon this point, we are

at liberty to consider each as a distinct species by itself, or only a variety that accident might have originally produced, and that the climate or soil might have continued. For our own part, as the original character of the squirrel is so strongly marked upon them all, I cannot help considering them in the latter point of view—rather as the common descendants of one parent than originally formed with such distinct similitudes.

The squirrel is a beautiful little animal, which is but half savage, and which, from the gentleness and innocence of its manners, deserves our protection. It is neither carnivorous nor hurtful; its usual food is fruits, nuts, and acorns; it is cleanly, nimble, active, and industrious; its eyes are sparkling, and its physiognomy marked with meaning. It generally, like the hare and rabbit, sits upon its hinder legs, and uses the fore-paws as hands; these have five claws, or "toes," as they are called, and one of them is separated from the rest like a thumb. This animal seems to approach the nature of birds, from its lightness and surprising agility on the tops of trees. It seldom descends to the ground except in case of a storm, but jumps from one branch to another; feeds in spring on the buds and young shoots—in summer, on the ripening fruits, and particularly the young cones of the pine-tree. In autumn it has an extensive variety to feast upon—the acorn, the philberd, the chesnut, and the wilding. This season of plenty, however, is not spent in idle enjoyment; the provident little animal gathers at that time its provisions for the winter, and cautiously foresees the seasons when the forest shall be stripped of its leaves and fruitage.

Its nest is generally formed among the large branches of a great tree where they begin to fork off in small ones. After choosing the place where the timber begins to decay and a hollow may be more easily formed, the squirrel begins by making a kind of a level between the forks; and then bringing moss, twigs, and dry leaves, it binds them together with great art so as to resist the most violent storm. This is covered up on all sides, and has but a single opening at top, which is just large enough to admit the little animal; this opening is secured from the weather by a kind of canopy, made in the fashion of a cone, so that it throws off the rain though never so heavy. The nest thus formed, with a very little opening above, is, nevertheless, very commodious and roomy below—soft, well knit together, and every way convenient and warm. In this retreat the little animal brings forth its young, shelters itself from the scorching heat of the sun, which it seems to fear, and from the storms and inclemency of winter, which it is still less capable of supporting. Its provision of nuts and acorns is seldom in its nest, but in the hollows of the tree, laid up carefully together, and never touched but in case of necessity. Thus one single tree serves for a retreat and a store-house; and without leaving it during the winter, the squirrel possesses all those enjoyments that its nature is capable of receiving. But it sometimes happens that its little mansion is attacked by a deadly and powerful foe. The martin goes often in quest of a retreat for its young, which it is incapable of making for itself; for this reason it fixes upon the nest of a squirrel, and, with double injustice, destroys the tenant and then takes possession of the mansion.

However, this is a calamity that but seldom happens; and of all other animals the squirrel leads the most frolicsome, playful life, being surrounded with abundance and having few enemies to fear. They are at heat early in the spring, when, as a modern naturalist says, it is very diverting to see the female feigning an escape from the pursuit of two or three males, and to observe the various proofs which they give of their agility, which is then exerted in full force. Nature seems to have been particular in the formation of these animals for propagation; however, they seldom bring forth above four or five young at a time, and that but once a year. The

time of gestation seems to be about six weeks; they are pregnant in the beginning of April, and bring forth about the middle of May.

The squirrel is never found in the open fields, nor yet in copses or underwoods; it always keeps in the midst of the tallest trees, and as much as possible shuns the habitations of men. It is extremely watchful; if the tree in which it resides be but touched at the bottom, the squirrel instantly takes the alarm, quits its nest, at once flies off to another tree, and thus travels with great ease along the tops of the forest, until it finds itself perfectly out of danger. In this manner it continues for some hours at a distance from home, until the alarm be past away; and then it returns by paths that to all quadrupeds but itself are utterly impassable. Its usual way of moving is by bounds; these it takes from one tree to another at forty feet distance; and if at any time it is obliged to descend, it runs up the side of the next tree with amazing facility. It has an extremely sharp piercing note, which most usually expresses pain; it has another, more like the purring of a cat, which it employs when pleased—at least it appeared so in that from whence I have taken a part of this description.

In Lapland and the extensive forests to the north the squirrels are observed to change their habitation, and to remove in vast numbers from one country to another. In these migrations they are generally seen by thousands, travelling directly forward; while neither rocks, forests, nor even the broadest waters can stop their progress. What I am going to relate appeared so extraordinary, that were it not attested by numbers of the most credible historians, among whom are Klein and Linnæus, it might be rejected with that scorn with which we treat imposture or credulity; however, nothing can be more true, that when these animals in their progress meet with broad rivers or extensive lakes, which abound in Lapland, they take a very extraordinary method of crossing them. Upon approaching the banks and perceiving the breadth of the water, they return, as if by common consent, into the neighbouring forest, each in quest of a piece of bark, which answers all the purposes of boats for waiting them over. When the whole company are fitted in this manner they boldly commit their little fleet to the waves—every squirrel sitting on its own piece of bark, and fanning the air with its tail to drive the vessel to its desired port. In this orderly manner they set forward, and often cross lakes several miles broad. But it too often happens that the poor mariners are not aware of the dangers of their navigation; for although at the edge of the water it is generally calm, in the midst it is always more turbulent: there the slightest additional gust of wind oversets the little sailor and his vessel together. The whole navy, that but a few minutes before rode proudly and securely along, is now overturned, and a shipwreck of two or three thousand sail ensues. This, which is so unfortunate for the little animal, is generally the most lucky accident in the world for the Laplander on the shore, who gathers up the dead bodies as they are thrown in by the waves, eats the flesh, and sells the skins for about a shilling the dozen.

The squirrel is easily tamed, and it is then a very familiar animal. It loves to lie warm, and will often creep into a man's pocket or his bosom. It is usually kept in a box, and fed with hazle-nuts. Some find amusement in observing with what ease it bites the nut open and eats the kernel. In short, it is a pleasing, pretty little domestic; and its tricks may serve to entertain a mind unequal to stronger operations.

THE FLYING SQUIRREL.—Mr. Ray was justly of opinion that the flying squirrel might more properly be said to be of the rat kind, because its fur is shorter than in other squirrels, and its colours also more nearly approach the former. However, as mankind have been

content to class it among the squirrels, it is scarcely worth making a new distinction in its favour. This little animal, which is frequently brought over to England, is less than a common squirrel and bigger than a field-mouse. Its skin is very soft, and elegantly adorned with a dark fur in some places, and light-grey in others. It has large, prominent, black and very sparkling eyes, small ears, and very sharp teeth, with which it gnaws anything quickly. When it does not leap, its tail, which is pretty enough, lies close to its back; but when it takes its spring, the tail is moved backwards and forwards from side to side. It is said to partake somewhat of the nature of the squirrel, of the rat, and of the dormouse; but that in which it is distinguished from all other animals is its peculiar conformation for taking those leaps that almost look like flying. It is indeed amazing to see it at one bound dart above a hundred yards from one tree to another. They are assisted in this spring by a very peculiar formation of the skin, that extends from the fore-feet to the hinder; so that when the animal stretches its fore-legs forward and its hind-legs backward, this skin is spread out between them, somewhat like that between the legs of a bat. The surface of the body being thus increased, the little animal keeps buoyant in the air until the force of its first impulsion is expired, and then it descends. This skin, when the creature is at rest or walking, continues wrinkled upon its sides; but when its limbs are extended it forms a kind of web between them of above an inch broad on either side, and gives the whole body the appearance of a skin floating in the air. In this manner the flying squirrel changes place, not like a bird, by repeated strokes of its wings, but rather like a paper kite, supported by the expansion of the surface of its body; but with this difference, however, that, being naturally heavier than the air, instead of mounting it descends; and that jump, which upon the ground would not be above forty yards, when from a higher tree to a lower may be above a hundred.

This little animal is more common in America than in Europe, but not very commonly to be seen in either. It is usually found, like the squirrel, on the tops of trees; but, though better fitted for leaping, it is of a more torpid disposition, and is seldom seen to exert its powers; so that it is often seized by the polecat and the martin. It is easily tamed, but apt to break away whenever it finds an opportunity. It does not seem fond of nuts or almonds, like other squirrels, but it is chiefly pleased with the sprouts of the birch and the cones of the pine. It is fed in its tame state with bread and fruits; it generally sleeps by day, and is always most active by night. Some naturalists gravely caution us not to let it get among our cornfields, where they tell us it will do a great deal of damage by cropping the corn as soon as it begins to ear.

THE MARMOUT.—From the description of the squirrel and its varieties we proceed to a different tribe of animals, no way indeed resembling the squirrel, but still something like the rabbit and the hare. We are to keep these two animals still in view as the centre of our comparison—as objects to which many others may bear some similitude, though they but little approach each other. Among the hare kind is the marmout, which naturalists have placed either among the hare kind or the rat kind as it suited their respective systems. In fact, it bears no great resemblance to either; but of the two it approaches much nearer the hare, as well in the make of its head as in its size, in its bushy tail, and particularly in its chewing the cud, which alone is sufficient to determine our choice in giving it its present situation. How it ever came to be degraded into the rat or mouse I cannot conceive, for it in no way resembles them in size, being near as big as a hare; or in its disposition, since no animal is more tractable nor more easily tamed.

The marmout is, as was said, almost as big as a hare, but it is more corpulent than a cat, and has shorter legs. Its head pretty nearly resembles that of a hare, except that its ears are much shorter. It is clothed all over with very long hair, and a shorter fur below. These are of different colours, black and grey. The length of the hair gives the body the appearance of greater corpulence than it really has, and at the same time shortens the legs, so that its belly seems to touch the ground. Its tail is tufted and well furnished with hair, and it is carried in a straight direction with its body. It has five claws behind and only four before. These it uses as the squirrel does, to carry its food to its mouth; and it usually sits upon its hinder parts to feed in the manner of that little animal.

The marmout is chiefly a native of the Alps, and when taken young is tamed more easily than any other wild animal, and almost as perfectly as any of those that are domestic. It is readily taught to dance, to wield a cudgel, and to obey the voice of its master. Like the cat, it has an antipathy to the dog; and when it becomes familiar to the family, and is sure of being supported by its master, it attacks and bites even the largest mastiff. From its squat muscular make, it has great strength joined to great agility. It has four large cutting teeth, like all those of the hare kind, but it uses them to much more advantage, since in this animal they are very formidable weapons of defence. However, it is in general a very inoffensive animal, and, except its enmity to dogs, seems to live in friendship with every creature unless provoked. If not prevented, it is very apt to gnaw the furniture of a house, and even to make holes through wooden partitions; from whence, perhaps, it has been compared to the rat. As its legs are very short, and made somewhat like those of a bear, it is often seen sitting up, and even walking on its hind legs in like manner, but with the fore-paws, as was said, it feeds itself in the manner of a squirrel. Like all the hare kind, it runs much swifter up hill than down; it climbs trees with great ease, and runs up the clefts of rocks or the contiguous walls of houses with great facility. It is ludicrously said that the Savoyards, who are the only chimney-sweepers of Paris, have learned this art from the marmout, which is bred in the same country.

These animals eat indiscriminately of whatever is presented to them—flesh, bread, fruits, herbs, roots, pulse, and insects; but they are most partial to milk and butter. Although less inclined to petty thefts than the cat, yet they always try to steal into the dairy, where they lap up the milk like a cat, purring all the while like that animal as an expression of their being pleased. As to the rest, milk is the only liquid they like. They seldom drink water, and refuse wine. When pleased or caressed they often yelp like puppies; but when irritated or frightened they have a piercing note that grates on the ear. They are very cleanly animals, and like the cat retire upon necessary occasions; but their bodies have a disagreeable scent, particularly in summer. This tincture their flesh, which, being very fat and firm, would be very good were not this flavour always found to predominate.

We have hitherto been describing affections in this animal which it has in common with many others; but we now come to one which particularly distinguishes it from all others of this kind, and, indeed, from every other quadruped except the bat and the dormouse—this is, its sleeping during the winter. The marmout, though a native of the highest mountains, and where the snow is never wholly melted, nevertheless seems to feel the influence of the cold more than any other, and in a manner has all its faculties chilled up in winter. This extraordinary suspension of life and motion for more than half the year excites our wonder, and demands our attention to consider the manner of such a tempo-

rary death and the subsequent revival. But first to describe before we attempt to discuss.

The marmout, usually at the end of September or the beginning of October, prepares to fit up its habitation for the winter, from which it is never seen to issue till about the beginning or the middle of April. This animal's little retreat is made with great precaution, and fitted up with art. It is a hole on the side of a mountain, extremely deep, with a spacious apartment at the bottom, which is rather longer than it is broad. In this several marmouts can reside at the same time, without crowding each other or injuring the air they breathe. The feet and claws of this animal seem made for digging; and, in fact, they burrow into the ground with amazing facility, scraping up the earth like a rabbit, and throwing back what they have thus loosened behind them. But the form of their hole is still more wonderful; it resembles the letter Y—the two branches being two openings, which conduct into one channel which terminates in their general apartment that lies at the bottom. As the whole is made on the declivity of a mountain, there is no part of it on a level but the apartment at the end. One of the branches or openings issues out, sloping downwards; and this serves as a kind of sink or drain to the whole family, where they make their excrements, and where the moisture of the place is drawn away. The other branch, on the contrary, slopes upwards—and this serves as their door upon which to go out and in. The apartment at the end is warmly stuccoed round with moss and hay, of both which they make an ample provision during the summer. As this is a work of great labour, so it is undertaken in common; some cut the finest grass, others gather it, and others take their turns to drag it into their hole. Upon this occasion, as we are told, one of them lies on its back, permits the hay to be heaped upon its belly, keeps its paws upright to make greater room, and in this manner, lying still on its back, it is dragged by the tail, hay and all, to their common retreat. Some give this as a reason for the hair being generally worn away on their backs, as is usually the case; however, a better reason than this may be assigned, from their continually rooting up holes and passing through narrow openings. Be this as it will, certain it is that they all live together, and work in common to make their habitation as snug and convenient as possible. In it they pass three parts of their lives; into it they retire when the storm is raging; in it they continue while it rains; there they abide when apprehensive of danger, and never stir out except in fine weather, and even then not venturing far from home. Whenever they go abroad one is placed as a sentinel, sitting upon a lofty rock, while the rest amuse themselves in playing along the green fields, or are employed in cutting grass and making hay for their winter's stock. When an enemy—a man, a dog, or a bird of prey—approaches, their trusty sentinel apprises its companions by a whistle, upon which they all make for home, the sentinel himself bringing up the rear.

But it must not be supposed that this hay is designed for provision; on the contrary, it is always found in as great plenty in their holes at the end as at the beginning of winter; it is only sought for the convenience of their lodgings and the advantages of their young. As to provision, they seem kindly apprised by Nature that during the winter they will not require any, so that they make no provision for food, though so diligently employed in fitting up their abode. As soon as they perceive the first approaches of winter, during which their vitality is to continue in some measure suspended, they labour very diligently to close up the two entrances of their habitation, which they effect with such solidity, that it is easier to dig up the earth in any other part than that which they have closed. At that time they are very fat, some of them being found to weigh above twenty pounds; they continue so for even three months more; but by

degrees their flesh begins to waste, and they are usually very lean by the end of winter. When their retreat is opened the whole family is then discovered, each rolled into a ball, and covered up under the hay. In this state they seem entirely lifeless; they may be taken away, and even killed, without testifying any great pain; and those who find them in this manner carry them home, in order to bring up the young and eat the old ones. A gradual and gentle warmth revives them; but they would die if too suddenly brought near the fire, or if their juices were too quickly liquified.

Strictly speaking, these animals cannot be said to sleep during the winter; it may be called rather a "torpor"—a stagnation of all the faculties. This torpor is produced by the congelation of their blood, which is naturally much colder than that of all other quadrupeds. The usual heat of man and other animals is about thirty degrees above congelation; the heat of these is not above ten degrees. Their internal heat is seldom greater than that of the temperature of the air. This has been often tried by plunging the ball of the thermometer into the body of a living dormouse, and it never rose beyond its usual pitch in the air, and sometimes it sunk more than a degree. It is not surprising, therefore, that these animals, whose blood is so cold naturally, should become torpid, when the external cold is too powerful for the small quantity of heat in their bodies yet remaining; and this always happens when the thermometer is not more than ten degrees above congelation. This coldness Mr. Buffon has experienced in the blood of the bat, the dormouse, and the hedge-hog; and he also extends the analogy to the marmout, which, like the rest, is seen to sleep all the winter. This torpid state continues as long as the cause which produces it remains; and it is very probable that it might be lengthened out beyond its usual term by artificially prolonging the cold; if, for instance, the animal were rolled up in wool and placed in a cold cellar, nearly approaching to but not quite so cold as an ice-house (for that would kill them outright), it would remain, perhaps, a whole year in its state of insensibility. However this be, if the temperature be above ten degrees these animals are seen to revive; and if it be continued in that degree they do not become torpid, but eat and sleep at proper intervals like all other quadrupeds.

From the above account we may form some conception of the state in which these animals continue during the winter. As in some disorders where the circulation is extremely languid the appetite is diminished in proportion, so in these, the blood scarcely moving, or only moving in the greater vessels, they want no nourishment to repair what is worn away by its motions. They are seen, indeed, by slow degrees to become leaner in proportion to the slow attrition of their fluids; but this is not perceptible except at the end of some months. Man is often known to gather nourishment from the ambient air: these, also, may in some measure be supplied in the same manner; and, having sufficient motion in their fluids to keep them from putrefaction, and just sufficient nourishment to supply the waste of their languid circulation, they continue rather feebly alive than sleeping.

These animals produce but once a year, and usually bring forth but three or four at a time. They grow very fast, and the extent of their lives is not above nine or ten years; so that the species is neither numerous nor very much diffused. They are chiefly found in the Alps, where they seem to prefer the brow of the highest mountains to the lowest ranges, and the sunny side to that in the shade. The inhabitants of the country where they chiefly reside, when they observe the hole, generally stay till winter before they think proper to open it; for if they begin too soon the animal awakes, and, as it has a surprising faculty of digging, makes its hole deeper in proportion as they follow. Such as kill it for food use

every art to improve the flesh, which is said to have a wild taste and to cause vomitings. They therefore take away the fat, which is in great abundance, and salt the remainder, drying it somewhat in the manner of bacon. Still, however, it is said to be very indifferent eating. This animal is found in Poland under the denomination of the "boback," entirely resembling that of the Alps, except that the latter has a toe more upon its fore-foot than the former. It is found also in Siberia under the name of the "fevraska," being rather smaller than either of the other two. Lastly, it is found in Canada by the appellation of the "monax," differing only from the rest in having a bluish snout and a longer tail.

THE AGOUTI.—From the marmout, which differs from the hare so much in the length of its fur, we go to the agouti, another species equally differing in the shortness of its hair. These bear some rude resemblance to the hare and the rabbit in their form and manner of living, but sufficiently differing to require a particular description. The first of these—and that the largest, as was hinted above—is called the "agouti." This animal is found in great abundance in the southern parts of America, and has by some been called the "rabbit" of that continent; but though in many respects it resembles the rabbit, yet still in many more it differs, and is without all doubt an animal peculiar to the new world only. The agouti is about the size of a rabbit, and has a head very much resembling it, except that the ears are short in comparison. It resembles the rabbit also in the arched form of its back, in the hind-legs being longer than the fore, and in having four great cutting teeth, two above and two below; but then it differs in the nature of its hair, which is not soft and downy as in the rabbit, but hard and bristly like that of a sucking pig, and of a reddish brown colour. It differs also in the tail, which is even shorter than in the rabbit, and entirely destitute of hair. Lastly, it differs in the number of its toes, having but three on the hinder feet, whereas the rabbit has five. All these distinctions, however, do not counteract against its general form, which resembles that of a rabbit, and most travellers have called it by that name.

As this animal differs in form, it differs still more in habits and disposition. As it has the hair of a hog, so also it has its voraciousness. It eats indiscriminately of all things, and when satiated hides the remainder, like the dog or the fox, for a future occasion. It takes a pleasure in gnawing and spoiling everything it comes near. When irritated its hair stands erect along the back, and, like the rabbit, it strikes the ground violently with its hind feet. It does not dig a hole in the ground, but burrows in the hollows of trees. Its ordinary food consists of the roots of the country—potatoes and yams, and such fruits as fall from the trees in autumn. It uses its fore-paws like the squirrel to carry its food to its mouth; and as its hind-feet are longer than the fore, it runs very swiftly upon plain ground or up a hill, but upon a descent it is in danger of falling. Its sight is excellent, and its hearing equals that of any other animal; whenever it is whistled to it stops to hearken. The flesh of such as are fat and well fed is tolerable food, although it has a peculiar taste and is a little tough. The French dress it like a sucking pig, as we learn from Mr. Buffon's account; but the English dress it with a pudding in its belly, like a hare. It is hunted by dogs; and whenever it has got into a sugar-ground where the canes cover the place it is easily overtaken, for it is embarrassed every step it takes, so that a man may easily come up with it without any other assistance. When in the open country it usually runs with great swiftness before the dogs until it gains its retreat, within which it continues to hide, and nothing but filling the hole with smoke can force it out. For this purpose the hunter burns faggots or straw at the entrance, and conducts the smoke in

such a manner that it fills the whole cavity. While this is doing the poor little animal seems sensible of its danger, and begs for quarter with a most plaintive cry, seldom quitting its hole till the utmost extremity. At last, when half suffocated, it issues out, and trusts once more to its speed for protection. When still forced by the dogs, and incapable of making good a retreat, it turns upon the hunters, and with its hair bristling like a hog, and standing upon its hind-feet, it obstinately defends itself. Sometimes it bites the legs of those who attempt to take it, and will take out the piece wherever it fixes its teeth.

Its cry when disturbed or provoked resembles that of a sucking pig. If taken young it is easily tamed, continues to play harmlessly about the house, and goes out and returns of its own accord. In a savage state it usually continues in the woods, and the female generally chooses the most obscure parts to bring forth her young. She there prepares a bed of leaves and dry grass, and generally brings forth two at a time. She breeds twice or thrice a year, and carries her young from one place to another, as convenience requires, in the manner of a cat. She generally lodges them when three days old in the hollow of a tree, suckling them but for a very short time, for they soon come to perfection, and it consequently follows that they soon grow old.

THE PACA.—The paca is an animal of South America, very much resembling the former, and like it has received the name of the "American rabbit," but with as little propriety. It is about the size of a hare, or rather larger, and in figure somewhat like a sucking pig, which it also resembles in its grunting and its manner of eating. It is, however, most like the agouti, although it differs in several particulars. Like the agouti, it is covered rather with coarse hair than a downy fur. But then it is beautifully marked along the sides with small ash-coloured spots upon an amber-coloured ground, whereas the agouti is pretty much of one redish colour. The paca is more thick and corpulent than the agouti; its nose is shorter, and its hind-feet have five toes, whereas the agouti has but three. As to the rest, this animal bears some distant resemblance to a rabbit; the ears are naked of hair and somewhat sharp, the lower jaw is somewhat longer than the upper, the teeth, the shape of the head, and the size of it are like to those of a rabbit. It has a short tail likewise, though not tufted; and its hinder legs are longer than the fore. It also burrows in the ground like that animal, and from this similitude alone travellers might have given it the name.

The paca does not make use of its fore-paws, like the squirrel or the agouti, to carry its food to the mouth, but hunts for it on the ground, and roots like a hog. It is generally seen along the banks of rivers, and is only to be found in the moist and warm countries of South America. It is a very fat animal, and in this respect much preferable to the agouti, which is most commonly found lean. It is eaten, skin and all, like a young pig, and is considered as a great delicacy. Like the former little animal it defends itself to the last extremity, and is very seldom taken alive. It is persecuted not only by man but by every beast and bird of prey, who all watch its motions, and, if it ventures at any distance from its hole, are sure to seize it. But although the race of these animals is thus continually destroyed, it finds some refuge in its hole from the general combination, and breeds in such numbers that the diminution is not perceptible.

To these animals may be added others, very similar both in form and disposition, each known by its particular name in its native country, but which travellers have been contented to call rabbits or hares, of which we have but indistinct notice. The "tapeti," or "Brazilian rabbit," is in shape like our English ones, but much less, being said to be not above twice the size of a dormouse. It is redish on the forehead, and a little whitish under

the throat. It is remarkable for having no tail; but it has long ears and whiskers, like our rabbits, and black eyes. It does not burrow like ours, but lives at large like the hare.

The "aperea" is also called by some the "Brazilian rabbit," being an animal that seems to partake of the nature of a rabbit and a rat. The ears are like those of a rat, being short and round; but the other parts are like those of a rabbit, except that it has but three toes on the hinder legs like the agouti.

To these imperfect sketches of animals little known, others less known might be added; for as Nature becomes more diminutive her operations are less attentively regarded. I shall only, therefore, add one animal more to this class, and that very well known—I mean the Guinea-pig, which Brisson places among those of the rabbit; and as I do not know any other set of animals with which it can be so well compared, I will take leave to follow his example.

THE GUINEA-PIG.—The Guinea-pig is a native of the warmer climates, but has been so long rendered domestic and so widely diffused, that it has now become common in every part of the world. There are few unacquainted with the figure of this little animal; in some places it is considered as the principal favourite, and is often found even to displace the lap-dog. It is less than a rabbit, and its legs are shorter—they are scarce seen except when it moves; and the neck, also, is so short, that the head seems stuck upon the shoulders. The ears are short, thin, and transparent; the hair is like that of a sucking-pig, from whence it has taken the name; and it wants even the vestiges of a tail. In other respects it has some similitude to the rabbit. When it moves its body lengthens like that animal; and when it is at rest it gathers up in the same manner. Its nose is formed with the rabbit lip, except that its nostrils are much farther asunder. Like all other animals in a domestic state, its colours are different; some are white, some are red, and others both red and white. It differs from the rabbit in the number of its toes, having four toes on the feet before, and but three on those behind. It strokes its head with the fore-feet, like the rabbit; and, like it, sits upon the hind-feet; for which purpose there is a naked callous skin on the back part of the legs and feet.

Those animals are of all others the most helpless and inoffensive. They are scarce possessed of courage sufficient to defend themselves against the meanest of all quadrupeds—the mouse. Their only animosity is exerted against each other, for they will often fight very obstinately, and the stronger is often known to destroy the weaker; but against all other aggressors their only remedy is patience and non-resistance. How, therefore, these animals in a savage state could contrive to protect themselves I have not been able to learn, as they want strength, swiftness, and even the natural instinct so common to almost every other creature.

As to their manner of living among us, they owe their lives entirely to our unceasing protection. They must be constantly attended, shielded from the excessive colds of the winter, and secured against all other domestic animals which are apt to attack them from every motive, either of appetite, jealousy, or experience of their pusillanimous nature. Such, indeed, is their stupidity, that they suffer themselves to be devoured by the cats without resistance; and, differing from all other creatures, the female sees her young destroyed without once attempting to protect them. Their usual food is bran, parsley, or cabbage-leaves; but there is scarce a vegetable cultivated in our gardens that they will not gladly devour. The carrot-top is a peculiar dainty, as is also salad; and those who would preserve their healths, would do right to vary their food; for if they be continued on a kind too succulent or too dry the effects are quickly perceived upon their constitutions. When fed

upon recent vegetables they seldom drink. But it often happens that, conducted by Nature, they seek drier food when the former disagrees with them. They then gnaw clothes, paper, or whatever of this kind they meet with; and on these occasions they are seen to drink like most other animals, which they do by lapping. They are chiefly fond of new milk, but in case of necessity are contented with water.

They move pretty much in the manner of rabbits, though not near so swiftly; and when confined in a room seldom cross the floor, but generally keep along the wall. The male usually drives the female on before him, for they never move abreast together, but constantly the one seems to tread in the footsteps of the preceding. They chiefly seek for the darkest recesses and the most intricate retreats, where, if hay be spread as a bed for them, they continue to sleep together, and seldom venture out but when they suppose all interruption removed. On these occasions they act as rabbits; they move swiftly forward from their bed, stop at the entrance, listen, look round, and if they perceive the slightest approach of danger they precipitately run back. In very cold weather, however, they are more active, and run about to keep themselves warm.

They are a very cleanly animal, and quite different from that whose name they go by. If the young ones happen to fall into the dirt, or be in any other way discomposed, the female takes such an aversion to them that she never permits them to visit her more. Indeed her whole employment as well as that of the male seems to consist in smoothing their skins, in disposing their hair, and improving its gloss. The male and female take this office by turns; and when they have thus brushed up each other they then bestow all their concern upon their young, taking particular care to make their hair lie smooth, and biting them if they appear refractory. As they are so solicitous for elegance themselves, the place where they are kept must be regularly cleaned, and a new bed of hay provided for them at least once a week. Being natives of a warm climate they are naturally chilly in ours; cleanliness, therefore, assists warmth and expels moisture. They may be thus reared without the aid of any artificial heat; but in general there is no keeping them from the fire in winter if they be once permitted to approach it.

When they sleep they lie flat on their bellies, much in their usual posture, except that they like to have their fore-feet higher than their hinder. For this purpose they turn themselves several times round before they lie down to find the most convenient situation. They sleep with their eyes half open, like the hare, and continue extremely watchful if they suspect danger. The male and female are never seen asleep at the same time, but while he enjoys his repose she remains on the watch, silently continuing to guard him, and her head turned towards the place where he lies. When she supposes he has had his turn she awakes him with a kind of murmuring noise, goes to him, forces him from his bed, and lies down in his place. He then performs the same good turn for her, and continues watchful till she also has done sleeping.

These animals are extremely falacious, and generally are capable of coupling when six weeks old. The female never goes with young above five weeks, and usually brings forth from three to five at a time—and this not without pain. But what is most extraordinary, the female admits the male the very day she has brought forth, and again becomes pregnant; so that their multiplication is enormous. She suckles her young about twelve or fifteen days, and during that time does not seem to know her own; for if the young of any other be brought, though much older, she never drives them away, but suffers them even to drain her, to the disadvantage of her own immediate offspring. Although the dam has but two teats, yet she abundantly supplies

them with milk; and they are also capable of feeding upon vegetables almost from the very beginning. If the young ones are permitted to continue together, the more powerful ones, as in all other societies, soon begin to govern the weaker. Their contentions are often long and obstinate, and their jealousies very apparent. Their disputes are usually for the warmest place or the most agreeable food. If one of them happens to be more fortunate in this respect than the rest, the strongest generally comes to dispossess it of its advantageous situation. Their manner of fighting, though terrible to them, is ridiculous enough to a spectator. One of them seizes the hair on the nape of the other's neck with its fore-teeth, and attempts to tear it away; the other, to retaliate, turns its hinder parts to the enemy, and kicks up behind like a horse, and with its hinder claws scratches the sides of its adversary; so that sometimes they cover each other with blood. When they contend in this manner they gnash their teeth pretty loudly, and this is often a denunciation of mutual resentment.

These, though so formidable to each other, yet are the most timorous creatures upon earth with respect to the rest of Animated Nature: a falling leaf disturbs them, and every animal overcomes them. From hence they are difficultly tamed, and will suffer none to approach them except the person by whom they are fed. Their manner of eating is something like that of the rabbit; and, like it, they appear also to chew the cud. Although they seldom drink they make water every minute. They grunt somewhat like a young pig, and have a more piercing note to express pain. In a word, they do no injury; but then, except the pleasure they afford the spectator, they are of very little benefit to mankind. Some, indeed, dress and eat them; but their flesh is indifferent food, and by no means a reward for the trouble of rearing them. This, perhaps, might be improved by keeping them in a proper warren, and not suffering them to become domestic; however, the advantages that would result from this would be few, and the trouble great; so that it is likely they would continue an useless, inoffensive dependent, rather propagated to satisfy caprice than supply necessity.

ANIMALS OF THE RAT, HEDGEHOG,

AND OTHER SIMILAR KINDS.

BOOK VI.—CHAP. I.

THE RAT KIND.

Were it necessary to distinguish animals of the rat kind from all others, we might describe them as having two large cutting teeth, like the hare kind, in each jaw; as covered with hare; and as not ruminating. These distinctions might serve to guide us, had we not too near an acquaintance with this noxious race to be mistaken in their kind. Their numbers, their minuteness, their vicinity, their vast multiplication, all sufficiently contribute to press them upon our observation and remind us of their existence. Indeed, if we look through the different ranks of animals, from the largest to the smallest, from the great elephant to the diminutive mouse, we shall find that we suffer greater injuries from the contemptible meanness of the one than the formidable invasions of the other. Against the elephant, the rhinoceros, or the lion we can oppose united strength, and by art make up the deficiencies of natural power; these we have driven in to their native solitudes, and obliged to continue at a distance in the most inconvenient regions and unhealthful climates. But it is otherwise with the little teizing race I am now describing: no force can be exerted against their unresisting timidity; no arts can

diminish their amazing propagation; millions may be at once destroyed, and yet the breach be repaired in the space of a very few weeks; and in proportion as Nature has denied them force it has supplied the defect by their fecundity.

THE GREAT RAT.—The animal best known at present, and in every respect the most mischievous, is the "great rat," which, though but a new comer into this country, has taken too secure a possession to be ever removed. This hateful and rapacious creature, though sometimes called the "rat of Norway," is utterly unknown in all the northern countries, and, by the best accounts I can learn, comes originally from the Levant. Its first arrival, as I am assured, was upon the coasts of Ireland, in those ships that traded in provisions to Gibraltar; and perhaps we owe to a single pair of these animals the numerous progeny that now infests the whole extent of the British Empire.

This animal, which is called by Mr. Buffon the "sur-malot," is in length about nine inches; its eyes are large and black; the colour of the head and the whole upper part of the body is of a light brown, mixed with a tawny and ash colour. The end of the nose, the throat, and belly are of a dirty white, inclining to grey; the feet and legs are almost bare, and of a dirty-pale flesh colour; the tail is as long as the body, covered with minute dusky scales, mixed with a few hairs, and adds to the general deformity of its detestable figure. It is chiefly in the colour that this animal differs from the "black rat," or the "common rat" as it was once called, but now common no longer. This new invader in a very few years after its arrival found means to destroy almost the whole species, and to possess itself of their retreats.

But it was not against the black rat alone that its rapacity was directed; all other animals of inferior strength shared the same misfortunes. The contest with the black rat was of short continuance. As it was unable to contend, and had no hole to fly to for safety but where its voracious enemy could pursue, the whole race was soon extinguished. The frog, also, was an animal equally incapable of combat or defence. It had been designedly introduced into Ireland some years before the Norway rat, and it was seen to multiply amazingly. The inhabitants were pleased with the propagation of a harmless animal, that served to rid their fields of insects; and even the prejudices of the people were in its favour, as they supposed that the frog contributed to render their waters more wholesome. But the Norway rat soon put a stop to their increase; as these animals were of an amphibious nature, they pursued the frog to its lakes, and took it even in its own natural element. I am therefore assured that the frog is once more nearly extinct in that country; and that the Norway rat, having no more enemies left there to destroy, is grown less numerous also.

We are not likely, therefore, to gain by the destruction of our old domestics, since they are replaced by such mischievous successors. The Norway rat has the same disposition to injure us, with much greater power of mischief. It burrows in the banks of rivers, ponds, and ditches; and is every year known to do incredible damage to those mounds that are raised to conduct streams, or to prevent rivers from overflowing. In these holes, which it forms pretty near the edge of the water, it chiefly resides during the summer, where it lives upon small animals, fish, and corn. At the approach of winter it comes nearer the farm-houses, burrows in the corn, eats much, and damages still more than it consumes. But nothing that can be eaten seems to escape its voracity. It destroys rabbits, poultry, and all kinds of game; and, like the polecat, kills much more than it can carry away. It swims with great ease, dives with great celerity, and easily thins the fish-pond. In short, scarce any of the feebler animals escape its rapacity

except the mouse, which shelters itself in its hole, where the Norway rat is too big to follow.

These animals frequently produce from fifteen to thirty at a time, and usually bring forth three times a year. This great increase would quickly be found to over-run the whole country, and render our assiduity to destroy them fruitless, were it not, happily for us, that they eat and destroy each other. The same insatiable appetite that impels them to indiscriminate carnage also incites the strongest to destroy the weakest, even of their own kind. The large male rat generally keeps in a hole by itself, and is dreaded by its own species as their most formidable enemy. In this manner the number of these vermin is kept within due bounds; and when their increase becomes injurious to us it is modified by their own rapacity.

But beside their own enmities among each other, all the stronger carnivorous quadrupeds have natural antipathies against them. The dog, though he detests their flesh, yet openly declares his alacrity to pursue them, and attacks them with great animosity. Such as are trained up to killing these vermin despatch them often with a single squeeze: but those dogs that show any hesitation are sure to come off but indifferently; for the rat always takes the advantage of a moment's delay, and instead of waiting for the attack becomes the aggressor, seizing its pursuer by the lip, and inflicting a very painful and dangerous wound. From the inflammation and other angry symptoms that attend this animal's bite, some have been led to think that it was in some measure venomous; but it is likely that the difficulty of the wound's healing arises merely from its being deep and lacerated by the teeth, and is rather a consequence of the figure of the instruments that inflict it than any venom they may be supposed to possess.

The cat is another formidable enemy of this kind; and yet the generality of our cats neither care to attack it nor to feed upon it when killed. The cat is a more prudent hunter than the dog, and will not be at the pains to take or combat with an enemy that is not likely to repay her time and danger. Some cats, however, will pursue and take the rat, though often not without an obstinate resistance. If hungry, the cat will sometimes eat the head; but in general she is merely content with her victory.

A foe much more dangerous to these vermin is the weasel. This animal pursues them with avidity; and being pretty nearly of their own size, follows them into their holes, where a desperate combat ensues. The strength of each is pretty nearly equal, but the arms are very different. The rat, furnished with four long tusks at the extremity of its jaw, rather snaps than bites; but where the weasel once fastens it holds, and, continuing to suck the blood at the same time, weakens its antagonist, and always obtains the victory. Mankind have contrived several other methods for destroying these noxious intruders—ferrets, traps, and more particularly poison; but of all other poisons I am told that the nuxvomica, ground and mixed with meal, is the most certain, and it is the least dangerous.

To this species I will subjoin as a variety the "black rat," mentioned above, greatly resembling the former in figure, but very distinct in nature, as appears from their mutual antipathy. This animal was formerly as mischievous as it was common; but at present it is almost utterly extirpated by the great rat—one malady often expelling another. It is become so scarce, that I do not remember ever to have seen one. It is said to be possessed of all the voracious and unnatural appetites of the former—though, as it is less, they may probably be less noxious. Its length is about six inches, and the tail is nearly eight. The colour of the body is of a deep iron-grey, bordering upon black, except the belly, which is of a dirty cinereous hue. They have propagated in America in great numbers, being originally introduced

from Europe; and as they seem to keep their ground wherever they get footing, they are now become the most noxious animals in that part of the world.

To this we may also subjoin the "black water-rat," about the same size as the above, but with a larger head, blunter nose, smaller eyes, and shorter ears, and the tip of its tail a little white. It was supposed by Ray to be web-footed; but this has been found to be a mistake, its toes much resembling those of its kind. It never frequents houses, but is usually found on the banks of rivers, ditches, and ponds, where it burrows and breeds. It feeds upon fish, frogs, and insects. In some countries it is eaten on fasting days.

THE MOUSE.—An animal equally mischievous and equally well known with the former is the mouse. Timid, cautious, and active, all its dispositions are similar to those of the rat, except that it has fewer powers of doing mischief. Fearful by nature, but familiar from necessity, it attends upon man, and comes an unbidden guest to his most delicate entertainments. Fear and necessity seem to regulate all its motions; it never leaves its hole but to seek provisions, and seldom ventures above a few paces from home. Different from the rat, it does not go from one house to another unless it be forced; and as it is more easily satisfied it does much less mischief.

Almost all animals are tamed with more difficulty in proportion to the cowardice of their natures. The truly bold and courageous easily become familiar, but those that are always fearful are ever suspicious. The mouse being the most feeble, and consequently the most timid, of all quadrupeds except the Guinea-pig, it is never rendered thoroughly familiar, and, even though fed in a cage, retains its natural apprehensions. In fact, it is to these alone that it owes its security. No animal has more enemies, and few so incapable of resistance. The owl, the cat, the snake, the hawk, the weasel, the rat itself, destroy this species by millions, and it only subsists by its amazing fecundity.

The mouse brings forth at all seasons, and several times in a year. Its usual number is from six to ten. These in less than a fortnight are strong enough to run about and shift for themselves. They are chiefly found in farmers' yards and among their corn, but are seldom found in those ricks that are much infested with rats. They generally choose the south-west side of the rick, from whence most rain is expected; and from thence they often of an evening venture forth to drink the little drops either of rain or dew that hang at the extremity of the straw. Aristotle gives us an idea of their prodigious fecundity, by assuring us that, having put a mouse with young into a vessel of corn, in some time after he found a hundred and twenty mice all sprung from one original. The early growth of this animal also implies the short duration of its life, which seldom lasts above two or three years. This species is very much diffused, being found in almost all parts of the ancient continent, and have been exported to the new. They are animals that, while they fear human society, closely attend it; and although enemies to man, they are never found but near those places where he has fixed his habitation. Numberless ways have been found for destroying them; and Gesner has minutely described the variety of traps by which they are taken.

To this species, merely to avoid teizing the reader with a minute description of animals very inconsiderable and very nearly alike, I will add that of the "long-tailed field-mouse," which is larger than the former, in colour nearly resembling the Norway rat, and chiefly found in fields and gardens. They are extremely voracious, and hurtful in gardens and young nurseries, where they are killed in great numbers. However, their fecundity soon repairs the destruction.

Nearly resembling the former, but larger (for it is six

inches long), is the "short-tailed field-mouse," which, as its name implies, has the tail much shorter than the former, it being not above an inch and a half long, and ending in a small tuft. Its colour is more inclining to that of the domestic mouse, the upper part being blackish and the under of an ash-colour. This as well as the former is remarkable for laying up provisions against winter; and Mr. Buffon assures us they sometimes have a store of above a bushel at a time.

We may also add the "shrew-mouse" to this species of minute animals, being about the size of the domestic mouse, but differing greatly from it in the form of its nose, which is very long and slender. The teeth, also, are of a very singular form, and twenty-eight in number; whereas the common number in the rat kind is usually not above sixteen. The two upper fore-teeth are very sharp, and on each side there is a kind of wing or beard, like that of an arrow, scarce visible but on a close inspection. The other teeth are placed close together, being very small, and seeming scarce separated; so that with respect to this part of its formation the animal has some resemblance to the viper. However, it is a very harmless little creature, doing scarce any injury; on the contrary, as it lives chiefly in the fields and feeds more upon insects than corn, it may be considered rather as a friend than an enemy. It has a strong, disagreeable smell, so that the cat when it is killed will refuse to eat it. It is said to bring four or five young at a time.

THE DORMOUSE.—These animals may be distinguished into three kinds—the "greater dormouse," which Mr. Buffon calls the "loir;" the "middle," which he calls the "lerot;" the "less," which he denominates the "muscardin." They differ from each other in size, the largest being equal to a rat, the least being no bigger than a mouse. They all differ from the rat in having the tail tufted with hair in the manner of a squirrel, except that the squirrel's tail is flat, resembling a fan; and theirs round, resembling a brush. The lerot differs from the loir by having two black spots near the eyes; the muscardin differs from both in the whitish colour of its hair on the back. They all three agree in having black sparkling eyes, and the whiskers partly white and partly black. They agree in their being stupified like the marmot during winter, and in their hoarding up provisions to serve them in case of a temporary revival.

They inhabit the woods or very thick hedges, forming their nests in the hollow of some tree, or near the bottom of a close shrub, humbly content with continuing at the bottom, and never aspiring to sport among the branches. Towards the approach of the cold season they form a little magazine of nuts, beans, or acorns, and having laid in their hoard shut themselves up with it for the winter. As soon as they feel the first advances of the cold, they prepare to lessen its effect by rolling themselves up in a ball, and thus exposing the smallest surface to the weather. But it often happens that the warmth of a sunny day or an accidental change from cold to heat thaws their nearly stagnant fluids, and they revive. On such occasions they have their provisions laid in, and they have not far to seek for their support. In this manner they continue usually asleep, but sometimes waking, for about five months in the year, seldom venturing from their retreats, and, consequently, but rarely seen. Their nests are lined with moss, grass, and dead leaves; they usually bring forth three or four young at a time, and that but once a year, in the spring.

THE MUSK RAT.—Of these animals of the rat kind, but with a musky smell, there are also three distinctions, as of the former—the "ondatra," the "desman," and the "pilori." The ondatra is a native of Canada, the desman of Lapland, and the pilori of the West India islands. The ondatra differs from all others of its kind, in having the tail flattened and carried edge-ways. The

desman has a long extended snout, like the shrew-mouse; and the pilori a short tail, as thick at one end as the other. They all resemble each other in being fond of the water, but particularly in that musky odour from whence they have taken their name.

Of these the "ondatra" is the most remarkable, and has been the most minutely described. This animal is about the size of a small rabbit, but has the hair, the colour, and the tail of a rat, except that it is flattened on the sides as mentioned above. But it is still more extraordinary upon other accounts, and different from all other animals whatever. It is so formed that it can contract and enlarge its body at pleasure. It has a muscle like that of horses, by which they move their hides, lying immediately under the skin, and that furnished with such a power of contraction, together with such an elasticity in the false ribs, that this animal can creep into a hole where others, seemingly much less, cannot follow. The female is remarkable also for two distinct apertures, one for urine, the other for propagation. The male is equally observable for a peculiarity of conformation; the musky smell is much stronger at one particular season of the year than another; and the marks of the sex seem to appear and disappear in the same manner.

The ondatra in some measure resembles the beaver in its nature and disposition. They both live in society during winter; they both form houses of two feet and a half wide, in which they reside several families together. In these they do not assemble to sleep as the marmot, but purely to shelter themselves from the rigour of the season. However, they do not lay up magazines of provision like the beaver; they only form a kind of covert way to and round their dwelling, from whence they issue to procure water and roots, upon which they subsist. During winter their houses are covered under a depth of eight or ten feet of snow; so that they must lead but a cold, gloomy, and necessitous life during its continuance. During summer they separate two by two, and feed upon the variety of roots and vegetables that the season offers. They then become extremely fat, and are much sought after, as well for their flesh as their skins, which are very valuable. They then also acquire a very strong scent of musk, so pleasing to an European, but which the savages of Canada cannot abide. What we admire as a perfume they consider as a most abominable stench, and call one of their rivers, on the banks of which this animal is seen to burrow in numbers, by the name of the "stinking river," as well as the rat itself, which is denominated by them the "stinkard." This is a strange diversity among mankind, and, perhaps, may be ascribed to the different kinds of food among different nations. Such as chiefly feed upon rancid oils and putrid flesh will often mistake the nature of scents; and, having been long used to ill smells, will by habit consider them as perfumes. Be this as it will, although these nations of northern savages consider the musk rat as intolerably fetid, they nevertheless regard it as very good eating; and, indeed, in this they exactly imitate the epicures of Europe, whose taste seldom refuses a dish till the nose gives the strongest marks of disapprobation. As to the rest, this animal a good deal resembles the beaver in its habits and disposition; but as its instincts are less powerful and its economy less exact, I will reserve for the description of that animal a part of what may be applicable to this.

THE CRICETUS.—The oricetus, or German rat, which Mr. Buffon calls the "bamster," greatly resembles the water-rat in size, in its small eyes, and in the shortness of its tail. It differs in colour, being rather browner, like the Norway rat, with the belly and legs of a dirty yellow. But the marks by which it may be distinguished from all others are two pouches, like those of a baboon, on each side of its jaw, under the skin, into which it

can cram a large quantity of provision. These bags are oblong, and of the size, when filled, of a large walnut. They open into the mouth, and fall back along the neck to the shoulder. Into these the animal can thrust the surplus of those fruits or grains it gathers in the fields, such as wheat, peas, or acorns. When the immediate calls of hunger are satisfied it then falls to filling these; and thus loaded with two great bunches on each side of the jaw, it returns home to its hole to deposit the spoil as a store for the winter. The size, the fecundity, and the voraciousness of this animal render it one of the greatest pests in the countries where it is found, and every method is made use of to destroy it.

But although this animal is very noxious with respect to man, yet, considered with regard to those instincts which conduce to its own support and convenience, it deserves our admiration. Its hole offers a curious object for contemplation, and shows an amount of skill superior to the rest of the rat kind. It consists of a variety of apartments, fitted up for the different occasions of the little inhabitant. It is generally made on an inclining ground, and always has two entrances, one perpendicular and the other oblique; though should there be more than one in a family there are as many perpendicular holes as there are animals below. The perpendicular hole is usually that through which they go in and out; the oblique serves to give a thorough air to keep the retreat clean, and, in case one hole is blocked up, to give an exit at this. Within about a foot of the perpendicular hole the animal makes two more, where the family's provisions are deposited. These are much more spacious than the former, and are large in proportion to the quantity of the store. Beside these, there is still another apartment warmly lined with grass and straw, where the female brings forth her young; these communicate with each other, and altogether take up a space of ten or twelve feet in diameter. These animals furnish their store-houses with dry corn well cleaned; they also lay in corn in the ear, and beans and peas in the pod. When occasion requires they separate them, carrying out the pods and empty ears by their oblique passage. They usually begin to lay in at the latter end of August; and as each magazine is filled they carefully cover up the mouth with earth, and that so neatly that, it is no easy matter to discover where the earth has been removed. The only means of finding out their retreats are to observe the oblique entrance, which generally has a small quantity of earth before it; and this, though often several yards from their perpendicular retreat, leads those who are skilled in the search to make the discovery. Many German peasants are known to make a livelihood by finding out and bringing off their hoards, which in a fruitful season frequently furnish two bushels of good grain in each apartment.

Like most others of the rat kind they produce twice or thrice a year, and bring five or six at a time. Some years they appear in alarming numbers; at other times they are not in such plenty. The moist seasons assist their propagation; and it often happens in such years that their devastations produce a famine all over the country. Happily, however, for mankind, these like the rest of their kind destroy each other; and of two that Mr. Buffon kept in a cage, male and female, the latter killed and devoured the former. As to the rest, their fur is considered very valuable. The natives are invited by rewards to destroy them; and the weasel kind seconds the wishes of government with great success. Although they are usually found brown on the back and white on the belly, yet many of them are observed to be grey, which may probably arise from the difference of age.

THE LEMING.—Having considered the various kinds of these noxious little animals that elude the indigna-

tion of mankind, and submit by their number, not their strength, we come to a species more bold, more dangerous, and more numerous than any of the former. The leming, which is a native of Scandinavia, is often seen to pour down in myriads from the northern mountains, and, like a pestilence, destroy all the productions of the earth. It is described as being larger than a dormouse, with a bushy tail, though shorter. It is covered with thin hair of various colours; the extremity of the upper part of the head is black, as are likewise the neck and shoulders, but the rest of the body is redish, intermixed with small black spots of various figures as far as the tail, which is not above half an inch long. The eyes are little and black, the ears round and inclining towards the back, the fore-legs are short, and the hind ones longer, which gives it a great degree of swiftness. But what it is much more remarkable for is its amazing fecundity and extraordinary migrations.

In wet seasons all of the rat kind are known to propagate more than in dry; but this species in particular is so assisted in multiplying by the moisture of the weather, that the inhabitants of Lapland sincerely believe that they drop from the clouds, and that the same magazines that furnish hail and snow pour the leming also upon them. In fact, after continued rain these animals set forward from their native mountains, and several millions in a single troop deluge the whole plain with their numbers. They move for the most part in a square, marching forward by night and lying still by day. Thus, like an animated torrent, they are often seen more than a mile broad covering the ground, and that so thick that the hindmost touches its leader. It is in vain that the poor inhabitant resists or attempts to stop their progress; they still keep moving forward, and though thousands are destroyed, myriads are seen to succeed and make their destruction impracticable. They generally move in lines, about three feet apart, and exactly parallel. Their march is always directed from the north-west to the south-east, and regularly conducted from the beginning. Wherever their motions are turned nothing can stop them; they go directly forward, impelled by some strange power; and from the time they first set out they never once think of retreating. If a lake or a river happens to intercept their progress, they take the water in a body and swim over it. A fire, a deep well, or a torrent does not turn them out of their direction; they boldly plunge into the flames or leap down the well, and are sometimes seen climbing up on the other side. If they are interrupted by a boat across a river while they are swimming they do not attempt to swim round it, but mount directly up its sides; and the boatmen, who know how vain resistance in such a case would be, calmly suffer the living torrent to pass over, which it does without any further damage. If they meet with a stack of hay or corn that interrupts their passage, instead of going over it they gnaw their way through; if they are stopped by a house in their course, if they cannot go through it they continue there till they die. It is fortunate for mankind that they eat nothing that is prepared for human subsistence; they never enter a house to destroy the provisions, but are contented with eating every root and vegetable they meet. If they happen to pass through a meadow they destroy it in a very short time, giving it the appearance of being burnt up and strewed with ashes. If they are interrupted in their course, and a man should venture to attack one of them, the little animal is in no way intimidated by the disparity of strength, but furiously flies up at its opponent, and, barking somewhat like a puppy, wherever it fastens does not easily quit its hold. If at last the leader be forced out of its line (which it defends as long as it can) and be separated from the rest, it utters a plaintive cry, different from that of anger, and, as some pretend to say, gives itself a voluntary death by hanging itself on the fork of a tree.

An enemy so numerous and destructive would quickly render the countries where they appear utterly uninhabitable, did it not fortunately happen that the same rapacity that animates them to destroy the labours of mankind at last impels them to destroy and devour each other. After committing incredible devastations they are at last seen to separate into two armies, opposed with deadly hatred, along the coast of the larger lakes and rivers. The Laplanders, who observe them thus drawn up to fight, instead of considering their mutual animosities as a happy riddance of the most dreadful pest, form ominous prognostics from the manner of their arrangement. They consider their combats as a preage of war, and expect an invasion from the Russians or Swedes, as the side next either of those kingdoms happens to conquer. The two divisions, however, continue their engagement and animosity until one party overcomes the other. From that time they utterly disappear, nor is it well known what becomes either of the conquerors or the conquered. Some suppose that they rush headlong into the sea; others, that they kill themselves, as some are found hanging on the forked branches of trees; and others still maintain that they are destroyed by the young spring herbage. But the most probable conclusion is, that having devoured the vegetable productions of the country, and, having nothing more to subsist on, they then devour each other. However this be, they are often found dead by thousands, and their carcasses have been known to infect the air for several miles round, so as to produce very malignant disorders. They seem also to infect the plains they have gnawed, for the cattle often die that afterwards feed in the places where they passed.

As to the rest, the male is larger and more beautifully spotted than the female. They are extremely prolific; and, what is extraordinary, their breeding does not hinder their march; for some of them have been observed to carry one young one in their mouth and another on their back. They are greatly played upon by the ermine, and, as we are told, even by the rein-deer. The Swedes and Norwegians, who live chiefly by husbandry, consider an invasion from these vermin as a terrible visitation; but it is very different with respect to the Laplanders, who lead a vagrant life, and who, like the leming, themselves, if their provisions be destroyed in one part of the country can easily retire to another. These are never so happy as when an army of leminge come down amongst them; for then they feed upon their flesh, which, though horrid food, and which, though even dogs and cats are known to detest, these little savages esteem very good eating, and devour greedily. They are also glad of their arrival on another account, for they always expect plenty of game the year following among those fields which the leminge have destroyed.

THE MOLE.—To these minute animals of the rat kind, a great part of whose lives is past in holes under-ground, I will subjoin one little animal more, no way resembling the rat, except that its whole life is spent there. As we have seen some quadrupeds formed to crop the surface of the fields, and others to live upon the tops of trees, so the mole is formed to live wholly under the earth, as if Nature meant that no place should be left wholly untenanted. Were we from our own sensations to decide upon the life of a quadruped that was never to appear above-ground, but always condemned to hunt for its prey underneath, obliged, whenever it removed from one place to another, to bore its way through a resisting body, we should say that such an existence must be the most frightful and solitary in nature. In this animal, however, though condemned to all those seeming inconveniences, we shall discover no signs of wretchedness or distress. No quadruped is fatter—none has a more sleek or glossy skin; and though denied many advantages, it is supplied with quite sufficient subsistence.

This animal, so well known in England, is, however, utterly a stranger in other places, and particularly in Ireland. For such, therefore, as have never seen it a short description will be necessary. And, in the first place, though somewhat of a size between the rat and the mouse, it no way resembles either, being an animal entirely of a singular kind, and perfectly unlike any other quadruped whatever. It is bigger than a mouse, with a coat of fine, short, glossy black hair; its nose is long and pointed, resembling that of a hog, but much longer; its eyes are so small that it is scarce possible to discern them; instead of ears, it has only holes in the place; its neck is so short that the head seems stuck upon the shoulders; the body is thick and round, terminating by a very short tail, and its legs also are so very short that the animal seems to lie flat on its belly; from under its belly, as it rests in this position, the four feet appear just as if they immediately grew out of the body. Thus the animal appears to us at first view as a mass of flesh covered with a fine, shining, black skin, with a little head, and scarce any legs, eyes, or tail. On a closer inspection, however, two little black points may be discerned, which are its eyes. The ancients, and some of the moderns, were of opinion that the animal was utterly blind; but Derham, by the help of a microscope, plainly discovered all the parts of the eye that are known in other animals, such as the pupil, the vitreous and crystalline humours, &c. The fore-legs appear very short and strong, and furnished with five claws to each. These are turned outwards and backwards, as the hands of a man when swimming. The hind-legs are longer and weaker than the fore, being only used to assist its motions, whereas the others are continually employed in digging. The teeth are like those of a shrew-mouse, and there are five on each side of the upper-jaw, which stand out; but those behind are divided into points. The tongue is as large as the mouth will hold.

Such is the extraordinary figure and formation of this animal, which, if we compare with its manner of living, we shall find a manifest attention in Nature to adapt the one to the other. As it is allotted a subterraneous abode, the seeming defects of its formation vanish, or, rather, are promulgated to its advantage. The breadth, strength, and shortness of the fore-feet, which incline outwards, answer the purposes of digging, serving to throw back the earth with greater ease, and to pursue the worms and insects, which are its chief prey; had they been longer, the falling in of the earth would have prevented the quick repetition of its strokes in working, or have obliged it to make a large hole in order to give room for their exertion. The form of the body is not less admirably contrived for its way of life. The fore-part is thick and very muscular, giving great strength to the action of the fore-feet, enabling it to dig its way with amazing force and rapidity, either to pursue its prey or elude the search of the most active enemy. By its power of boring the earth it quickly gets below the surface; and I have seen it, when let loose in the midst of a field, instantly sink into the earth like the ghost in a theatre, and the most active labourer with his spade in vain attempted to pursue.

The smallness of its eyes, which induced the ancients to think it was blind, is to this animal a peculiar advantage. A small degree of vision is sufficient for a creature that is ever destined to live in darkness. A more extensive sight would only have served to show the horrors of its prison, while Nature had denied it the means of an escape. Had this organ been larger, it would have been perpetually liable to injuries by the falling of the earth into it; but Nature, to prevent that inconvenience, has not only made them very small, but very closely covered them with hair. Anatomists mention, beside these advantages, another that contributes to their security—namely, a certain muscle, by which the animal can draw back the eye at pleasure.

As the eye is thus perfectly fitted to the animal's situation, so also are the senses of hearing and smelling. The first gives it notice of the most distant appearance of danger; the other directs it in the midst of darkness to its food. The wants of a subterraneous animal can be but few—and these are sufficient to supply them; to eat and to produce its kind are the only employment of such a life, and for both these purposes it is wonderfully adapted by Nature.

Thus admirably is this animal fitted for a life of darkness and solitude—with no appetites but what it can easily indulge—with no enemies but what it can easily evade or conquer. As soon as it has buried itself in the earth it seldom stirs out, unless forced by violent rains in summer, or, when in pursuit of its prey, it happens to come too near the surface, and thus gets into the open air, which may be considered as its unnatural element. It generally chooses the looser, softer grounds, beneath which it can travel with greater ease; in such, also, it usually finds the greatest number of worms and insects, upon which it chiefly preys. It is observed to be most active and to cast up most earth immediately before rain, and in winter before a thaw; at those times the worms and insects begin to be in motion and emerge to the surface, whither this industrious animal pursues them. In very dry weather, however, the mole seldom or never forms any hillocks; for then it is obliged to penetrate deeper after its prey, which at such seasons retire far into the ground.

As the moles seldom come above ground they have but few enemies, and very easily evade the pursuit of animals stronger and swifter than themselves. Their greatest calamity is an inundation, on which occasion, wherever it happens, they are seen in numbers attempting to save themselves by swimming, and using every effort to reach the higher grounds. The greatest part, however, perish, as well as their young, which remain in the holes behind. Were it not for such accidents, from their great fecundity they would become extremely troublesome; even as it is, in some places they are considered by the farmer as his greatest pest. They couple towards the approach of spring, and their young are brought forth about the beginning of May. They generally have four or five at a time; and it is easy to distinguish among other mole-hills that in which the female has brought forth her young. These are made with much greater art than the rest, and are generally larger. The female, in order to form this retreat, begins by erecting the earth into a tolerably spacious apartment, which is supported within by partitions at proper distances, which prevent the roof from falling. All round this she works, and beats the earth very firm, so as to make it capable of keeping out the rain, let it be never so violent. As the hillock in which this apartment is thus formed is raised above-ground, the apartment itself is consequently above the level of the plain, and therefore less subject to accidental slight inundations. The place being thus fitted, she then procures grass and dry leaves as a bed for her young. There they lie secure from wet, and she continues to make their retreat equally so from danger; for all round this hill of her own raising are holes running into the earth, which diverge from the middle apartment like rays from a centre, and extend about fifteen feet in every direction. These resemble so many walks or "chases," into which the animal makes her subterraneous excursions, and supplies her young with such roots or insects as she can provide. But they contribute still more to the general safety for as the mole is very quick of hearing, the instant she hears her little habitation attacked she takes to her burrow, and—unless the earth be dug away by several men at once—she and her young always make a good retreat.

The mole is seldom found except in cultivated countries, and the varieties are but few. That which is found

in Virginia resembles the common mole, except in colour, which is black mixed with a deep purple. There are sometimes white moles seen, particularly in Poland, rather larger than the former. As their skin is so very soft and beautiful, it is odd that it has not been turned to any advantage. Agricola tells us that he saw hats made from it the finest and the most beautiful that could be imagined.

CHAP. II.

THE HEDGEHOG, OR PRICKLY KIND.

Animals of the hedgehog kind require but very little accuracy to distinguish them from all others. That hair which serves the generality of quadrupeds for warmth and ornament is partly wanting in these; while its place is supplied by sharp spines or prickles, which serve for their defence. This general characteristic, therefore, makes a much more obvious distinction than any that can be taken from their teeth or their claws. Nature, by this extraordinary peculiarity, seems to have separated them in a very distinguished manner; so that, instead of classing the hedgehog among the moles or the mole with the hare, as some have done, it is much more natural and obvious to place them and others approaching them in this strange peculiarity in a class by themselves; nor do not let it be supposed, that while I thus alter their arrangement and separate them from animals with which they have been formerly combined, I am destroying any secret affinities that exist in Nature. It is natural, indeed, for readers to suppose, when they see two such opposite animals as the hare and the porcupine assembled together in the same group, that there must be some material reason, some secret connection, for thus joining animals so little resembling each other in appearance. But the reasons for this union were very slight, and merely arose from a similitude in the fore teeth—no likeness in the internal conformation—no similitude in Nature, in habitues, or disposition; in short, nothing to fasten the link that combines them but the similitude in the teeth. This, therefore, may be easily dispensed with; and, as was said, it will be most proper to class them according to their most striking similitudes.

The hedgehog, with an appearance the most formidable, is yet one of the most harmless animals in the world: unable or unwilling to offend, all its precautions are only directed to its own security; and it is armed with a thousand points to keep off the enemy, but not to invade him. While other creatures trust to their force, their cunning, or their swiftness, this animal, destitute of all, has but one expedient for safety, and from this alone it often finds protection;—as soon as it feels itself attacked it withdraws all its vulnerable parts, rolls itself into a ball, and presents nothing but its defensive thorns to the enemy; thus, while it attempts to injure no other quadruped, the quadrupeds are equally incapable of injuring it—like those knights we have somewhere read of, who were armed in such a manner that they could neither conquer others nor be themselves overcome.

This animal is of two kinds—one with a nose like the snout of a hog, the other more short and blunt like that of a dog. That with the muzzle of a dog is the most common, being about six inches in length from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail. The tail is little more than an inch long, and so concealed by the spines as to be scarcely visible. The head, back, and sides are covered with prickles; the nose, breast, and belly are covered with fine soft hair; the legs are short, of a dusky colour, and almost bare; the toes on each foot are five in number, long and separated; the prickles

are about an inch in length, and very sharp pointed; their lower part is white, the middle black, and the points white; the eyes are small, and placed high in the head; the ears are round, pretty large, and naked; the mouth is small, but well furnished with teeth—these, however, it only uses in chewing its food, but neither in attacking or defending itself against other animals. Its only reliance in cases of danger is on its spines; the instant it perceives an enemy it assumes a posture of defence, and keeps upon its guard until it supposes the danger over. On such occasions it immediately alters its whole appearance; from its usual form, somewhat resembling a small animal with a hump on its back, the animal begins to bend its back, to lay its head upon its breast, to shut its eyes, to roll down the skin of its sides towards the legs, to draw these up, and, lastly, to tuck them in on every side by drawing the skin still closer. In this form, which the hedgehog puts on whenever disturbed, it no way resembles an animal, but rather a roundish mass of prickles impervious on every side. The shape of the animal thus rolled up somewhat resembles a chestnut in the husk—there being on one side a kind of flat space, which is that on which the head and legs have been tucked in.

Such is the usual appearance of the hedgehog upon the approach of any danger. Thus rolled up in a lump it patiently waits till its enemy passes by, or is fatigued with fruitless attempts to annoy it. The cat, the weasel, the ferret, and the martin quickly decline the combat; and the dog himself generally spends his time in empty menaces rather than in effectual efforts. Every increase of danger only increases the animal's precautions to keep on its guard; its assailant vainly attempts to bite, since he thus more frequently feels than inflicts a wound; he stands enraged and barking, and rolls it along with the paws; still, however, the hedgehog patiently submits to every indignity, but continues secure, and, still more to disgust its enemy with the contest, sheds its urine, the smell of which is alone sufficient to send him away. In this manner the dog, after barking for some time, leaves the hedgehog where he found him, who, perceiving the danger passed, at length peeps out from its ball, and, if not interrupted, creeps slowly to its retreat.

The hedgehog, like most other wild animals, sleeps by day and ventures out by night. It generally resides in small thickets, in hedges, or in ditches covered with bushes; there it makes a hole of about six or eight inches deep, and lies well wrapped up in moss, grass, or leaves. Its food is roots, fruits, worms, and insects. It is also said to suck cattle and hurt their udders; but the smallness of its mouth will clear it from this reproach. It also is said to be very hurtful in gardens and orchards, where it will roll itself in a heap of fruit, and so carry a large quantity away upon its prickles; but this imputation is as ill grounded as the former, since the spines are so disposed that no fruit will stick upon them, even if we should try to fix them on. It rather appears to be a very serviceable animal in ridding our fields of insects and worms, which are so prejudicial to vegetation.

Mr. Buffon, who kept these animals tame about his house, acquits them of the reproach of being mischievous in the garden; but then he accuses them of tricks of which, from the form and habits of this animal, one would be never led to suspect them. "I have often," says he, "had the female and her young brought me about the beginning of June; they are generally from three to five in number; they are white in the beginning, and only the marks of their spines appear. I was willing to rear some of them, and accordingly put the dam and her young into a tub with abundant provision beside them; but the old animal, instead of suckling her young, devoured them all one after another. On another occasion, a hedgehog



that had made its way into the kitchen discovered a little pot in which there was meat prepared for boiling; the mischievous animal drew out the meat, and left its excrements in their stead. I kept males and females in the same apartment, where they lived together, but never coupled. I permitted several of them to go about my garden; they did very little damage; and it was scarcely perceivable that they were there: they lived upon the fruits that fell from the trees; they dug the earth into shallow holes; they eat caterpillars, beetles, and worms; they were also very fond of flesh, which they devoured boiled or raw."

They couple in spring, and bring forth about the beginning of summer. They sleep during the winter, and what is said of their laying up provisions for that season is consequently false. They at no time eat much, and can remain long without any food whatsoever. Their blood is cold, like all other animals that sleep during the winter. Their flesh is not good for food; and their skins are converted to scarce any use, except to muzzle calves to keep them from sucking.

THE TANREC AND TENDRAC.—The tanrec and tendrac are two little animals, described by Mr. Buffon, of the hedgehog kind; but yet sufficiently different from it to constitute a different species. Like the hedgehog they are covered with prickles, though mixed in a great proportion with hair; but, unlike that animal, they do not defend themselves by rolling up in a ball. Their wanting this property is alone sufficient to distinguish them from an animal in which it makes the most striking peculiarity, as also that in the East Indies, where only they are found, the hedgehog exists separately also—a manifest proof that this animal is not a variety caused by the climate.

The tanrec is much less than the hedgehog, being about the size of a mole, and covered with prickles like that animal, except that they are shorter and smaller. The tendrac is still less than the former, and is defended only with prickles upon the head, the neck, and the shoulders—the rest being covered with a coarse hair resembling hogs' bristles. These little animals, whose legs are very short, move but slowly. They grunt like a hog, and wallow like it in the mire. They love to be near water, and spend more of their time there than upon land. They are chiefly in creeks and harbours of salt water. They multiply in great numbers, make themselves holes in the ground, and sleep for several months. During this torpid state their hairs (and I should also suppose their prickles) fall; and they are renewed upon their revival. They are usually very fat; and although their flesh be insipid, soft, and stringy, yet the Indians find it to their taste, and consider it as a very great delicacy.

THE PORCUPINE.—Those arms which the hedgehog possesses in miniature the porcupine has in a more enlarged degree. The short prickles of the hedgehog are in this animal converted into shafts. In the one, the spines are about an inch long; in the other, a foot. The porcupine is about two feet long and fifteen inches high. Like the hedgehog, it appears a mass of mis-shapen flesh, covered with quills from ten to fourteen inches long, resembling the barrel of a goose-quill in thickness, but tapering and sharp at both ends. These, whether considered separately or together, afford sufficient subject to detain curiosity. Each quill is thickest in the middle, and inserted into the animal's skin in the same manner as feathers are found to grow upon birds. It is within-side spongy, like the top of a goose-quill; and of different colours, being white and black alternately, from one end to the other. The biggest are often found fifteen inches long, and a quarter of an inch in diameter, extremely sharp, and capable of inflicting a mortal wound. They seem harder than common quills, being difficult to be

cut, and solid at the end which is not fixed in the skin. If we examine them in common as they grow upon the animal, they appear of two kinds—the one such as I have already described; the other, long, flexible, and slender, growing here and there among the former. There is still another sort of quills that grow near the tail, white and transparent like writing quills, and which seem to be cut short at the end. All these quills, of whatever kind, incline backwards like the bristles of a hog; but when the animal is irritated they rise and stand upright as bristles are seen to do.

Such is the formation of this quadruped in those parts in which it differs from most others: as to the rest of its figure, the muzzle bears some resemblance to that of a hare, but black; the legs are very short, and the feet have five toes both before and behind; and these, as well as the belly, the head, and all other parts of the body, are covered with a sort of short hair like prickles, there being no part except the ears and the sole of the foot that is free from them; the ears are thinly covered with very fine hair, and are in shape like those of mankind; the eyes are small, like those of a hog, being only one third of an inch from one corner to the other. After the skin is taken off there appears a kind of paps on those parts of the body from whence the large quills proceed; these are about the size of a small pea, each answering to as many holes which appear on the outward surface of the skin, and which are about half an inch deep, like as many hollow pipes, wherein the quills are fixed as in so many sheaths.

This animal seems to partake very much of the nature of the hedgehog, having this formidable apparatus of arms rather to defend itself than to annoy the enemy. There have been, indeed, many naturalists who supposed that it was capable of discharging them at its foe, and killing at a great distance off. But this opinion has been entirely discredited of late; and it is now universally believed that its quills remain firmly fixed in the skin, and are then only shed when the animal moults them as birds do their feathers. It is true, we are told by Ellis that a wolf at Hudson's Bay was found dead with the quills of a porcupine fixed within its mouth—which might have very well happened from the voraciousness of the former, and not the resentment of the latter. That rapacious creature, in the rage of appetite, might have attempted to devour the porcupine, quills and all, and very probably paid the forfeit by its life. However this be, of all the porcupines that have been brought into Europe not one was ever seen to launch their quills; and yet the irritations they received were sufficient to have provoked their utmost indignation. Of all the porcupines that Dr. Shaw observed in Africa, and he saw numbers, not one ever attempted to dart its quills—their usual manner of defence being, to lie on one side, and, when the enemy approaches very near, by suddenly rising to wound him with the points on the other.

It is probable, therefore, that the porcupine is seldom the aggressor; and when attacked by the bolder animals it only directs its quills so as to keep them always pointing towards the enemy. These are an ample protection; and, as we are assured by Kolben, at such times even the lion himself will not venture to make an attack. From such, therefore, the porcupine can defend itself, and chiefly hunts for serpents and all other reptiles for subsistence. Travellers universally assure us that between the serpent and the porcupine there exists an irreconcilable enmity, and that they never meet without a mortal engagement. The porcupine on these occasions is said to roll itself upon the serpent, and thus destroy and devour it. This may be true; while, what we are informed by Monsieur Sarrasin, of the porcupine of Canada chiefly subsisting upon vegetables, may be equally so. Those which are brought to this country to be shown are usually fed upon bread, milk

and fruits; but they will not refuse meat when it is offered them; and it is probable they prefer it in a wild state when it is to be had. The porcupine is also known to be extremely hurtful to gardens, and where it enters does incredible damage.

The Americans, who hunt this animal, assure us that the porcupine lives from twelve to fifteen years. During the time of coupling, which is in the month of September, the males become very fierce and dangerous, and are often seen to destroy each other with their teeth. The female goes with young seven months, and brings forth but one at a time; this she suckles but about a month, and accustoms it betimes to live, like herself, upon vegetables and the bark of trees; she is very fierce in its defence; but at other seasons she is fearful, timid, and harmless. The porcupine never attempts to bite, nor any way to injure its pursuers: if hunted by a dog or a wolf, it instantly climbs up a tree, and continues there until it has wearied out the patience of its adversary; the wolf knows by experience how fruitless it would be to wait; he therefore leaves the porcupine above, and seeks out for a new adventure.

The porcupine does not escape so well from the Indian hunter, who eagerly pursues it, in order to make embroidery of its quills and to eat its flesh. This, as we are commonly told, is very tolerable eating: however, we may expect wretched provisions when the savages are to be our caterers, for they eat everything that has life. But they are very ingenious with regard to their embroidery: if I understand the accounts rightly, they dye the quills of various colours, and then splitting them into slips, as we see in the making of a cane-chair, they embroider their belts, baskets, and several other necessary pieces of furniture.

As to the rest, there are many things related concerning this animal that are fabulous; but there are still many circumstances more that yet remain to be known. It were curious to inquire whether this animal moults its quills when wild, for it is never seen to shed them in a domestic state; whether it sleeps all the winter, as we are told by some naturalists, which we are sure it does not when brought into our country; and, lastly, whether its quills can be sent off with a shake; for no less a naturalist than Reaumur was of that opinion.

All that we can learn of an animal exposed as a show, or even by its dissection, is but merely its conformation; and that makes one of the least interesting parts of its history. We are naturally led, when presented with an extraordinary creature, to expect something extraordinary in its way of living—something uncommon, and corresponding with its figure; but of this animal we know little with any precision, except what it offers in a state of captivity. In such a situation that which I saw appeared to very little advantage; it was extremely dull and torpid, though very wakeful; and extremely voracious, though very capable of sustaining hunger; as averse to any attachment as to being tamed: it was kept in an iron cage, and the touching of one of the bars was sufficient to excite its resentment, for its quills were instantly erected; and the poet was right in his epithet of "fretful," for it appeared to me the most irascible creature upon earth.

The porcupines of America differ very much from those of the ancient continent which we have been describing, and, strictly speaking, may be considered as animals of a different species; however, from their being covered with quills we will only add them as varieties of the former, since we know very little concerning them except their difference of figure. They are of two kinds—the one called the "couando," and the other, first named by Mr. Buffon, the "urson;" the one a native of the northern parts of America, the other of the south, and both differing from the former in having long tails, whereas that has a very short one.

The couando is much less than the porcupine; its quills are four times shorter, its snout more unlike that of a hare; its tail is long enough to catch by the branches of trees and hold by them. It may be easily tamed, and is to be found chiefly in the southern parts of America; yet is not wanting also in the northern.

The urson, which Mr. Buffon calls after our countryman Hudson, is a native of Hudson's Bay. The make of the body of this animal is not so round as that of the two former, but somewhat resembling the shape of a pig. It is covered with long, bristly hair, with a shorter hair underneath; and under this the quills lie concealed very thick; they are white, with a brown point, and bearded, and the longest do not exceed four inches; they stick to the hand when the animal is stroked on the back: and likewise, when the hand is taken away they stick so fast as to follow it. They make their nest under the roots of great trees, sleep very much, and chiefly feed upon the bark of the juniper. In winter the snow serves them for drink; and in summer they lap water like a dog. They are very common in the country lying to the east of Hudson's Bay; and several of the trading Americans depend on them for food at some seasons of the year.

CHAP. III.

OF QUADRUPEDS COVERED WITH SCALES OR SHELLS INSTEAD OF HAIR.

When we talk of a quadruped, the name seems to imply an animal covered with hair; when we mention a bird, it is natural to conceive a creature covered with feathers; when we hear of a fish, its scales are generally the first part that strikes our imagination. Nature, however, owns none of our distinctions; various in all her operations, she mixes her plans, groups her pictures, and excites our wonder as well by her general laws as by her deviations. Quadrupeds, which we have considered as making the first general class in Animated Nature, and next to man the most dignified tenants of the earth, are yet in many respects related to the classes beneath them, and do not in every respect preserve their usual distinctions. Their first character, which consists in having four feet, is common to the lizard kind as well as to them. The second prerogative, which is that of bringing forth living young, is found in the cetaceous tribe of fishes, and also in insects without number. Their third and last attribute, which seems more general and constant than the former, that of being covered with hair, is yet found in various other animals, and is deficient in quadrupeds themselves. Thus we must be cautious of judging of the nature of animals from one single character, which is always found incomplete; for it often happens that three or four of the most general characters will not suffice. It must be by a general enumeration of the parts that we can determine precisely of the works of the creation, and, instead of definitions, learn to describe. Had this method been followed much of the disgust and the intricacy of history might have been avoided, and that time which is now employed in combating error laid out in the promoting of science.

Were we to judge of Nature from definitions only, we should never be induced to suppose that there existed races of viviparous quadrupeds destitute of hair, and furnished with scales and shells in their stead. However, Nature, every way various, supplies us with many instances of these extraordinary creatures; the old world has its quadrupeds covered with scales, and the new with a shell. In both they resemble each other, as well in the strangeness of their appetites as in their awkward conformation. Like animals but partially made up,

and partaking of different natures, they want those instincts which animals formed but for one element alone are found to possess. They seem to be a kind of strangers in Nature—creatures taken from some other element, and capriciously thrown to find a precarious subsistence upon land.

THE PANGOLIN.—The pangolin, which has been usually called the "scaly lizard," Mr. Buffon very judiciously restores to that denomination by which it is known in the countries where it is found. The calling it a lizard, he justly observes, might be apt to produce error, and occasion its being confounded with an animal which it resembles only in its general form and in its being covered with scales. The lizard may be considered as a reptile produced from an egg; the pangolin is a quadruped brought forth alive, and perfectly formed. The lizard is all over covered with the marks of scales; the pangolin has scales neither on the throat, the breast, nor the belly. The scales of the lizard seem stuck upon the body even closer than those of fishes; the scales of the pangolin are only fixed at one end, and capable of being erected, like those of the porcupine, at the will of the animal. The lizard is a defenceless creature; the pangolin can roll itself into a ball like the hedgehog, and presents the points of its scales to the enemy, which effectually defend it.

The pangolin, which is a native of the torrid climates of the ancient continent, is of all other animals the best protected from external injury by Nature. It is about three or four feet long—or, taking in the tail, from six to eight. Like the lizard, it has a small head, a very long nose, a short thick neck, a long body, legs very short, and a tail extremely long, thick at the insertion, and terminating in a point. It has no teeth, but is armed with five toes on each foot, with long white claws. But what it is chiefly distinguished by is its scaly covering, which in some measure hides all the proportions of its body. These scales defend the animal on all parts, except the under-part of the head and neck, under the shoulders, the breast, the belly, and the inner side of the legs—all which parts are covered with a smooth soft skin, without hair. Between the shells of this animal at all the interstices are seen hairs like bristles, brown at the extremity, and yellow towards the root. The scales of this extraordinary creature are of different sizes and different forms, and stuck upon the body somewhat like the leaves of an artichoke. The largest are found near the tail, which is covered with them like the rest of the body. These are above three inches broad and about two inches long, thick in the middle and sharp at the edges, and terminated in a roundish point. They are extremely hard, and their substance resembles that of horn. They are convex on the outside, and a little concave on the inner; one edge sticks in the skin, while the other laps over that immediately behind it. Those that cover the tail conform to the shape of that part, being of a dusky-brown colour, and so hard when the animal has acquired its full growth as to turn a musket-ball.

Thus armed, this animal fears nothing from the efforts of all other creatures except man. The instant it perceives the approach of an enemy it rolls itself up like the hedgehog, and presents no parts but the cutting edges of its scales to the assailant. Its long tail, which at first view might be thought easily separable, serves still more to increase the animal's security. This is wrapped round the rest of the body, and, being defended with shells even more cutting than any other part, the creature continues in perfect security. Its shells are so large, so thick, and so pointed, that they repel every animal of prey; they make a coat of armour that wounds while it resists, and at once protects and threatens. The most cruel, the most famished quadruped of the forest—the tiger, the panther, and the hyena—make vain

attempts to force it. They tread upon it, they roll it about, but all to no purpose; the pangolin remains safe within, whilst its invader almost always feels the reward of its rashness. The fox often destroys the hedgehog by pressing it with his weight, and thus obliges it to put forth its nose, which he instantly seizes, and soon after the whole body; but the scales of the pangolin effectually support it under any such weight, whilst nothing that the strongest animals are capable of doing can compel it to surrender. Man alone seems furnished with arms to conquer its obstinacy. The Negroes of Africa when they find it beat it to death with clubs, and consider its flesh as a very great delicacy.

But although this animal be so formidable in its appearance, there cannot be a more harmless, inoffensive creature when unmolested. It is even unqualified by Nature to injure larger animals, if it had the disposition, for it has no teeth. It would seem that the bony matter, which goes in other animals to supply the teeth, is exhausted in this in supplying the scales that go to the covering of its body. However this be, its life seems correspondent to its peculiar conformation. Incapable of being carnivorous, since it has no teeth, nor of subsisting on vegetables, which require much chewing, it lives entirely upon insects, for which Nature has fitted it in a very extraordinary manner. As it has a long nose, so it may naturally be supposed to have a long tongue; but, to increase its length still more, it is doubled in the mouth, so that when extended it is shot out to above a quarter of a yard beyond the tip of the nose. This tongue is round, extremely red, and covered with an unctuous and slimy liquor, which gives it a shining hue. When the pangolin, therefore, approaches an ant-hill—for these are the insects on which it chiefly feeds—it lies down near it, concealing as much as possible the place of its retreat, and stretching out its long tongue among the ants, keeps it for some time quite immovable. These little animals, allured by its appearance and the unctuous substance with which it is smeared, instantly gather upon it in great numbers; and when the pangolin supposes a sufficiency, it quickly withdraws the tongue and swallows them at once. This peculiar manner of hunting for its prey is repeated either until it be satisfied, or till the ants, grown more cautious, will be allured to their destruction no longer. It is against these noxious insects, therefore, that its only force or cunning is exerted; and were the Negroes but sufficiently sensible of its utility in destroying one of the greatest pests to their country they would not be so eager to kill it. But it is the nature of savage men to pursue the immediate good, without being solicitous about the more distant benefit they lose. They therefore hunt this animal with the utmost avidity for its flesh; and as it is slow and unable to escape in an open place, they seldom fail of destroying it. However, it chiefly keeps in the most obscure parts of the forest, and digs itself a retreat in the clefts of rocks, where it brings forth its young, so that it is but rarely met with, and continues a solitary species, and an extraordinary instance of the varieties of Nature.

Of this animal there is a variety which is called the "phatagin," much less than the former, being not above a foot long from the head to the tail, with shells differently formed, with its belly, breast, and throat covered with hair, instead of a smooth skin, as in the former; but that by which it is peculiarly distinguished is the extent of its tail, which is above twice the length of its body. Both are found in the warm latitudes of the East, as well as in Africa; and, as their numbers are but few, it is to be supposed their fecundity is not great.

THE ARMADILLO, OR TATOU.—Having mentioned quadrupeds of the ancient continent covered with scales, we come next to the quadrupeds of the new continent

covered with shells. It would seem that Nature had reserved all the wonders of her power for these remote and thinly-inhabited countries, where the men are savage and the quadrupeds various. It would seem that she becomes more extraordinary in proportion as she retires from human inspection. But the real fact is, that wherever mankind are polished or thickly planted they soon rid the earth of these odd and half-formed productions, that in some measure encumber the soil. They soon disappear in a cultivated country, and continue to exist only in those remote deserts where they have no enemies but such as they are enabled to oppose.

The armadillo is chiefly an inhabitant of South America—a peaceful, harmless creature, incapable of offending any other quadruped, and furnished with a peculiar covering for its own defence. The pangolin, described above, seems an inactive, helpless being, indebted for safety more to its patience than its power; but the armadillo is still more exposed and helpless. The pangolin is furnished with an armour that wounds while it resists, and it is never attacked with impunity; but the armadillo is obliged to submit to every insult without any power of repelling its enemy; it is attacked without danger, and is consequently liable to more various persecutions.

This animal being covered, like a tortoise, with a shell, or rather a number of shells, its other proportions are not easily discerned. It appears at first view a round mis-shapen mass, with a long head, and a very large tail sticking out at either end, as if not of a piece with the rest of the body. It is of different sizes, from one to three feet long, and covered with a shell divided into several pieces, which lap over each other like the plates in a coat of mail, or in the tail of a lobster. The difference in the size of this animal, and also the different disposition and number of its plates, have been considered as constituting so many species, each marked with its own particular name. In all, however, the animal is partially covered with this natural coat of mail, the conformation of which affords one of the most striking curiosities in natural history. This shell, which in every respect resembles a bony substance, covers the head, the neck, the back, the sides, the rump, and the tail to the very point. The only parts to which it does not extend are the throat, breast, and the belly, which are covered with a soft white skin, somewhat resembling the skin of a fowl when stripped of its feathers. If these naked parts be observed with attention, they will be found covered with the rudiments of shells of the same substance with those which cover the back. The skin, even in the parts that are softest, seems to have a tendency to ossify; but a complete ossification takes place only on those parts which have the least friction, and are the most exposed to the weather. The shell which covers the upper part of the body differs from that of the tortoise in being composed of more pieces than one, which lie in bands over the body, and, as in the tail of the lobster, slide over each other, and are connected by a yellow membrane in the same manner. By this means the animal has a motion in its back, and the armour gives way to its necessary inflections. These bands are of various numbers and sizes, and from these animals have been distinguished into various kinds. In general, however, there are two large pieces that cover the shoulders and the rump. In the back, between these, the bands are placed in different numbers, which wrap over each other and give play to the whole. Besides their opening crossways, they also open down along the back, so that the animal can move in any direction. In some there are but three of these bands between the large pieces; in others there are six; in a third there are eight; in a fourth kind, nine; in a fifth kind, twelve; and, lastly, in the sixth kind there is but one large piece, which covers the shoulders, and the rest of the body is covered with bands all down to the tail. These shells

are differently coloured in different kinds, but they are usually of a dirty grey. This colour arises from another peculiar circumstance in their conformation, for the shell itself is covered with a softish skin, which is smooth and transparent.

But although these shells might easily defend this animal from a feeble enemy, yet they could make but a slight resistance against a more powerful antagonist. Nature, therefore, has given the armadillo the same method of protecting itself with the hedgehog or the pangolin. The instant it finds itself attacked it withdraws the head under its shells, and lets nothing be seen but the tip of the nose; if the danger increases, the animal's precautions increase in proportion; it then tucks up its feet under its belly, unites its two extremities together, while the tail seems as a band to strengthen the connection; and it thus becomes like a ball, a little flattish on each side. In this position it continues obstinately fixed while the danger is near, and often when the danger is over. In this situation it is tossed about at the pleasure of every other quadruped, and but little resembles a creature endowed with life and motion. Whenever the Indians take it (which is in this form), by laying it close to the fire they soon oblige the poor animal to unfold itself, and to face a milder death to escape one more severe.

This animal is a native only of America, for they were utterly unknown before the discovery of that continent. It is an inoffensive, harmless creature, unless it finds the way into a garden, where it does a great deal of mischief by eating the melons, the potatoes, and other vegetables. Although a native of the warmest parts of America, yet it bears the cold of our climate without any inconvenience. We have often seen them shown among other wild beasts, which is a proof they are not difficult to be brought over. Their motion seems to be a swift walk, but they can neither run, leap, nor climb trees; so that, if found in an open place, they have no method of escaping from their pursuers. Their only resource in such an extremity is to make towards their hole as fast as they can; or, if this be impracticable, to make a new hole before the enemy arrives. For this they require but a very few moments' advantage; the mole itself does not burrow swifter than they can. For this purpose they are furnished with claws extremely large, strong, and crooked, and usually four upon each foot. They are sometimes caught by the tail as they are making their way into the earth; but such is their resistance, and so difficult is it to draw them backward, that they leave their tail in the hand of their pursuer, and are very well contented to save their lives with its loss. The pursuers, sensible of this, never drag the tail with all their force, but hold it while another digs the ground about them, and thus these animals are taken alive. The instant the armadillo perceives itself in the power of its enemies it has but one last resource—to roll itself up, and thus patiently wait whatever tortures they think proper to inflict. The flesh of the smaller kinds is said to be delicate eating; so that we may suppose they receive no mercy. For this reason they are pursued with unceasing industry; and, although they burrow very deep in the earth, there have been many expedients used to force them out. The hunters sometimes contrive to fill the hole with smoke, which is often successful; they at other times force it by pouring in water. They also bring up a small kind of dog to the chase that quickly overtakes them, if at any distance from their burrow, and obliges them to roll themselves up in a ball, in which figure the hunters carry them home. If, however, the armadillo be near a precipice, it often escapes by rolling itself up, and then tumbling down from rock to rock without the least danger or inconvenience. They are sometimes taken in snares laid for them by the sides of rivers and low moist places, which they particularly frequent; and

this method in general succeeds better than any of the former, as their burrows are very deep, and they seldom stir out except in the night. At no time are they found at any great distance from their retreats, so that it requires some patience and skill to intercept them.

There are scarce any of these that do not root the ground like a hog, in search of such roots as make a principal part of their food. They also live upon melons and other succulent vegetables, and all will eat flesh when they can get it. They frequent water and watery places, where they feed upon worms, small fish, and water insects. It is pretended that there is a kind of friendship between them and the rattlesnake—that they live peaceably and commodiously together, and are frequently found in the same hole. This, however, may be a friendship of necessity to the armadillo; the rattlesnake takes possession of its retreat, which neither is willing to quit, while each is incapable of injuring the other.

As to the rest, these animals, though they all resemble each other in the general character of being clothed with a shell, yet differ a good deal in their size, and in the parts into which their shell is divided. The first of this kind, which has but three bands between the two large pieces that cover the back, is called the "tatu apara." I will not enter into an exact description of its figure, which, how well written soever, no imagination could exactly conceive; and the reader would be more fatigued to understand than I to write it. The tail is shorter in this than in any other kind, being not more than two inches long, while the shell, taking all the pieces together, is a foot long and eight inches broad. The second is the "taton" of Ray, or the "encoubert" of Buffon; this is distinguished from the rest by six bands across the back; it is about the size of a pig of a month old, with a small long head and a very long tail. The third is the "tatouette," furnished with eight bands, and not by a great deal so big as the former. Its tail is longer also, and its legs shorter in proportion. Its body, from the nose to the insertion of the tail, is about ten inches long, and the tail seven. The fourth is the "pig-headed armadillo," with nine bands. This is much larger than the former, being about two feet long from the nose to the tail. The fifth is the "kabassou," or "cataphractus," with twelve bands, and still bigger than the former, or any other of its kind. This is often found about three feet long but is never eaten as the rest are. The sixth is the "weasel-headed armadillo," with eighteen bands, with a large piece before, and nothing but bands backward. This is above a foot long, and the tail five inches. Of all these, the kabassou and the encoubert are the largest; the rest are of a much smaller kind. In the larger kinds the shell is much more solid than in the others, and the flesh is much harder and unfit for the table. These are generally seen to reside in dry upland grounds, while the small species are always found in moist places, and in the neighbourhood of brooks and rivers. They all roll themselves into a ball; but those whose bands are fewest in number are least capable of covering themselves up completely. The tatu apara, for instance, when rolled up presents two great interstices between its bands, by which it is very easily vulnerable even by the feeblest of quadrupeds.

CHAP. IV.

ANIMALS OF THE BAT KIND.

Having in the last chapter described a race of animals that unite the boundaries between quadrupeds and insects, I come in this to a very different class, that serve to fill up the chasm between quadrupeds and birds.

Some naturalists, indeed, have found animals of the bat kind so much partaking of the nature of both, that they have been at a loss in which rank to place them, and have doubted, in giving the history of the bat, whether it was a beast or a bird they were describing. These doubts, however, no longer exist; they are now universally made to take their place among quadrupeds, to which their bringing forth their young alive, their hair, their teeth, as well as the rest of their habitudes and conformation, evidently entitle them. Pliny, Gesner, and Aldrovandus, who placed them among birds, did not consider that they wanted every character of that order of animals, except the power of flying. Indeed, when this animal is seen, with an awkward and struggling motion, supporting itself in the air at the dusk of the evening, it presents in some measure the appearance of a bird; but naturalists, whose business it is to examine it more closely, to watch its habitudes, and inspect into its formation, are inexcusable for concurring in the mistake.

The bat in scarce any particular resembles the bird, except in its power of sustaining itself in the air. It brings forth its young alive—it suckles them—its mouth is furnished with teeth—its lungs are formed like those of quadrupeds—its intestines and its skeleton have a complete resemblance, and even are in some measure seen to resemble those of mankind.

The bat most common in England is about the size of a mouse, or nearly two inches and a half long. The membranes that are usually called wings are, properly speaking, an extension of the skin all round the body, except the head, which, when the animal flies, is kept stretched on every side by the four interior toes of the fore-feet, which are enormously long, and serve like masts that keep the canvas of a sail spread and regulate its motions. The first toe is quite loose, and serves as a heel when the bat walks, or as a hook when it would adhere to anything. The hind-feet are disengaged from the surrounding skin, and divided into five toes, somewhat resembling those of a mouse. The skin by which it flies is of a dusky colour. The body is covered with a short fur, of a mouse-colour tinged with red. The eyes are very small—the ears like those of a mouse.

This species of the bat is very common in England. It makes its first appearance early in summer, and begins its flight in the dusk of the evening. It principally frequents the sides of woods, glades, and shady walks; and is frequently observed to skim along the surface of pieces of water. It pursues gnats, moths, and nocturnal insects of every kind. It feeds upon these; but will not refuse meat wherever it can find it. Its flight is a laborious, irregular movement; and if it happens to be interrupted in its course it cannot readily prepare for a second elevation; so that if it strikes against any object and falls to the ground it is usually taken. It appears only in the most pleasant evenings, when its prey is generally abroad, and flies in pursuit with its mouth open. At other times it remains in its retreats—the chink of a ruined building or the hollow of a tree. Thus this little animal, even the summer, sleeps the greatest part of its time, never venturing out by daylight, nor in rainy weather—never hunting in quest of prey, but for a small part of the night, and then returning to its hole. But its short life is still more abridged by continuing in a torpid state during the winter. At the approach of the cold season the bat prepares for its state of lifeless inactivity, and seems rather to choose a place where it may continue safe from interruption than where it may be warmly or conveniently lodged. From this reason it is usually seen hanging by its hooked claws to the roofs of caves, regardless of the eternal damps that surround it. The bat seems the only animal that will venture to remain in these frightful subterranean abodes, where it continues in a torpid state, unaffected by every change of the weather. Such

of this kind as are not provident enough to procure themselves a deep retreat, where the cold and heat seldom vary, are sometimes exposed to great inconveniences, for the weather often becomes so mild in the midst of winter as to warm them prematurely into life, and to allure them from their holes in quest of food when Nature has not provided a supply. These, therefore, have seldom strength to return; but, having exhausted themselves in a vain pursuit after insects which are not to be found, are destroyed by the owl, or any other animal that follows such petty prey.

The bat couples and brings forth in summer, generally from two to five at a time: of this I am certain, that I have found five young ones in a hole together; but whether they were the issue of one parent I cannot tell. The female has but two nipples, and those forward on the breast, as in the human kind. This was a sufficient motive for Linnæus to give it the title of "primas," to rank it in the same order with mankind, and to push this contemptible animal among the chiefs of creation. Such arbitrary associations produce rather ridicule than instruction, and render even method contemptible; however, we are to forgive too strong an attachment to system in this able naturalist, since his application to the particular history of the animal counterbalances the defect.

From Linnæus, we learn that the female makes no nest for her young, as most birds and quadrupeds are known to do. She is content with the first hole she meets, where, sticking herself by her hooks against the sides of her apartment, she permits her young to hang at the nipple, and in this manner to continue for the first or second day. When after some time the dam begins to grow hungry, and finds a necessity of stirring abroad, she takes her little ones and sticks them to the wall in the manner she before hung herself; there they immovably cling, and patiently wait till her return.

Thus far this animal seems closely allied to the quadruped race: its similitudes to that of birds is less striking. As Nature has furnished birds with extremely strong pectoral muscles to move the wings and direct their flight, so has it also furnished this animal. As birds also have their legs weak and unfit for the purposes of motion, the bat has its legs fashioned in the same manner, and is never seen to walk (or more properly speaking, to push itself forward with its hind-legs) but in cases of extreme necessity. The toes of the fore-legs, or, if we may use the expression, its extremely long fingers, extend the web like a membrane that lies between them; and this, which is extremely thin, serves to lift the little body into the air: in this manner, by unceasing percussion much swifter than that of birds, the animal continues and directs its flight; however, the great labour required in flying soon fatigues it; for, unlike birds, which continue for days together upon the wing, the bat is tired in less than an hour, and then returns to its hole, satisfied with its supply, to enjoy the darkness of its retreat.

If we consider the bat as it is seen in our own country, we shall find it a harmless, inoffensive creature. It is true that it now and then steals into a larder, and, like a mouse, commits its petty thefts upon the fattest parts of the bacon. But this seldom happens; the general tenor of its industry is employed in pursuing insects that are much more noxious to us than the bat can possibly be; while its evening flight and its unsteady, wabbling motion amuse the beholder, and add one figure more to the pleasing group of Animated Nature.

The varieties of this animal, especially in our country, are but few, and the difference scarce worth enumeration. Naturalists mention the long-eared bat, much less than that generally seen, and with much longer ears; the horse-shoe bat, with an odd protuberance round its upper lip, somewhat in the form of a horse-

shoe; the rhinoceros bat, with a horn growing from the nose, somewhat similar to that animal from whence it has the name. These, with several others, whose varieties are too numerous and differences too minute for a detail, are all inoffensive, minute, and contemptible—incapable, from their size, of injuring mankind, and not sufficiently numerous much to incommode him. But there is a larger race of bats found in the East and West Indies that are truly formidable; each of these singly is a dangerous enemy, but when they unite in flocks they then become dreadful. Were the inhabitants of the African coasts, says Des Marchais, to eat animals of the bat kind as they do in the East Indies, they would never want a supply of provisions. They are there in such numbers, that when they fly they obscure the setting sun. In the morning, at peep of day, they are seen sticking upon the tops of trees, and clinging to each other like bees when they swarm, or like large clusters of cocoa. The Europeans often amuse themselves with shooting among this huge mass of living creatures, and observing their embarrassment when wounded. They sometime enter the houses, and the Negroes are expert at killing them; but although these people seem for ever hungry, yet they regard the bat with horror, and will not eat it although ready to starve.

Of foreign bats, the largest we have any certain accounts of is the rousette, or the "great bat of Madagascar." This formidable creature is near four feet broad when the wings are extended, and a foot long from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail. It resembles our bat in the form of its wings, in its manner of flying, and in its internal conformation. It differs from it in its enormous size—in its colour, which is red, like that of a fox—in its head and nose also, which resemble those of that animal, and which have induced some to call it the flying fox; it differs also in the number of its teeth, and in having a claw on the fore-foot, which is wanting in ours. This formidable creature is found only in the ancient continent, particularly in Madagascar, along the coasts of Africa and Malabar, where it is generally seen about the size of a large hen. When they repose, they stick themselves to the top of the tallest trees, and hang with their heads downward. But when they are in motion nothing can be more formidable; they are seen in clouds darkening the air, as well by day as by night, destroying the ripe fruits of the country, and sometimes settling upon animals, and man himself; they devour indiscriminately fruits, flesh, and insects, and drink the juice of the palm-tree; they are heard at night in the forests at more than two miles distance, with a horrible din; but at the approach of day they usually begin to retire. Nothing is safe from their depredations; they destroy fowls and domestic animals, unless preserved with the utmost care, and often fasten upon the inhabitants themselves, attack them in the face, and inflict terrible wounds. In short, as some have already observed, the ancients seem to have taken their ideas of harpies from these fierce and voracious creatures, as they both concur in many parts of the description, being equally deformed, greedy, uncleanly, and cruel.

An animal not so formidable, but still more mischievous than these, is the American vampyre. This is still less mischievous than the former, but more deformed, and they are more numerous. It is furnished with a horn like the rhinoceros bat, and its ears are very long. The other kinds resort to the forest and the most deserted places; but these come into towns and cities, and after sun-set, when they begin to fly, cover the streets like a canopy. They are the common pest both of men and animals; they effectually destroy the one and often distress the other. "They are," says Ulloa, "the most expert blood-letters in the world. The inhabitants of those warm latitudes being obliged by the excessive

beats to leave open the doors and windows of the chambers where they sleep, the vampires enter, and if they find any part of the body exposed they never fail to fasten upon it. There they continue to suck the blood; and it often happens that the person dies under the operation. They insinuate their tooth into a vein with all the art of a most experienced surgeon, continuing to exhaust the body until they are satiated. I have been assured," continues he, "by persons of the strictest veracity, that such an accident has happened to them; and that, had they not providentially awaked their sleep would have been their passage into eternity, having lost so large a quantity of blood as hardly to find strength to bind up the orifice. The reason why the puncture is not felt is, besides the great precaution with which it is made, the gentle refreshing agitation of the bat's wings, which contribute to increase sleep and soften the pain."

The purport of this account has been confirmed by various other travellers, who all agree that this bat is possessed of the faculty of drawing the blood from persons sleeping, and thus often destroying them before they awake. But still a very strong difficulty remains to be accounted for—the manner in which they inflict the wound. Ulloa, as has been seen, supposes that it is done by a single tooth; but this we know to be impossible, since the animal cannot infix one tooth without all the rest accompanying its motions—the teeth of the bat kind being pretty even and the mouth but small. Mr. Buffon therefore supposes the wound to be inflicted by the tongue; which, however, appears to me too large to inflict an unpainful wound, and even less qualified for that purpose than the teeth. Nor can the tongue, as Mr. Buffon seems to suppose, serve for the purpose of suction, since for this it must be hollow, like a syringe, which it is not found to be. I should therefore suppose that the animal is endowed with a strong power of suction; and that, without inflicting any wound whatsoever, by continuing to draw, it enlarges the pores of the skin in such a manner that the blood at length passes, and that more freely the longer the operation is continued; so that, at last, when the bat goes off, the blood continues to flow. In confirmation of this opinion, we are told that where beasts have a thick skin this animal cannot injure them; whereas in horses, mules, and asses they are very liable to be thus destroyed. As to the rest, these animals are considered as one of the great pests of South America, and often prevent the peopling of many parts of that continent—having destroyed at Barja, and several other places, such cattle as were brought there by the missionaries in order to form a settlement.

CHAP. V.

OF AMPHIBIOUS QUADRUPEDS.

The gradations of Nature from one class of beings to another are made by imperceptible deviations. As we saw in the foregoing chapters quadrupeds almost degraded into the insect tribe, or mounted among the inhabitants of the air, we are at present to observe their approach to fishes, to trace the degrees by which they become more unlike terrestrial animals, till the similitude of the fish prevails over that of the quadruped.

As in opposite armies the two bodies are distinct and separated from each other, while yet between them are various troops that plunder on both sides and are friends to neither, so between terrestrial and aquatic animals there are tribes that can scarce be referred to any rank, but lead an amphibious life between them. Sometimes in water, sometimes on land, they seem fitted for each element, and yet completely adapted to neither. Wanting the agility of quadrupeds upon land, and the perseverance of fishes in the deep, the variety of their powers

only seems to diminish their force; and, though possessed of two different methods of living, they are more inconveniently provided than such as have but one.

All quadrupeds of this kind, though covered with hair in the usual manner, are furnished with membranes between the toes, which assist their motion in the water. Their paws are broad and their legs short, by which they are more completely fitted for swimming; for, taking short strokes at a time, they make them oftener and with greater rapidity. Some, however, of these animals are more adapted to live in the water than others; but as their power increases to live in the deep, their unfitness for living upon land increases in the same proportion. Some, like the otter, resemble quadrupeds in everything except in being in some measure web-footed; others depart still further, in being, like the beaver, not only web-footed, but having the tail covered with scales like those of a fish. Others depart yet further, as the seal and the morse, by having the hind-feet stuck to the body like fins; and others, as the lumentin, almost entirely resemble fishes, by having no hind-feet whatsoever. Such are the gradations of the amphibious tribe. They all, however, get their living in the water, either by habit or conformation; they all continue a long time under water; they all consider that element as their proper abode; whenever pressed by danger they fly to the water for security; and, when upon land, appear watchful, timorous, and unwieldy.

THE OTTER.—In the first step of the progression from land to amphibious animals we find the otter, resembling those of the terrestrial kind in shape, hair, and internal conformation—resembling the aquatic tribes in its manner of living, and in having membranes between the toes to assist it in swimming. From the peculiarity of its feet, which are very short, it swims even faster than it runs, and can overtake fishes in their own element. The colour of this animal is brown, and it is somewhat of the shape of an overgrown weasel, being long, slender, and soft-skinned. However, if we examine its figure in detail, we shall find it unlike any other animal hitherto described, and of such a shape as words can but weakly convey. Its usual length is about two feet long from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail; the head and nose are broad and flat; the mouth bears some similitude to that of a fish; the neck is short, and equal in thickness to the head; the body long; the tail broad at the insertion, but tapering off to a point at the end; the eyes are very small, and placed nearer the nose than usual in quadrupeds. The legs are very short, but remarkably strong, broad, and muscular. The joints are articulated so loosely that the animal is capable of turning them quite back, and bringing them on a line with the body, so as to perform the office of fins. Each foot is furnished with five toes, connected by strong broad webs like those of water-fowl. Thus Nature in every part has had attention to the life of an animal whose food is fish, and whose haunts must necessarily be about water.

This voracious animal is never found but at the sides of lakes and rivers, particularly the former, for it is seldom fond of fishing in a running stream; the current of the water having more power upon it than the fishes it pursues, if it hunts against the stream it swims too slow, and if with the stream it overshoots its prey. However, when in rivers it is always observed to swim against the stream, and to meet the fishes it preys upon rather than to pursue them. In lakes it destroys much more than it devours, and is often known to spoil a pond in the space of a few nights. But the damage they do by destroying fish is not so great as their tearing in pieces the nets of the fishers, which they do whenever they get entangled. When they find themselves caught they go to work with their teeth, and in a few minutes destroy nets of considerable value.

The otter has two different methods of fishing—the one by catching its prey from the bottom upward, the other by pursuing it into some little creek, and seizing it there. In the former case, as this animal has larger lungs than most other quadrupeds, on taking in a quantity of air it can remain for some minutes at the bottom, and whatever fish passes over at that time is certainly taken; for as the eyes of fish are placed so as not to see under them, the otter attacks them off their guard from below, and, seizing them at once by the belly, conveys them on shore, where it often leaves them untouched, to continue the pursuit for hours together. The other method is chiefly practised in lakes and ponds where there is no current; the fish thus taken are of the smaller kind, for the large ones will never be driven out of deep water.

In this manner the otter usually lives during the summer, being furnished with a supply much greater than its consumption—killing for its amusement, and infecting the edges of the lake with quantities of dead fish, which it leaves there as trophies rather of its victory than its necessities. But in winter, when the lakes are frozen over and the rivers pour with a rapid torrent, the otter is often greatly distressed for provisions, and is then obliged to live upon grass, weeds, and even the bark of trees. It then comes upon land, and, having grown courageous from necessity, feeds upon terrestrial animals—rats, insects, and even sheep themselves. Nature, however, has given it the power of continuing a long time without food; and although during that season it is not rendered quite torpid, like the marmout or the dormouse, yet it keeps much more within its retreat, which is usually the hollow of a bank worn under by the water. There it often forms a kind of gallery, running for several yards along the edge of the water; so that when attacked at one end it flies to the other, and often evades the fowler by plunging into the water at forty or fifty paces distance, while he expects to find it just before him.

We learn from Mr. Buffon that this animal in France couples in winter, and brings forth in the beginning of spring. But it is certainly different with us, for its young are never found until the latter end of summer; and I have frequently when a boy discovered their retreats, and pursued at that season. I am therefore more inclined to follow the account given us of this animal by Mr. Lott, of the Academy of Stockholm, who assures us that it couples about the middle of summer, and brings forth at the end of nine weeks, generally three or four at a time. This, as well as the generality of his remarks on this subject, agrees so exactly with what I remember concerning it, that I will beg leave to take him for my guide, assuring the reader that, however extraordinary the account may seem, I know it to be certainly true.

In the rivers and the lakes frequented by the otter the bottom is generally stony and uneven, with many trunks of trees, and long roots stretching underneath the water. The shore, also, is hollow and scooped inward by the waves. These are the places the otter chiefly chooses for its retreat; and there is scarce a stone which does not bear the mark of its residence, as upon them its excrements are always made. It is chiefly by this mark that its lurking-places are known, as well as by the quantity of dead fish which is found lying here and there upon the banks of the water. To take the old ones alive is no easy task, as they are extremely strong, and there are few dogs that will dare to encounter them. They bite with great fierceness, and never let go their hold when they have once fastened. The best way, therefore, is to shoot them at once, as they never will be thoroughly tamed; and, if kept for the purposes of fishing, are always apt to take the first opportunity of escaping. But the young ones may be more easily taken, and converted to very useful pur-

poses. The otter brings forth its young generally under the hollow banks, upon a bed of rushes, flags, or such weeds as the place affords it in the greatest quantities. It burrows under ground, on the banks of some river or lake, and always makes the entrance of its hole under water, then works up to the surface of the earth, and there makes a minute orifice for the admission of air, and this little air-hole is often found in the middle of some thicket. The young ones are always found at the edge of the water; and, if under the protection of the dam, she teaches them instantly to plunge, like herself, into the deep, and escape among the rushes or weeds that fringe the stream. At such times, therefore, it is very difficult to take them; for though never so young they swim with great rapidity, and in such a manner that no part of them is seen above water except the tip of the nose. It is only when the dam is absent that they can be taken; and in some places there are dogs purposely trained for discovering their retreats. Whenever the dog comes he shows by his barking that the otter is there; which if it be an old one, instantly plunges into the water, and the young all follow. But if the old one be absent they continue terrified, and will not venture forth but under her guidance and protection. In this manner they are secured and taken home alive, where they are carefully fed with small fish and water. In proportion, however, as they gather strength, they have milk mixed among their food, the quantity of their fish provision is retrenched, and that of vegetables is increased, until at length they are fed wholly upon bread, which perfectly agrees with their constitution. The manner of training them up to hunt for fish requires not only assiduity but patience; however, their activity and use, when taught, greatly repays the trouble of teaching; and perhaps no other animal is more beneficial to his master. The usual way is first to learn them to fetch as dogs are instructed; but as they have not the same docility, so it requires more art and experience to teach them. It is usually performed by accustoming them to take a truss stuffed with wool, of the shape of a fish and made of leather, in their mouths, and to drop it at the word of command; to run after it when thrown forward, and to bring it to their master. From this they proceed to real fish, which are thrown dead into the water, and which they are taught to fetch from thence. From the dead they proceed to the live, until at last the animal is perfectly instructed in the whole art of fishing. An otter thus taught is a very valuable animal, and will catch fish enough to sustain not only itself but a whole family. I have seen one of these go to a gentleman's pond at the word of command, drive up the fish into a corner, and, seizing upon the largest of the whole, bring it off in its mouth to its master.

Otters are to be met with in most parts of the world, and rather differ in size and colour from each other than in habitudes or conformation. In North America and Carolina they are usually found white, inclining to yellow. The Brazilian otter is much larger than ours, with a roundish head, almost like a cat. The tail is shorter, being but five inches long; and the hair is soft, short, and black, except on the head, where it is of a dark brown, with a yellowish spot under the throat.

THE BEAVER.—In all countries, as man is civilised and improved the lower ranks are repressed and degraded. Either reduced to servitude or treated as rebels, all their societies are dissolved, and all their united talents rendered ineffectual. Their feeble arts quickly disappear, and nothing remains but their solitary instincts, or those foreign habitudes which they receive from human education. For this reason there remain no traces of their ancient talents and industry, except in those countries where man himself is a stranger; where, unvisited by his controlling powers for a long succession of ages, their little talents have had time to come to

their limited perfection, and their common designs have been capable of being united.

The beaver seems to be now the only remaining monument of brutal society. From the result of its labours, which are still to be seen in the remote parts of America, we learn how far instinct can be aided by imitation. We from thence perceive to what a degree animals without language or reason can concur for their mutual advantage, and attain by numbers those advantages which each in a state of solitude seems unfitted to possess.

If we examine the beaver merely as an individual, unconnected with others of its kind, we shall find many other quadrupeds to exceed it in cunning, and almost all in the powers of annoyance and defence. The beaver, when taken from its fellows and kept in a state of solitude or domestic tameness, appears to be a mild, gentle creature, familiar enough but somewhat dull, and even melancholy—without any violent passions or vehement appetites, moving but seldom, making no efforts to attain any good, except in gnawing the walls of its prison in order to regain its freedom; yet this, however, without anger or precipitation, but calm and indifferent to all about—without attachment or antipathies, neither seeking to offend nor desiring to please. It appears inferior to the dog in those qualities which render animals of service to man; it seems made neither to serve, to command, nor to have connections with any other set of beings, and is only adapted for living among its kind. Its talents are entirely repressed in solitude, and are only brought out by society. When alone it has but little industry, few tricks, and without cunning sufficient to guard it against the most obvious and bungling snares laid for it by the hunter. Far from attacking any other animal, it is scarce possessed of the arts of defence. Preferring flight to combat, like most wild animals, it only resists when driven to an extremity, and fights only when its speed can no longer avail.

But this animal is rather more remarkable for the singularity of its conformation than any intellectual superiorities it may be supposed in a state of solitude to possess. The beaver is the only creature among quadrupeds that has a flat broad tail covered with scales, which serves as a rudder to direct its motions in the water. It is the sole quadruped that has membranes between the toes on the hind-feet and none on the fore-feet, which supply the place of hands, as in the squirrel. In short, it is the only animal that in its fore-parts entirely resembles a quadruped, and in its hinder parts seems to approach the nature of fishes by having a scaly tail, which, as has been observed, is flat and scaly, somewhat resembling a neat's tongue at the point. Its colour is of a light brown, the hair of two sorts—the one longer and coarser, the other soft, fine, short, and silky. The teeth are like those of a rat or a squirrel, but longer and stronger, and admirably adapted to cutting timber or stripping bark, to which purposes they are constantly applied. One singularity more may be mentioned in its conformation; which is, that, like birds, it has but one and the same vent for the emission of its excrements and its urine—a strange peculiarity, but which anatomists leave us no room to doubt of.

The beavers begin to assemble about the month of June and July, to form a society that is to continue for the greatest part of the year. They arrive in numbers from every side, and generally form a company of above two hundred. The place of meeting is commonly the place where they fix their abode, and this is always by the side of some lake or river. If it be a lake in which the waters are always upon a level, they dispense with building a dam; but if it be a running stream, which is subject to floods and falls, they then set about building a dam or pier that crosses the river, so that it forms a dead-water in that part which lies above and

below. This dam or pier is often eighty or a hundred feet long, and ten or twelve feet thick at the base. If we compare the greatness of the work with the powers of the architect it will appear enormous; but the solidity with which it is built is still more astonishing than its size. The part of the river over which the dam is usually built is where it is most shallow, and where some great tree is found growing by the side of the stream. This they pitch upon as proper for making the principal part in their building; and although it is often thicker than a man's body, they instantly set about cutting it down. For this operation they have no other instrument but their teeth, which soon lay it level, and that also on the side they wish it to fall, which is always across the stream. They then commence cutting off the top branches to make it lie close and even, and serve as the principal beam of their fabric.

This dike or causeway is sometimes ten and sometimes twelve feet thick at the foundation. It descends in a declivity or slope on that side next the water, which gravitates upon the work in proportion to the height, and presses it with a prodigious force towards the earth. The opposite side is erected perpendicular, like our walls; and that declivity, which at the bottom or basis is about twelve feet broad, diminishes towards the top, where it is no more than two feet broad or thereabouts. The materials whereof this mole consists are wood and clay. The beavers cut with surprising ease large pieces of wood, some as thick as one's arm or thigh, and about four, five, or six feet in length, or sometimes more, according as the slope ascends. They drive one end of these slopes into the ground, at a small distance one from the other, intermingling a few with them that are smaller and more pliant. As the water, however, would find a passage through the intervals or spaces between them and leave the reservoir dry, they have recourse to a clay, which they know where to find, and with which they stop up all the cavities both within and without, so that the water is duly confined. They continue to raise the dike in proportion to the elevation of the water and the plenty which they have of it. They are conscious, likewise, that the conveyance of their materials by land would not be so easily accomplished as by water; and therefore they take the advantage of its increase, and swim with their mortar on their tails and their stakes between their teeth to the places where there is most occasion for them. If their works are, either by the force of the water or the feet of the hunters who run over them, in the least broken, the breach is instantly made up; every nook and corner of the habitation is renewed, and with the utmost diligence and application perfectly repaired. But when they find the hunters visit them too often they work only in the night-time, or else abandon their works entirely, and seek out for some safer situation.

The dike or mole being thus completed, their next care is to erect their several apartments, which are either round or oval, and divided into three stories, one raised above the other—the first below the level of the causeway, which is for the most part full of water; the other two above it. This little fabric is built in a very firm and substantial manner on the edge of their reservoir, and always in such divisions or apartments as above-mentioned—that in case of the water's increase they may move up a story higher, and be no ways incommoded. If they find any little island contiguous to their reservoir they fix their mansion there, which is then more solid, and so frequently exposed to the overflowing of the water, in which they are not able to continue for any length of time. In case they cannot pitch upon so commodious a situation they drive piles into the earth, in order to fence and fortify their habitation against the wind as well as the water. They make two apertures at the bottom to the stream; one is a passage to their bagnio, which they always keep neat and clean

—the other leads to that part of the building where everything is conveyed that will either soil or damage their upper apartments. They have a third opening or door-way, much higher, contrived for the prevention of their being shut up and confined when the frost and snow has closed the apertures of the lower floors. Sometimes they build their houses altogether upon dry land; but then they sink trenches five or six feet deep, in order to descend into water when they see convenient. They make use of the same materials, and are equally industrious in the erection of their lodges as their dikes. Their walls are perpendicular, and about two feet thick. As their teeth are more serviceable than saws, they cut off all the wood that projects beyond the wall. After this, when they have mixed up some clay and dry grass together, they work it into a kind of mortar, with which, by the help of their tails, they plaster all their works both within and without.

The inside is vaulted, and is large enough for the reception of eight or ten beavers. In case it rises in an oval figure, it is for the generality above twelve feet long and eight or ten feet broad. If the number of inhabitants increase to fifteen, twenty, or thirty, the edifice is enlarged in proportion. I have been credibly informed that four hundred beavers have been discovered to reside in one large mansion-house, divided into a vast number of apartments which had a free communication one with another.

All these works, more especially in the northern parts, are finished in August, or September at farthest; at which time they begin to lay in their stores. During the summer they are perfect epicures, and regale themselves every day on the choicest fruits and plants the country affords. Their provisions, indeed, in the winter season principally consist of the wood of the birch, the plane, and some few other trees, which they steep in water from time to time in such quantities as are proportioned to the number of inhabitants. They cut down branches from three to ten feet in length. Those of the largest dimensions are conveyed to their magazines by a whole body of beavers, but the smallest by one only; each of them, however, takes a different way, and has his proper walk assigned him, in order that no one labourer should interrupt another in the prosecution of his work. Their wood-yards are larger or smaller in proportion to the number in the family; and, according to the observation of some curious naturalists, the usual stock of timber for the accommodation of ten beavers consists of about thirty feet in a square surface, and ten in depth. These logs are not thrown up in one continued pile, but laid one across the other, with intervals or small spaces between them, in order to take out with greater facility but just such a quantity as they shall want for their immediate consumption, and those parcels only which lie at the bottom in the water and have been duly steeped. This timber is cut again into small particles and conveyed to one of their largest lodges, where the whole family meet to consume their respective dividends, which are made impartially in even and equal portions. Sometimes they traverse the woods, and regale their young with a more novel and elegant entertainment.

Such as are used to hunt these animals know perfectly well that green wood is much more acceptable to them than that which is old and dry; for which reason they plant a considerable quantity of it round their lodgements; and as they come out to partake of it they either catch them in snares or take them by surprise. In the winter, when the frosts are very severe, they sometimes break a large hole in the ice; and when the beavers resort thither for the benefit of a little fresh air, they either kill them with their hatchets or cover them with a large substantial net. After this they undermine and subvert the whole fabric; whereupon the beavers, in hopes to make their escape in the usual way, fly with

the utmost precipitation to the water; and, plunging into the aperture, fall directly into the net and are inevitably taken.

THE SEAL.—Every step we proceed in the description of amphibious quadrupeds we make nearer advances to the tribe of fishes. We first observed the otter with its feet webbed, and formed for an aquatic life; we next saw the beaver with the hinder parts covered with scales, resembling those of fishes; and we now come to a class of animals in which the shape and habitudes of fishes still more apparently prevail, and whose internal conformation attaches them very closely to the water. The seal in general resembles a quadruped in some respects, and a fish in others. The head is round, like that of a man; the nose broad, like that of the otter; the teeth like those of a dog; the eyes large and sparkling; no external ears, but holes that serve for that purpose; the neck is well-proportioned, and of a moderate length; but the body thickest where the neck is joined to it. From thence the animal tapers down to the tail, growing all the way smaller like a fish. The whole body is covered with a thick, bristly, shining hair, which looks as if it were entirely rubbed over with oil; and thus far the quadruped prevails over the aquatic. But it is in the feet that this animal greatly differs from all the rest of the quadruped kind; for though furnished with the same number of bones with other quadrupeds, yet they are so stuck on the body and so covered with a membrane that they more resemble fins than feet, and might be taken for such did not the claws with which they are pointed show their proper analogy. In the fore-feet, or rather hands, all the arm and the cubit are hid under the skin, and nothing appears but the hand from the wrist downwards; so that if we imagine a child with its arms swathed down, and nothing appearing but its hands at each side of the body towards the breast, we may have some idea of the formation of this animal in that part. These hands are covered in a thick skin, which serve like a fin for swimming; and are distinguished by five claws, which are long, black, and piercing. As to the hind-feet, they are stretched out on each side of the short tail, covered with a hairy skin like the former, and both together almost joining at the tail; the whole looks like the broad, flat tail of a fish, and, were it not for five claws which appear, might be considered as such. The dimensions of this animal are various, being found from four feet long to nine. They differ also in their colours—some being black, others spotted, some white, and many more yellow. It would therefore be almost endless to mention the varieties of this animal. Buffon describes three; and Krantz mentions five, all different from those described by the other. I might, were I fond of such honours, claim the merit of being a first describer myself; but in fact, the varieties in this animal are so many, that were they all described the catalogue would be as extensive as it would be useless and unentertaining. It is sufficient to observe that they agree in the general external characters already mentioned, and internally in two or three more, which are so remarkable as to deserve peculiar attention.

It has often been remarked, that all animals are sagacious in proportion to the size of their brain. It has, in support of this opinion, been alleged that man, with respect to his bulk, has of all others the largest. In pursuance of this assumption some erroneous speculations have been formed. But were the size of the brain to determine the quantity of the understanding, the seal would of all other animals be the most sagacious; for it has in proportion the largest brain of any, even man himself not excepted. However, this animal is possessed of but very few advantages over other quadrupeds; and the size of the brain furnishes it with few powers that contribute to its wisdom or its preservation.

This animal differs also in the formation of its tongue from all other quadrupeds. It is forked or slit at the end, like that of serpents; but for what purpose it is thus singularly contrived we are at a loss to know. We are much better informed with respect to a third singularity in its conformation, which is, that the "foramen ovale" in the heart is open. Those who are in the least acquainted with anatomy know that the veins uniting bring their blood to the heart, which sends it into the lungs, and from thence it returns to the heart again to be distributed through the whole body. Animals, however, before they are born make no use of their lungs; and therefore their blood, without entering their lungs, takes a shorter passage through the very partition of the heart from one of its chambers to the other, thus passing from the veins directly into those vessels that drive it through the whole frame. But the moment the animal is brought forth the passage through the partition, which passage is called the "foramen ovale," closes up, and continues closed for ever; for the blood then takes its longest course through the lungs, to return to the other chamber of the heart again. Now the seal's heart resembles that of an infant in the womb, for the "foramen ovale" never closes; and although the blood of this animal commonly circulates through the lungs, yet it can circulate without their assistance, as was observed above, by a shorter way. From hence, therefore, we see the manner in which this animal is adapted for continuing under water; for being under no immediate necessity of breathing, the vital motions are still carried on while it continues at the bottom; so that it can pursue its prey in that element, and yet enjoy all the delight and advantages of ours.

The water is the seal's usual habitation, and whatever fish it can catch its food. Though not equal in instinct and cunning to some terrestrial animals, it is greatly superior to the mute tenants of that element in which it chiefly resides. Although it can continue for several minutes under water, yet it is not able, like fishes, to remain there for any length of time; and a seal may be drowned like any other terrestrial animal. Thus it seems superior in some respects to the inhabitants of both elements, and inferior in many more. Although furnished with legs, it is in some measure deprived of all the advantages of them. They are shut up within its body, while nothing appears but the extremities of them, and these furnished with very little motion but to serve them as fins in the water. The hind-feet, indeed, being turned backwards, are entirely useless upon land; so that when the animal is obliged to move it drags itself forward like a reptile, and with an effort more painful. For this purpose it is obliged to use its fore-feet, which, though very short, serve to give it such a degree of swiftness that a man cannot readily overtake it; and it runs towards the sea. As it is thus awkwardly formed for going upon land, it is seldom found at any distance from the sea-shore, but continues to bask upon the rocks; and when disturbed always plunges down at once to the bottom.

The seal is a social animal, and wherever it frequents numbers are generally seen together. They are found in every climate, but in the north and icy seas they are particularly numerous. It is on those shores—which are less inhabited than ours, and where the fish resort in greater abundance—that they are seen by thousands, like flocks of sheep, basking on the rocks and suckling their young. There they keep watch like other gregarious animals; and, if an enemy appear, instantly plunge altogether into the water. In fine weather they more usually employ their time in fishing, and generally come on shore in tempests and storms. The seal seems the only animal that takes delight in these tremendous conflicts of Nature. In the midst of thunders and torrents, when every other creature takes refuge from the fury of the elements, the seals are seen by thousands

sporting along the shore, and delighted with the universal disorder! This, however, may arise from the sea being too turbulent for them to reside in, and they may then particularly come upon land when unable to resist the shock of their more usual element.

As seals are gregarious, so they are also animals of passage, and perhaps the only quadrupeds that migrate from one part of the world to another. The generality of quadrupeds are contented with their native plains and forests, and seldom stray except when necessity or fear impels them. But seals change their habitation, and are seen in vast multitudes directing their course from one continent to another. On the northern coasts of Greenland they are seen to retire in July, and to return again in September. This time it is supposed they go in pursuit of food. But they make a second departure in March to cast their young, and return in the beginning of June, young and all, in a great body together, observing in their route a certain fixed time and track, like birds of passage. When they go upon this expedition they are seen in great droves, for many days together, making towards the north, taking that part of the sea most free from ice, and going still forward into those seas where man cannot follow. In what manner they return, or by what passage, is utterly unknown; it is only observed, that when they leave the coasts to go upon this expedition they are all extremely fat, but on their return they come home excessively lean.

The females in our climate bring forth in winter, and rear their young upon some sand-bank, rock, or desolate island, at some distance from the continent. When they suckle their young they sit up on their hinder-legs, while these, which are at first white, with woolly hair, cling to the teats, of which there are four in number, near the navel. In this manner the young continue in the place where they are brought forth for twelve or fifteen days; after which the dam brings them down to the water, and accustoms them to swim and get their food by their own industry. As each litter never exceeds above three or four, so the animal's cares are not so much divided, and the education of her little ones is soon completed. In fact, the young are particularly docile; they understand the mother's voice among the numerous bleatings of the rest of the old ones; they mutually assist each other in danger, and are perfectly obedient to her call. Thus early accustomed to subjection, they continue to live in society, hunt and herd together, and have a variety of tones by which they encourage to pursue or warn each other of danger. Some compare their voices to the bleating of a flock of sheep, interrupted now and then by the barking of angry dogs, and sometimes the shriller notes of a cat. All along the shore each has its own peculiar rock, of which it takes possession, and where it sleeps when fatigued with fishing, uninterrupted by any of the rest. The only season when their social spirit seems to forsake them is that when they feel the influences of natural desire. They then fight most desperately; and the male that is victorious keeps all the females to himself. Their combats on these occasions are managed with great obstinacy, and yet great justice; two are never seen to fall upon one; but each has its antagonist, and all fight an equal battle till one alone becomes victorious.

We are not certainly informed how long the females continue pregnant; but if we may judge from the time which intervenes between their departure from the Greenland coasts and their return, they cannot go above seven or eight months at the farthest. How long this animal lives is also unknown; a gentleman, whom I knew in Ireland, kept two of them, which he had taken very young, in his house for ten years; and they appeared to have the marks of age at the time I saw them, for they were grown grey about the muzzle; and it is very probable that they did not live many years longer. In

their natural state the old ones are seen very fat and torpid, separated from the rest, and, as it would seem, incapable of procreation.

As their chief food is fish, so they are very expert at pursuing and catching it. In those places where the herrings are seen in shoals the seals frequent and destroy them by thousands. When the herring retires, the seal is then obliged to hunt after fish that are stronger and more capable of evading the pursuit: however, they are swift in deep waters, dive with great rapidity, and, while the spectator eyes the spot at which they disappear, they are seen to emerge at above a hundred yards distance. The weaker fishes, therefore, have no other means to escape their tyranny but by darting into the shallows. The seal has been seen to pursue a mullet, which is a swift swimmer, and to turn it to and fro in deep water as a hound does a hare on land. The mullet has been seen trying every little art of evasion, and at last swimming into shallow water in hopes of escaping. There, however, the seal followed; so that the little animal had no other way left to escape but to throw itself on one side, by which means it darted into shoaler water than it could have swam in with the belly undermost; and thus at last it got free.

As they are thus the tyrants of the element in which they chiefly reside, so they are not very fearful even upon land, except on those shores which are thickly inhabited, and from whence they have been frequently pursued. Along the desert coasts where they are seldom interrupted by man they seem to be very bold and courageous; if attacked with stones, like dogs, they bite such as are thrown against them; if encountered more closely, they make a desperate resistance, and while they have any life attempt to annoy their enemy. Some have been known, even while they were skinning, to turn round and seize their butchers; but they are generally despatched by a stunning blow on the nose. They usually sleep soundly when not frequently disturbed; and that is the time when the hunters surprise them. The Europeans who go into the Greenland seas upon the whale fishery surround them with nets, and knock them on the head; but the Greenlanders, who are unprovided with so expensive an apparatus, destroy them in a different manner. One of these little men paddles away in his boat, and when he sees a seal asleep on the side of a rock, darts his lance, and that with such unerring aim that it never fails to bury its point in the animal's side. The seal, feeling itself wounded, instantly plunges from the top of the rock, lance and all, into the sea, and attempt to dive to the bottom; but the lance has a bladder tied to one end, which keeps buoyant, and resists the animal's descent; so that every time the seal rises to the top of the water the Greenlander strikes it with his oar, until he at last despatches it. But in our climate the seals are much more wary, and seldom suffer the hunter to come near them. They are often seen upon the rocks of the Cornish coast, basking in the sun, or upon the inaccessible cliffs left dry by the tide. There they continue extremely watchful, and never sleep long without moving—seldom longer than a minute; for then they raise their heads, and if they see no danger they lie down again, raising and reclining their heads alternately at intervals of about a minute each. The only method, therefore, that can be taken is to shoot them; if they chance to escape, they hasten towards the deep, flinging stones and dirt behind them as they scramble along, and at the same time expressing their pain or their fears by the most distressful cry; if they happen to be overtaken, they make a vigorous resistance with their feet and teeth till they are killed.

The seal is taken for the sake of its skin and for the oil its fat yields. The former sells for about four shillings; and, when dressed, is very useful in covering trunks, making waistcoats, shot-pouches, and several other conveniences. The flesh of this animal formerly found

place at the tables of the great. At a feast provided by Archbishop Neville, for Edward the Fourth, there were among other extraordinary rarities twelve seals and porpoises provided.

As a variety of this animal we may mention the "sea-lion," described in Anson's Voyages. This is much larger than any of the former, being from eleven to eighteen feet long. It is so fat that when the skin is taken off the blubber lies a foot thick all round the body. It seems to differ from the ordinary seal, not only in its size but also in its food; for it is often seen to graze along the shore, and to feed upon the long grass that grows up along the edges of brooks. Its cry is various, sometimes resembling the neighing of a horse and sometimes the grunting of the hog. It may be regarded as the largest of the seal family.

THE MORSE.—The morse is an animal of the seal kind, but differing from the rest in a very particular formation of the teeth, having two large tusks growing from the upper jaw, shaped like those of an elephant, but directed downwards, whereas in the elephant they grow upright, like horns; it also wants the cutting teeth both above and below; as to the rest, it pretty much resembles a seal, except that it is much larger, being from twelve to sixteen feet long. The morses are also generally seen to frequent the same places that seals are known to reside in; they have the same habitudes, the same advantages, and the same imperfections. There are, however, fewer varieties of the morse than the seal; and they are rarely found except in the frozen regions near the pole. They were formerly more numerous than at present; and the savage natives of the coasts of Greenland destroyed them in much greater quantities before those seas were visited by European ships upon the whale fishery than now. Whether these animals have been since actually thinned by the fishers, or have removed to some more distant and unfrequented shores, is not known; but certain it is that the Greenlanders, who once had plenty, are now obliged to toil more assiduously for subsistence; and as the quantity of their provisions decrease (for they live mostly upon seals) the numbers of that poor people are every day diminishing. As to the teeth, they are generally from two to three feet long; and the ivory is much more esteemed than that of the elephant, being whiter and harder. The fishers have been known formerly to kill three or four hundred at once; and along those shores where they chiefly frequented their bones are still seen lying in prodigious quantities. In this manner a supply of provisions, which would have supported the Greenland nation for ages, has been in a few years sacrificed to those who did not use them, but who sought them for the purposes of avarice and luxury!

THE MANATI.—We come, in the last place, to an animal that terminates the boundary between quadrupeds and fishes. Instead of a creature preying among the deeps, and retiring upon land for repose and refreshment, we have here an animal that never leaves the water, and is enabled to live only there. It cannot be called a quadruped, as it has but two legs; nor can it be called a fish, as it is covered with hair. In short, it forms the link that unites those two great tribes to each other; and may be indiscriminately called the last of the beasts or the first of the fishes.

We have seen the seal approaching nearly to the aquatic tribes, by having its hind-legs thrown back on each side of the tail, and forming something that resembled the tail of a fish; but upon examining the skeleton of that animal, its title to the rank of a quadruped was observed plainly to appear, having all the bones of the hinder legs and feet as complete as any other animal whatsoever.

But we are now come to a creature that not only wants

the external appearance of hinder legs, but when examined internally, will be found to want them altogether. The manati is somewhat shaped in the head and the body like the seal; it has also the fore-legs or hands pretty much in the same manner—short and webbed, but with four claws only: these also are shorter in proportion than in the former animal, and placed nearer the head; so that they can scarcely assist its motions upon land. But it is in the hinder parts that it chiefly differs from all others of the seal kind; for the tail is perfectly that of a fish, being spread out broad like a fan, and wanting even the vestiges of those bones which make the legs and feet in others of its kind. The largest of these are about twenty-six feet in length; the skin is blackish, very tough and hard—when cut, as black as ebony; and there are a few hairs scattered, like bristles, of about an inch long. The eyes are very small in proportion to the animal's head; and the ear-holes, for it has no external ears, are so narrow as scarce to admit a pin's head. The tongue is so short, that some have pretended it has none at all; and the teeth are composed, only of two solid white bones, running the whole length of both jaws, and formed merely for chewing, and not tearing its vegetable food. The female has breasts placed forward, like those of a woman: and she brings forth but one at a time: this she holds with her paws to her bosom; there it sticks, and accompanies her wherever she goes.

This animal can scarcely be called amphibious, as it never entirely leaves the water, only advancing the head out of the stream to reach the grass on the river sides. Its food is entirely upon vegetables; and therefore it is never found far in the open sea, but chiefly in the large rivers of South America; and often above two thousand miles from the ocean. It is also found in the seas near Kamchatka, and feeds upon the weeds that grow near the shore. There are likewise level greens at the bottom of some of the Indian bays, and there the manatees are harmlessly seen grazing among turtles and other crustaceous fishes, neither giving nor fearing any disturbance. These animals when unmolested keep together in large companies, and surround their young ones. They bring forth most commonly in autumn; and it is supposed they go with young eighteen months, for the time of generation is in spring.

The manati has no voice nor cry, for the only noise it makes is by fetching its breath. Its internal parts somewhat resemble those of a horse—its intestines being longer in proportion than those of any other creature, the horse only excepted.

The fat of the manati, which lies under the skin, when exposed to the sun has a fine smell and taste, and far exceeds the fat of any sea animal; it has this peculiar property, that the heat of the sun will not spoil it nor make it grow rancid; its taste is like the oil of sweet almonds; and it will serve very well in all cases instead of butter: any quantity may be taken inwardly with safety, for it has no other effect than keeping the body open. The fat of the tail is of a harder consistence, and when boiled is more delicate than the former. The lean is like beef, but more red, and may be kept a long while in the hottest days without tainting. It takes up a long time in boiling, and when done eats like beef. The fat of the young one is like pork; the lean is like veal; and, upon the whole, it is very probable that this animal's flesh somewhat resembles that of turtle, since they are fed in the same element, and upon the very same food. The turtle is a delicacy well known among us: our luxuries are not sufficiently heightened to introduce the manati; which, if it could be brought over, might singly suffice for a whole corporation.

OF THE MONKEY, THE ELEPHANT, THE RHINOCEROS, ETC.

BOOK VII.—CHAP. I.

ANIMALS OF THE MONKEY KIND.

Quadrupeds may be considered as a numerous group, terminated on every side by some that but in part deserve the name. On one quarter we see a tribe covered with quills, or furnished with wings, that lift them among the inhabitants of the air; on another, we behold a diversity clothed with scales and shells, to rank with insects; and still, on a third, we see them descending into the waters, to live among the mute tenants of that element. We now come to a numerous tribe, that, leaving the brute creation, seem to make approaches even to humanity; that bear an awkward resemblance of the human form, and discover some faint efforts at intellectual sagacity.

Animals of the monkey class are furnished with hands instead of paws; their ears, eyes, eye-lids, lips, and breasts are like those of mankind; their internal conformation also bears some distant likeness; and the whole offers a picture that may well mortify the pride of such as make their persons alone the principal object of admiration.

These approaches, however, are gradual; and some bear the marks of this our boasted form more strongly than others.

In the ape kind we see the whole external machine strongly impressed with the human likeness, and capable of the same exertions: these walk upright, want a tail, have fleshy posteriors, have calves to their legs, and feet nearly like ours.

In the baboon kind we perceive a more distant approach to the human form—the quadruped mixing in every part of the animal's figure: these generally go upon all-fours, but some, when upright, are as tall as a man; they have short tails, long snouts, and are possessed of brutal fierceness.

The monkey kind are removed a step further: these are much less than the former, with tails as long or longer than their bodies.

Lastly, the maki and opossum kind seem to lose all resemblance of the human figure, except in having hands; their noses are lengthened out like those of quadrupeds, and every part of their bodies totally different from the human; however, as they grasp their food or other objects with one hand, which quadrupeds cannot do, this single similitude gives them an air of sagacity to which they have scarce any other pretensions.

From this slight survey it may easily be seen that one general description will not serve for animals so very different from each other: nevertheless, it would be fatiguing to the last degree, as their varieties are so numerous and their differences so small, to go through a particular description of each. In this case it will be best to give a history of the foremost in each class; at the same time marking the distinctions in every species. By this we shall avoid a tedious repetition of similar characters, and consider the manner and the oddities of this phantastic tribe in general points of view; where we shall perceive how nearly they approach to the human figure, and how little they benefit by the approximation. The foremost of the ape kind is

THE OURAN OUTANG, OR THE WILD MAN OF THE WOODS.—This name seems to have been given to various animals, agreeing in one common character of walking upright, but coming from different countries, and of different proportions and powers. The "troglodyte" of Bontius, the "drill" of Purchas, and the "pigmy" of Tyson, have all received this general name; and have



been ranked by some naturalists under one general description. If we read the accounts of many remote travellers, under this name we are presented with a formidable animal, from six to eight feet high; if we examine the books of such as have described it nearer home, we find it a pigmy not above three feet. In this diversity we must be content to blend their various descriptions into one general account; observing, at the same time, that we have no reason to doubt any of their relations, although we are puzzled which to follow.

The ouran outang, which, of all other animals, most nearly approaches to the human race, is seen of different sizes, from three to seven feet high. In general, however, its stature is less than that of a man; but its strength and agility much greater. Travellers who have seen various kinds of these animals in their native solitudes give us surprising relations of their force, their swiftness, their address, and their ferocity. Naturalists who have observed their form and manners at home have been as much struck with their patient, pliant, imitative disposition—with their appearance and conformation, so nearly human. Of the smallest sort of these animals we have had several at different times brought into this country, all nearly alike; but that observed by Dr. Tyson is the best known, having been described with the greatest exactness.

The animal which was described by that learned physician was brought from Angola, in Africa, where it had been taken in the internal parts of the country, in company with a female of the same kind, that died by the way. The body was covered with hair, of a coal-black colour, more resembling human hair than that of brutes. It bore a still stronger similitude in its different lengths; for in those places where it is longest on the human species, it was also longest in this—as on the head, the upper lip, the chin, and the pubes. The face was like that of a man, the forehead larger, and the head round. The upper and lower jaw were not so prominent as in monkeys, but flat, like those of a man in most respects; and the teeth had more of the human than those of any other creature. The bending of the arms and legs were just the same as in a man; and, in short, the animal at first view presented a figure entirely human.

In order to discover its differences, it was necessary to make a closer survey; and then the imperfections of its form began to appear. The first obvious difference was in the flatness of the nose; the next in the lowness of the forehead, and the wanting the prominence of the chin. The ears were proportionably too large, the eyes too close to each other, and the interval between the nose and mouth too great. The body and limbs differed, in the thighs being too short and the arms too long—in the thumb being too little, and the palm of the hand too narrow. The feet also were rather more like hands than feet; and the animal, if we may judge from the figure, bent too much on its haunches.

When this creature was examined anatomically, a surprising similitude was seen to prevail in its internal conformation. It differed from man in the number of its ribs, having thirteen, whereas in man there are but twelve. The vertebrae of the neck were also shorter, the bones of the pelvis narrower, the orbits of the eyes deeper, the kidneys rounder, the urinary and gall bladders longer and smaller, and the ureters of a different figure. Such were the principal distinctions between the internal parts of this animal and those of man; in almost everything else they were exactly the same, and discovered an astonishing congruity. Indeed, many parts were so much alike in conformation, that it might have excited wonder how they were productive of such few advantages. The tongue and all the organs of the voice were the same, and yet the animal was dumb; the brain was formed in the same manner with that of man, and yet the creature wanted reason—an evident proof (as

Mr. Buffon finely observes) that no disposition of matter will give mind; and that the body, how nicely soever formed, is formed in vain when there is not infused a soul to direct its operations.

Having thus taken a comparative view of this creature with man, what follows may be necessary to complete the general description. This animal was very hairy all behind, from the head downwards; and the hair so thick, that it almost prevented the skin from being seen; but in all parts before the hair was much thinner, the skin everywhere appeared, and in some places it was almost bare. When it went upon all-fours, as it was sometimes seen to do, it appeared all hairy; when it went erect, it appeared before less hairy and more like a man. Its hair, which in this particular animal was black, much more resembled that of men than the fur of brutes; for in the latter, besides their long hair, there is usually a finer and shorter intermixed; but in the ouran outang it was all of a kind—only about the pubes the hair was greyish, seemed longer, and somewhat different; as also on the upper lip and chin, where it was greyish, like the hair of a beard. The face, hands, and soles of the feet were without hair, as was most part of the forehead; but down the sides of the face the hair was thick, and being about an inch and a half long, which exceeded that on any other part of the body. In the palms of the hands those lines were prominent which are so much noticed in palmistry, and at the tips of the fingers those spiral lines observed in man. The palms of the hands were as long as the soles of the feet, and the toes upon these were as long as the fingers; the middle toe was longest of all, and the whole foot differed from that of man. The hinder-feet being thus formed as hands, the animal often used them as such, and, on the contrary, now and then made use of its hands instead of its feet. The breasts appeared small and shrivelled, but exactly like those of a man; the navel also appeared very fair and in exact disposition, being neither harder nor more prominent than what is usually seen in children. Such is the description of this extraordinary creature; to which little has been added by succeeding observers, except that the colour of the hair is often found to vary—in that described by Edwards it was of a reddish brown.

From a picture so like that of the human species, we are naturally led to expect a corresponding mind; and it is certain that such of these animals as have been shown in Europe have discovered a degree of imitation beyond what any quadruped can arrive at.

That of Tyson was a fond, gentle, harmless creature. In its passage to England, those it was acquainted with on ship-board it would embrace with the greatest tenderness, opening their bosoms, and clasping its hands about them. Monkeys of a lower species it held in utter aversion; it would always avoid the place where they were kept in the same vessel, and seemed to consider itself as a creature of higher extraction. After it was taken, and a little habituated to wearing clothes, it grew very fond of them; it would put on a portion without any help, and the rest it would carry in its hands to some of the company for their assistance. It would lie in a bed, place its head on the pillow, and pull the clothes upwards as a man would do.

That which was seen by Edwards, and described by Buffon, showed even a superior degree of sagacity. It walked, like all of its kind, upon two legs, even though it carried burthens. Its air was melancholy and its deportment grave. Unlike the baboon or monkey, whose motions are violent and appetites capricious, who are fond of mischief and obedient only from fear, this animal was slow in its motions, and a look was sufficient to keep it in awe. I have seen it, says Mr. Buffon, give its hand to show the company to the door: I have seen it sit at table, unfold its napkin, wipe its lips, make use of the spoon and the fork to carry the victuals to its mouth, pour out its drink into a glass, touch glasses when

invited, take a cup and saucer and lay them on the table, put in sugar, pour out its tea, leave it to cool before drinking, and all this without any other instigation than the signs or command of its master, and often of its own accord. It was gentle and inoffensive; it even approached strangers with respect, and came rather to receive caresses than to offer injuries. It was particularly fond of sugared comfits, which everybody was ready to give it; and, as it had a deflection upon the breast, so much sugar contributed to increase the disorder and shorten its life. It ate indiscriminately of all things, but it preferred dried and ripe fruits to all other aliments. It would drink wine, but in small quantities, and gladly left it for milk, tea, or any other sweet liquor.

Such these animals appeared when first brought into Europe. However, many of their extraordinary habits were probably the result of education, and we are not told how long the instructions they received for this purpose were continued. But we learn from another account that they take but a very short time to come to a great degree of imitative perfection. M. L. Broese bought two young ones, that were but a year old, from a Negro; at that early age they showed an astonishing power of imitation. They even then sat at the table like men, ate of everything without distinction, made use of their knife, spoon, and fork, both to eat their meat and help themselves. They drank wine and other liquors. When carried on ship-board they had signs for the cabin-boys expressive of their wants; and whenever these neglected attending upon them as they desired they instantly flew into a passion, seized them by the arm, bit them, and kept them down. The male was sea-sick, and required attendance like a human creature; he was even twice bled in the arm; and every time afterwards when he found himself out of order he showed his arm, as desirous of being relieved by bleeding.

Pyrard relates, that in the province of Sierra Leone, in Africa, there is a kind of ape, called Barris, which are strong and muscular, and which, if properly instructed when young, serve as very useful domestics. They usually walk upright; they pound at a mortar; they go to the river to fetch water—this they carry back in a little pitcher on their heads; but if care be not taken to receive the pitcher at their return they let it fall to the ground, and then, seeing it broken, they begin to lament and cry for their loss. Le Comte's account is much to the same purpose, of an ape which he saw in the Strait of Molucca. "It walked upon its two hind-feet, which it bent like a dog that had been taught to dance. It made use of its hands and arms as we do. Its visage was not much more disagreeable than that of a Hottentot; but the body was all covered with a woolly hair of different colours. As to the rest, it cried like a child; all its outward actions were so like the human, and the passions so lively and significant, that dumb men could scarce better express their conceptions and desires. It had also that expression of passion or joy which we often see in children, dancing with its feet, and striking them against the ground to show its spite, or when refused anything it passionately longed for. Although these animals," continues he, "are very big—for that I saw was four feet high—their nimbleness is incredible. It is a pleasure beyond expression to see them run up the tackling of a ship, where they sometimes play as if they had a knack of vaulting peculiar to themselves, or as if they had been paid like our rope-dancers to divert the company. Sometimes suspended by one arm, they poise themselves, and then turn all of a sudden round about a rope with as much quickness as a wheel, or a sling put into motion. Sometimes, holding the rope successively with their long fingers, and letting their whole body fall into the air, they run full speed from one end to the other, and come back again

with the same swiftness. There is no posture but they imitate, nor motion but they perform—bending themselves like a bowl, hanging by the hands, feet, and teeth, according to the different fancies with which their capricious imagination supplies them. But what is still more amazing than all is, their agility to fling themselves from one rope to another, though at thirty, forty, and fifty feet distance."

Such are the habitudes and the powers of the smaller class of these extraordinary creatures; but we are presented with a very different picture in those of a larger stature and more muscular form. The little animals we have been describing, which are seldom found above four feet high, seem to partake of the nature of dwarfs among the human species, being gentle, assiduous, and playful, rather fitted to amuse than terrify. But the gigantic races of the ouran outang seen and described by travellers are truly formidable, and in the gloomy forests, where they are only found, seem to hold undisputed dominion. Many of these are as tall or taller than a man—active, strong, and intrepid, cunning, lascivious, and cruel. This redoubtable rival of mankind is found in many parts of Africa, in the East Indies, Madagascar, and in Borneo. In the last of these places the people of quality course him as we do the stag; and this sort of hunting is one of the favourite amusements of the king himself. This creature is extremely swift of foot, endowed with extraordinary strength, and runs with prodigious celerity. His skin is all hairy, his eyes sunk in his head, his countenance stern, his face tanned, and all his lineaments, though exactly human, harsh and blackened by the sun. In Africa this creature is even still more formidable. Battel calls him the "pongo," and assures us that in all his proportions he resembles a man, except that he is much larger, even to a gigantic state. His face resembles that of a man, the eyes deep sunk in the head, the hair on each side very long, the visage naked and without hair, as also the ears and the hands. The body is lightly covered, and scarcely differing from that of a man, except that there are no calves to the legs. Still, however, the animal is seen to walk on his hinder legs, and in an erect posture. He sleeps under trees, and builds himself a hut, which serves to protect him against the sun and the rains of the tropical climates, of which he is a native. He lives only upon fruits, and is no way carnivorous. He cannot speak, although furnished with greater instinct than any other animal of the brute creation. When the Negroes make a fire in the woods, this animal comes near and warms himself by the blaze. However, he has not skill enough to keep the flame alive by feeding it with fuel. They go together in companies; and if they happen to meet one of the human species remote from succour they show him no mercy. They even attack the elephant, which they beat with their clubs, and oblige to leave that part of the forest which they claim as their own. It is impossible to take any of these dreadful creatures alive, for they are so strong that ten men would not be a match for but one of them. None of this kind, therefore, are taken except when very young, and these but rarely, when the female happens to leave them behind; for in general they keep clung to the breast, and adhere both with legs and arms. From the same traveller we learn, that when one of these animals dies the rest cover the body with a quantity of leaves and branches. They sometimes also show mercy to the human kind. A Negro boy, that was taken by one of these and carried into the woods, continued there a whole year without receiving any injury. From another traveller we learn that these animals often attempt to surprise the female Negroes as they go into the woods, and frequently keep them against their wills for the pleasure of their company, feeding them very plentifully all the time. He assures us that he knew a woman of Loango that had lived among

these animals for three years. They grow from six to seven feet high, and are of unequalled strength. They build sheds, and make use of clubs for their defence. Their faces are broad, their noses flat, their ears without a tip, their skins are more bright than that of a Mulatto, and they are covered on many parts of the body with long and tawny-coloured hair. Their belly is large, their heels flat, and yet rising behind. They sometimes walk upright, and sometimes upon all-fours when they are fantastically disposed.

From this description of the ouran outang, we perceive at what a distance the first animal of the brute creation is placed from the very lowest of the human species. Even in countries peopled with savages this creature is considered as a beast; and in those very places where we might suppose the smallest difference between them and mankind, the inhabitants hold it in the greatest contempt and detestation. In Borneo, where this animal has been said to come to its greatest perfection, the natives hunt it in the same manner as they pursue the elephant or the lion, while its resemblance to the human form procures it neither pity nor protection. The gradations of nature in the other parts of Nature are minute and insensible; in the passage from quadrupeds to fishes we can scarce tell where the quadruped ends and the fish begins; in the descent from beasts to insects we can hardly distinguish the steps of their progression; but in the ascent from brutes to man the line is strongly drawn, well marked, and unpassable. It is in vain that the ouran outang resembles man in form, or imitates many of his actions; he still continues a wretched, helpless creature, pent up in the most gloomy part of the forest, and, with regard to the provision for his own happiness, inferior even to the elephant or beaver in sagacity. To us, indeed, this animal seems much wiser than it really is. As we have long been used to measure the sagacity of all actions by their similitude to our own, and not their fitness to the animal's way of living, we are pleased with the imitations of the ape, even though we know they are far from contributing to the convenience of its situation. An ape or a quadruped, when under the trammels of human education, may be an admirable object for human curiosity, but it is very little advanced by all its learning in the road to its own felicity. On the contrary, I have never seen any of these long-instructed animals that did not by their melancholy air appear sensible of the wretchedness of their situation. Its marks of seeming sagacity were merely relative to us and not to the animal; and all its boasted wisdom was merely of our own making.

There is, in fact, another circumstance relative to this animal which ought not to be concealed. Almost all the travellers who speak of them mention their going sometimes upon all-fours and sometimes erect. As their chief residence is among trees, they are no doubt usually seen erect while they are climbing; but it is more than probable that their efforts to escape upon the ground are by running upon the hands and feet together. Schouten, who mentions their education, tells us that they are taken in traps, and taught in the beginning to walk upon their hind-legs—which certainly implies that in a state of nature they run upon all-fours. Add to this, that when we examine the palms of their hands and the soles of their feet, we find both equally callous and beaten—a certain proof that both have been equally used. In those hot countries where the apes are known to reside, the soles of the Negroes' feet, who go bare-foot, are covered with a skin above an inch thick; while their hands are as soft as those of an European. Did the apes walk in the same manner the same exercise would have furnished them with similar advantages, which is not the case. Besides all this, I have been assured by a very credible traveller that these animals naturally run in the woods upon all-fours; and when they are taken their hands are tied behind them to teach them to walk

upright. This attitude they learn after some time; and, thus instructed, they are sent into Europe to astonish the speculative with their near approaches to humanity, while it is never considered how much is natural, and how much has been acquired in the savage schools of Benin and Angola.

The animal next to these, and to be placed in the same class, is the "ape," properly so called, or the "pithekos" of the ancients. This is much less than the former, being not above a foot and a half high, but walks erect, is without a tail, and is easily tamed.

Of this kind also is the "gibbon," so called by Buffon, or the "long-armed ape," which is an extraordinary and remarkable creature. It is of different sizes, being from two to four feet high. It walks erect, is without a tail, has a face resembling that of a man, with a circle of bushy hair all round the visage; its eyes are large and sunk in its head; its face tanned, and its ears in exact proportion. But that in which it chiefly differs from all others of the monkey tribe is the extraordinary length of its arms, which, when the animal stands erect, are long enough to reach the ground—so that it can walk upon all-fours, and yet keep its erect posture at the same time. This animal, next to the ouran outang and the ape, most nearly resembles mankind, not only in form, but in gentle manners and tractable disposition. It is a native of the East Indies, and particularly found along the coast of Coromandel.

The last of the ape kind is the "cynocephalus," or the "magot" of Buffon. This animal wants a tail, like the former, although there is a small protuberance at that part, which yet is rather formed by the skin than the bone. It differs also in having a large, callous, red rump. The face is prominent, and approaches more to that of quadrupeds than of man. The body is covered with a brownish hair, and yellow on the belly. It is about three feet and a half or four feet high, and is a native of most parts of Africa and the East. As it recedes from man in its form, so also it appears different in its dispositions, being sullen, vicious, and untractable.

THE BABOON.—Descending from the more perfect of the monkey kinds, we come to the baboon and its varieties—a large, fierce, and formidable race, that, mixing the figure of the man and the quadruped in their conformation, seem to possess only the defects of both—the petulance of the one and the ferocity of the other. These animals have a short tail; a prominent face; canine teeth, larger than those of men, and callosities on the rump. In man the physiognomy may deceive, and the figure of the body does not always lead to the qualities of the mind; but in animals we may always judge of their dispositions by their looks, and form a just conjecture of their internal habits by their external form. If we compare the nature of the ape and the baboon by this easy rule, we shall at once be led to pronounce that they greatly differ in their dispositions, and that the latter are infinitely more fierce, savage, and malicious than the former. The ouran outang, which so nearly resembles man in its figure, approaches also nearest in the gentleness of its manners and the pliancy of its temper. The cynocephalus, that of all other apes is most unlike man in form, and approaches nearer to the dog in face, resembles also the brute in nature, being wild, restless, and impelled by a fretful impetuosity. But the baboon, who is still more remote, and resembles man only in having hands—who, from having a tail, a prominent face, and sharp claws, approaches more nearly to the savage tribe—is every way fierce, malicious, ignorant, and untractable.

The "baboon," properly so called, is from three to four feet high, very strong built, with a thick body and limbs, and canine teeth much larger than those of man. It has large callosities behind, which are quite naked and red. Its tail is crooked and thick, and about seven

or eight inches long. Its snout, for it can hardly be called a face, is long and thick, and on each side of its cheeks it has a pouch, into which, when satiated with eating, it puts the remainder of its provisions. It is covered with long, thick hair, of a redish brown colour, and pretty uniform over the whole body. It walks more commonly upon all-fours than upright, and its hands as well as its feet are armed with long sharp claws, instead of the broad round nails of the ape kind.

An animal thus made for strength, and furnished with dangerous weapons, is found, in fact, to be one of the most formidable of the savage race in those countries where it is bred. It appears in its native woods to be impelled by two opposite passions—a hatred for the males of the human species, and a desire for women. Were we to speak of these strange oppositions in its disposition from one testimony alone the account might appear doubtful; but as it comes from a variety of the most credible witnesses we cannot refuse our assent. From them, therefore, we learn, that these animals will often assail women in a body, and force them into the woods, where they keep them against their will, and kill them if they are refractory. From the Chevalier Forbin we learn, that in Siam whole troops of these will often sally forth from their forests and attack a village, when they know the men are engaged in their rice harvest. These, however, as the Chevalier humorously relates, not at all liking either the manners or the figures of the paltry gallants, boldly stand on their defence, and with clubs, or whatever other arms they can provide, instead of answering their caresses oblige their ugly suitors to retreat—not, however, before they have damaged or plundered everything eatable they can lay their hands on.

At the Cape of Good Hope they are less formidable, but, to the best of their power, equally mischievous. They are there under a sort of natural discipline, and go about whatever they undertake with surprising skill and regularity. When they set about robbing an orchard or a vineyard (for they are extremely fond of grapes, apples, and ripe fruit) they do not go singly to work, but in large companies, and with preconcerted deliberation. On these occasions a part of them enter the enclosure, while one is set to watch. The rest stand without the fence, and form a line reaching all the way from their fellows within to their rendezvous without, which is generally in some craggy mountain. Everything being thus disposed, the plunderers within the orchard throw the fruit to those that are without as fast as they can gather it; or, if the wall or hedge be high, to those that sit on the top; and these hand the plunder to those next them on the other side. Thus the fruit is pitched from one to another all along the line, till it is safely deposited at their head-quarters. They catch it as readily as the most skilful tennis-player can catch a ball; and while the business is going forward, which they conduct with great expedition, almost profound silence is observed among them. Their sentinel during the whole time continues upon the watch, extremely anxious and attentive; but if he perceives any one coming he instantly sets up a loud cry, and at this signal the whole company scamper off. Nor yet are they at any time willing to leave the place empty-handed; for if they be plundering a bed of melons, for instance, they go off with one in their mouth, one in their hands, and one under their arm. If the pursuit is hot, they drop that first from under the arm, and then that from their hand; and if it be continued, they at last let fall that which they had hitherto kept in their mouths.

The natives of the Cape often take the young of these animals, and feeding them with sheep and goats' milk, accustom them to guard their houses—which duty they perform with great punctuality. Those, however, that have been brought into Europe are headstrong, rude, and untractable. Dogs and cats, when they have done

anything wrong, will run off, but these seem careless and insensible of the mischief they do; and I have seen one of them break a whole table of china, as it should seem by design, without appearing in the least conscious of having done amiss. It was not, however, in any respect so formidable as that described by Mr. Buffon, of which he gives the following description:—"It was not," says he, "extremely ugly, and yet it excited horror. It continually appeared in a state of savage ferocity, gnashing its teeth, flying at the spectators, and was furiously restless. It was obliged to be confined in an iron cage, the bars of which it so forcibly attempted to break that the spectators were struck with apprehension. It was a sturdy, bold animal, whose short limbs and powerful exertions showed vast strength and agility. The long hair with which it was covered seemed to add to its apparent abilities—which, however, were in reality so great, that it could easily overcome a single man, unless armed. As to the rest, it for ever appeared excited by that passion which renders the mildest animals at intervals furious. Its lasciviousness was constant, and its satisfactions particular. Some others also of the monkey kind showed the same degree of impudence, and particularly in the presence of women; but as they were less in size, their petulance was less obvious and their insolence more easily corrected."

But however violent the desires of these animals may be, they are not found to breed in our climate. The female brings forth usually but one at a time, which she carries in her arms, and in a peculiar manner clinging to her breast. As to the rest, these animals are not at all carnivorous; they principally feed upon fruits, roots, and corn, and generally keep together in companies. The internal parts are more unlike those of man than of quadrupeds, particularly the liver, which is like that of a dog divided into six lobes. The lungs are more divided, the guts in general are shorter, and the kidneys rounder and flatter.

The largest of the baboon kind is the "mandril"—an ugly, disgusting animal, with a tail shorter than the former, though of a much larger stature, being from four to five feet high. The muzzle is still longer than that of the preceding; it is of a bluish colour, and strongly marked with wrinkles, which give it a frightful appearance. But what renders it truly loathsome is, that from the nose there is always seen issuing a liquid, which the animal takes care at intervals to lick off with its tongue and swallow. It is a native of the Gold Coast; it is said to walk more frequently erect than upon all-fours; and when displeased, to weep like a child. There was one of them shown in England some years ago. It seemed tamed but stupid, and had a method of opening its mouth and blowing at such as came too near.

The "wanderow" is a baboon rather less than the former, with the body less compact and muscular, and the hinder parts seemingly more feeble. The tail is from seven to eight inches long; the muzzle is prominent, as in the rest of this kind; but what particularly distinguishes it is a large, long, white head of hair, together with a monstrous white beard, coarse, rough, and descending, the colour of the rest of the body being brown or black. As to the rest, in its savage state it is equally fierce with the others; but with a proper education it seems more tractable than most of its kind, and is chiefly seen in the woods of Ceylon and Malabar.

The "maimon" of Buffon, which Edwards calls the "pigtail," is the last of the baboons, and in size rather approaches the monkey, being no larger than a cat. Its chief distinction, besides its prominent muzzle, like a baboon, is in the tail, which is about five or six inches long, and curled up like that of a hog; from which circumstance, peculiar to this animal, our English naturalist gave it the name. It is a native of Sumatra, and

does not well endure the rigour of our climate. Edwards, however, kept one of them a year in London; and another of them happening at the same time to be exposed in a show of beasts, he brought the two exiles together, to see if they would claim or acknowledge their kindred. The moment they came into each other's presence they testified their mutual satisfaction, and seemed quite transported at the interview.

THE MONKEY.—The varieties in the larger tribes of the monkey kind are but few; in the ape we have seen but four, and in the baboon about as many. But when we come to the smaller class the differences among them seem too tedious for enumeration. These, as was observed in the beginning, are all small in stature, and with long tails, by which they are distinguished from the preceding, which entirely want the tail, or are large and have but a short one. The varieties in the form and colour of dogs or squirrels is nothing to what are found among monkeys of the smaller kind. Bosman mentions above fifty sorts on the Gold Coast alone, and Smith confirms the account. Condamine asserts that it would take up a volume to describe the differences of these to be found along the river Amazons; and we are sure that every one of these is very different from those on the African coast. Naturalists, however, have undertaken to make a catalogue of their numbers; and they either transmit their descriptions from one to another, or only enumerate those few that have found their way to Europe, and have fallen within the narrow circle of their own observation. But though it may be proper enough to describe such as fall under notice, it is certainly wrong to offer a scanty catalogue as complete, and to induce the reader to suppose he sees a picture of the whole group of these animals when he is only presented with a small part of the number. Such, therefore, as are fond of the reputation of adding new descriptions to the stock of natural history have here a wide, though surely a barren, field to enlarge in; and they will find it no difficult matter, by observing the various animals of this kind that are from time to time brought from their native coasts to this country, to indulge in description, and to ring the changes upon all the technical terms with which this most pleasing science is obscured and rendered disgusting. For my own part, I will spare the reader and myself the trouble of entering into an elaborate description of each—content with observing once more, that their numbers are very great and their differences very trifling. There is scarcely a country in the tropical climates that does not swarm with them, and scarce a forest that is not inhabited by a race of monkeys distinct from all others. Every different wood along the coasts of Africa may be considered as a separate colony of monkeys, differing from those of the next district in colour, in size, and malicious mischief. It is indeed remarkable that the monkeys of two cantons are never found to mix with each other, but rigorously to observe a separation; each forest produces only its own; and these guard their limits from the intrusion of all strangers of a different race from themselves. In this they somewhat resemble the human inhabitants of the savage nations, among whom they are found, where the petty kingdoms are numerous, and their manners opposite. There, in the extent of a few miles, the traveller is presented with men speaking different languages, professing different religions, governed by different laws, and only resembling each other in their mutual animosity.

In general, monkeys of all kinds, being less than the baboon, are endued with less powers of doing mischief. Indeed, the ferocity of their nature seems to diminish with their size; and when taken wild in the woods they are sooner tamed, and more easily taught to imitate man than the former. More gentle than the baboon, and less grave and sullen than the ape, they soon begin to

exert all their sportive mimicries, and are easily restrained by correction. But it must be confessed that they will do nothing they are desired without beating; for if their fears be entirely removed they are the most insolent and headstrong animals in nature.

In their native woods they are not less the pests of man than of other animals. The monkeys, says a traveller, are in possession of every forest where they reside, and may be considered as the masters of the place. Neither the tiger, nor the lion itself, will venture to dispute the dominion, since these, from the tops of trees, continually carry on an offensive war, and by their agility escape all possibility of pursuit. Nor have the birds less to fear from their continual predations; for as these harmless inhabitants of the woods usually build upon trees, the monkeys are for ever on the watch to find out and rob their nests; and such is their petulant delight in mischief, that they will fling their eggs against the ground when they want appetite or inclination to devour them.

There is but one animal in all the forest that ventures to oppose the monkey, and that is the serpent. The larger snakes are often seen winding up the trees where the monkeys reside; and, when they happen to surprise them sleeping, swallow them whole before the little animals have time to make a defence. In this manner the two most mischievous kinds in all nature keep the whole forest between them—both equally formidable to each other, and for ever employed in mutual hostilities. The monkeys in general inhabit the top of trees, and the serpents cling to the branches near the bottom; and in this manner they are for ever seen near each other, like enemies in the same field of battle. Some travellers, indeed, have supposed that their vicinity rather argued their mutual friendship, and that they united in this manner to form an offensive league against all the rest of Animated Nature. "I have seen these monkeys," says Lebat, "playing their gambols upon those very branches on which the snakes were reposing, and jumping over them without receiving any injury, although the serpents of that country were naturally vindictive, and always ready to bite whatever disturbed them." These gambols, however, were probably nothing more than the insults of an enemy that was conscious of its own safety; and the monkeys might have provoked the snake in the same manner as we often see sparrows twitter at a cat. However this be, the forest is generally divided between them; and those woods, which Nature seems to have embellished with her richest magnificence, rather inspire terror than delight, and chiefly serve as retreats for mischief and malignity.

The enmity of these animals to mankind is partly ridiculous and partly formidable. They seem (says Le Comte and others) to have a peculiar instinct in discovering their foes; and are perfectly skilled when attacked in mutually defending and assisting each other. When a traveller enters among these woods they consider him as an invader upon their dominions, and all join to repel the intrusion. At first they survey him with a kind of insolent curiosity. They jump from branch to branch, pursue him as he goes along, and make a loud chattering to call the rest of their companions together. They then begin their hostilities by grinning, threatening, and flinging down the withered branches at him, which they break from the trees; they even take their excrements in their hands and throw them at his head. Thus they attend him wherever he goes, jumping from tree to tree with such amazing swiftness, that the eye can scarce attend their motions. Although they take the most desperate leaps, yet they are seldom seen to come to the ground, for they easily fasten upon the branches, which breaks their fall, and stick, either by their hands, feet, or tail, wherever they touch. If one of them happens to be wounded the rest assemble round, and clap their fingers into the wound.

as if they were desirous of sounding its depth. If the blood flows in any quantity some of them keep it shut up, while others get leaves, which they chew, and thrust into the opening: however extraordinary this may appear, it is asserted to be often seen and to be strictly true. In this manner they wage a petulant, unequal war; and are often killed in numbers before they think proper to make a retreat. This they effect with the same precipitation with which they at first came together. In this retreat the young are seen clinging to the back of the female, with which she jumps away, seeming unembarrassed by the burthen.

The curiosity of Europeans has in some measure induced the natives of the places where these animals reside to catch or take them alive by every art they are able. The usual way in such case is to shoot the female as she carries her young, and then both of course tumble to the ground. But even this is not easily performed; for if the animal be not killed outright it will not fall, but, clinging to some branch, continues, even when dead, its former grasp, and remains on the tree where it was shot, until it drops off by putrefaction. In this manner it is totally lost to the pursuer; for to attempt climbing the tree to bring either it or the young one down would probably be fatal, from the number of serpents that are hid among the branches. For this reason the sportsman always takes care to aim at the head; which, if he hits, the monkey falls directly to the ground, and the young one comes down at the same time, clinging to its dead parent.

The Europeans along the coast of Guinea often go into the woods to shoot monkeys; and nothing pleases the Negroes more than to see those animals drop, against which they have the greatest animosity. They consider them, and not without reason, as the most mischievous and tormenting creatures in the world, and are happy to see their numbers reduced upon a double account—as well because they dread their devastations as because they love their flesh. The monkey, which is always skinned before it is eaten, when served up at a Negro feast, looks so much like a child that an European is shocked at the very sight. The natives, however, who are not so nice, devour it as one of the highest delicacies, and assiduously attend our sportsmen to profit by the spoil. But what they are chiefly astonished at is to see our travellers carefully taking the young ones alive, while they leave them the old ones, which are certainly the most fit to be eaten. They cannot comprehend what advantage can arise to us from educating or keeping a little animal that by experience they know to be equally fraught with tricks and mischief: some of them have even been led to suppose that, with a kind of perverse affection, we love only creatures of the most mischievous kinds; and having seen us often buy young and tame monkeys, they have taken equal care to bring rats to our factors, offering them for sale, and greatly disappointed at finding no purchase for so hopeful a commodity.

The Negroes consider these animals as their greatest plague; and, indeed, they do incredible damage, when they come in companies to lay waste a field of Indian corn or rice, or a plantation of sugar-canes. They carry off as much as they are able; and they destroy ten times more than they bear away. Their manner of plundering is pretty much like that of the baboons (already mentioned) in a garden. One of them stands sentinel upon a tree, while the rest are plundering, carefully and cautiously turning on every side, but particularly to that on which there is the greatest danger: in the meantime the rest of the spoilers pursue their work with great silence and assiduity; they are not contented with the first blade of corn or the first cane they happen to lay their hands on: they first pull up such as appear most alluring to the eye—they turn it round, examine, compare it with others, and if they find it to their mind, stick it under one of their shoulders. When in this

manner they have got their load they begin to think of retreating: but if it should happen that the owners of the field appear to interrupt their depredations, their faithful sentinel instantly gives notice, by crying out "Houp, houp, houp," which the rest perfectly understand, and, all at once throwing down the corn they hold in their left hands, scamper off upon three legs, carrying the remainder in the right. If they are still hotly pursued they then are content to throw down their whole burthen, and to take refuge among their woods, on the top of which they remain in perfect security.

Were we to give faith to what some travellers assert of the government, policies, and subordination of these animals, we might perhaps be taxed with credulity; but we have no reason to doubt they are under a kind of discipline, which they exercise among each other. They are generally seen to keep together in companies, to march in exact order, and to obey the voice of some particular chieftain remarkable for his size and gravity. One species of these, which Mr. Buffon calls the "quarine," and which are remarkable for the loudness and the distinctness of their voice, are still more so for the use to which they convert it. "I have frequently been a witness," says Margrave, "of their assemblies and deliberations. Every day, both morning and evening, the quarines assemble in the woods to receive instructions. When all come together, one among the number takes the highest place on a tree, and makes a signal with his hand to the rest to sit round in order to listen. As soon as he sees them placed, he begins his discourse with so loud a voice, and yet in a manner so precipitate, that to hear him at a distance one would think the whole company were crying out at the same time: however, during that time only one is speaking, and all the rest observe the most profound silence. When this has been done he makes a sign with the hand for the rest to reply; and at that instant they raise their voices together, until by another signal of the hand they are enjoined silence. This they as readily obey; till at last the whole assembly breaks up, after hearing a repetition of the same preachment."

The chief food of the monkey tribe is fruits, the buds of trees, or succulent roots or plants. They all, like man, seem fond of sweets, and particularly the pleasant juice of the palm-tree and the sugar-cane. With these the fertile regions in which they are bred seldom fail to supply them; but when it happens that these fail, or that more nourishing food becomes more agreeable, they eat insects and worms; and sometimes, if near the coasts, descend to the sea-shore, where they eat oysters, crabs, and shell-fish. The manner of managing an oyster is extraordinary enough; but it is too well attested to fail of our assent. As the oysters in the tropical climates are generally larger than with us, the monkeys, when they go to the sea-side, pick up a stone and clap it between the opening shells; this prevents them from closing, and the monkey then cuts the fish at his ease. They often also draw crabs from the water, by putting their tail to the hole where that animal takes refuge, and the crab fastening upon it, they withdraw it with a jerk, and thus pull their prey upon shore. This habit of laying traps for other animals makes them very cautious of being trapped themselves; and I am assured by many persons of credit that no snare, how nicely baited soever, will take the monkey of the West Indian islands; for having been accustomed to the cunning of man, it opposes its natural distrust to human artifice.

The monkey generally brings forth one at a time, and sometimes two. They are rarely found to breed when brought over into Europe; but of those that do, they exhibit a very striking picture of parental affection. The male and female are never tired of fondling their young one. They instruct it with no little assiduity; and often severely correct it if stubborn, or disinclined

to profit by their example: they hand it from one to the other; and when the male has done showing his regard the female takes her turn. When wild in the woods, the female, if she happens to have two, carries one on her back and the other in her arms: that on her back clings very closely, clasping its hands round her neck, and its feet about her middle; when she wants to suckle it she then alters her position, and that which has been fed gives place to the other, which she takes in her arms. It often happens that she is unable to leap from one tree to another when thus laden, and upon such occasions their dexterity is very surprising. The whole family form a kind of chain, locking tail in tail or hand in hand, and one of them holding the branch above, the rest swing down, balancing to and fro like a pendulum, until the undermost is enabled to catch hold of the lower branches of some neighbouring tree. When the hold is fixed below, the monkey lets go that which was above, and thus comes undermost in turn; but, creeping up along the chain, attains the next branches, like the rest; and thus they all take possession of the tree without ever coming to the ground.

When in a state of domestic tameness these animals are very amusing, and often fill up a vacant hour when other entertainment is wanting. There are few that are not acquainted with their various mimicries and their capricious feats of activity. But it is generally in company with other animals of a more simple disposition that their tricks and superior instincts are shown; they seem to take a delight in tormenting them; and I have seen one of them amusing itself for hours together in imposing upon the gravity of a cat. Erasmus tells us of a large monkey, kept by Sir Thomas More, that, one day diverting itself in the garden where some tame rabbits were kept, played several of his usual pranks among them, while the rabbits scarce well knew what to make of their new acquaintance: in the meantime, a weasel, that came for very different purposes than those of entertainment, was seen peering about the place in which the rabbits were fed, and endeavouring to make its way by removing a board that closed their butch. While the monkey saw no danger it continued a calm spectator of the enemy's efforts; but just when, by long labour, the weasel had effected its purpose, and had removed the board, the monkey stepped in, and, with the utmost dexterity, fastened it again in its place; and the disappointed weasel was too much fatigued to renew its operations. To this I will only add what Carli, in his *History of Angola*, assures us to be true. In that horrid country, where he went to convert the savage natives to Christianity, and met with nothing but distress and disappointment, while his health was totally impaired by the raging heats of the climate, his patience exhausted by the obstinacy of the stupid natives, and his little provisions daily plundered without redress—in such an exigency he found more faithful services from the monkeys than the men; these he had taught to attend him, to guard him while sleeping against thieves and rats, to comb his head, to fetch his water; and he asserts that they were even more tractable than the human inhabitants of the place. It is indeed remarkable, that in those countries where the men are most barbarous and stupid the brutes are most active and sagacious. It is in the torrid tracts, inhabited by Barbarians, that such various animals are found with instincts so nearly approaching reason. The savages both of Africa and America accordingly suppose monkeys to be men—idle, slothful, rational beings, capable of speech and conversation, but obstinately dumb, for fear of being compelled to labour.

As of all savages those of Africa are the most brutal, so of all countries the monkeys of Africa are the most expert and entertaining. The monkeys of America are in general neither so sagacious nor so tractable, nor is their form so nearly approaching to that of man. The monkeys of the new continent may be very easily distin-

guished from those of the old by three marks. Those of the ancient continent are universally found to have a naked callous substance behind, upon which they sit, which those of America are entirely without; those also of the ancient continent have the nostrils differently formed, more resembling those of men, the holes opening downward, whereas the American monkeys have them opening on each side; those of the ancient world have pouches on each side of the jaw into which they put their provisions, which those of America are without; lastly, none of the monkeys of the ancient continent hang by the tail, which many of the American sorts are known to do. By these marks the monkeys of either continent may be readily distinguished from each other, and prized accordingly. The African monkey, as I am assured, requires a longer education and more correction than that of America; but it is at last found capable of more various powers of imitation, and shows a greater degree of cunning and activity.

Mr. Buffon, who has examined this race of imitative beings with greater accuracy than any other naturalist before him, makes but nine species of monkeys belonging to the ancient continent, and eleven belonging to the new. To all these he gives the names which they go by in their respective countries—which undoubtedly is the method least liable to error, and the most proper for imitation.

Of the monkeys of the ancient continent, the first he describes is the "mocagua," somewhat resembling a baboon in size, strength of body, and a hideous wrinkled visage; it differs, however, in having a very long tail, covered with tufted hair. It is a native of Congo.

The second is the "patas," which is about the same size as the former, but differs in having a larger body and a face less hideous; it is particularly remarkable for the colour of its hair, which is of a red so brilliant, that the animal looks as if it were actually painted. It is usually brought from Senegal, and by some called the "red African monkey."

The third of the ancient continent is the "malbrouk," of which Mr. Buffon supposes the monkey which he calls the "bonet chinois" to be a variety. The one is remarkable for a long tail and long beard; the other, for a cap of hair that covers the crown of the head, from whence it takes the name. Both are natives of the East Indies; and the Brahmins, who extend their charity to all the brute creation, have hospitals for such of them as happen to be sick or otherwise disabled.

The fourth of this kind is the "mangabey." This may be distinguished from all others by its eye-lids, which are naked, and of a striking whiteness. It is a native of Madagascar.

The fifth is the "mona," or the "cephus" of the ancients. It is distinguished by its colour, which is variegated with black and red; its tail is of an ash colour, with two white spots on each side at its insertion. It is a native of the northern parts of Africa.

The sixth is the "callitrix," or "green monkey of St. Iago"—distinguished by its beautiful green colour on the back, its white breast and belly, and its black face.

The seventh is the "moustoc," or "white-nose," distinguished by the whiteness of its lips, from whence it has received its name, the rest of the face being of a deep blue. It is a native of the Gold Coast, and a very beautiful little animal.

The eighth is the "talapoin," and may be distinguished as well by its beautiful variety of green, white, and yellow hair as by that under the eyes, being of a greater length than the rest. It is supposed to be a native of Africa and the East.

The ninth and last of the monkeys of the ancient continent is the "douce," so called in Cochin China, of which country it is a native. The douce seems to unite the characters of all the former together; with a long tail like the monkey, of a size as large as the baboon, and

with a flat face like the ape: it even resembles the American monkeys, in having no callous on its posteriors. Thus it seems to form the shade by which the monkeys of one continent are linked with those of the other.

Next come the monkeys of the new continent, which, as has been said, differ from those of the old in the shape of their nostrils, in their having no callosity upon their posteriors, and in their having no pouches on each side of the jaw. They differ also in each other—a part of them making no use of their tails to hang by; while others of them have the tail very strong and muscular, which serves by way of a fifth hand to hold by. Those with muscular holding tails are called “sapajous;” those with feeble, useless tails are called “sagoina.” Of the sapajous there are five sorts—of the sagoina there are six.

The first of the sapajous is the “warine,” or the “Brazilian guariba.” This monkey is as large as a fox, with long black hair, and remarkable for the loudness of its voice. It is the largest of the monkey kind to be found in America.

The second is the “coaiti,” which may be distinguished from the rest by having no thumb, and therefore but four fingers on each of the fore-paws. The tail, however, supplies the defects of the hand; and with this the animal flings itself from one tree to another with surprising rapidity.

The third is the “saïou,” distinguished from the rest of the sapajous by its yellowish and flesh-coloured face.

The fourth is the “sai.” It is somewhat larger than the saïou, and has a broader muzzle. It is also called the “bewailer,” from its peculiar manner of lamenting when either threatened or beaten.

The fifth and last of the sapajou kind, or monkeys that hold by the tail, is the “saimiri,” or “aurora,” which is the smallest and most beautiful of all. It is a very tender, delicate animal, and held in high price.

Of the sagoina with feeble tails there are six kinds. The first and the largest is the “saki,” or “cagui”—so remarkable for the length of the hair on its tail, that it has been often termed the “fox-tailed monkey.” It is of different sizes, some being twice as large as others.

The second of this kind is the “tamaim,” which is usually black, with feet yellow. Some, however, are found all over brown, spotted with yellow.

The third is the “wististi,” remarkable for the large tufts of hair upon its face, and its annulated tail.

The fourth is the “marikina,” with a mane round the neck and a bunch of hair at the end of the tail like a lion.

The fifth is called the “pinch,” with the face of a beautiful black, and white hair that descends on each side of the face like that of man.

The last, least, and most beautiful of all, is the “mico,” an animal too curiously adorned not to demand a particular description, which is thus given of it by Mr. Condamine:—“That,” says he, “which the Governor of Para made me a present of was the only one of its kind that was seen in the country. The hair on its body was of a beautiful silver colour, brighter than that of the most venerable human hair; while the tail was of a deep brown, inclining to blackness. It had another singularity more remarkable than the former; its ears, its cheeks, and lips were tintured with so bright a vermilion, that one could scarce be led to suppose that it was natural. I kept it a year; and it was still alive when I made this description of it, almost within sight of the coasts of France: all I could then do was to preserve it in spirits of wine, which might serve to keep it in such a state as to show that I did not in the least exaggerate in my description.”

OF THE MAKI.—The last of the monkey kind are the makies, which have no other pretensions to be placed in this class except that of having hands like the former,

and making use of them to climb trees or to pluck their food. Animals of the hare kind, indeed, are often seen to feed themselves with their fore-paws; but they can hold nothing in one of them singly, and are obliged to take up whatever they eat in both at once. But it is otherwise with the maki; as well as the monkey kinds, they seize their food with one hand pretty much like a man, and grasp it with great ease and firmness. The maki, therefore, from this conformation in its hands both before and behind, approaches nearly to the monkey kind; but in other respects, such as the make of the snout, the form of the ears, and the parts that distinguish the sexes, it entirely differs from them. There are many different kinds of these animals—all varying from each other in colour and size, but agreeing in the human-like figure of their hands and feet, and in their long nose, which somewhat resembles that of a dog. As most of these are bred in the depths of the forest, we know little more concerning them than their figure. Their way of living and their power of pursuit and escape can only be supposed, from the analogy of their conformation, somewhat to resemble those of the monkey.

The first of this kind is the “mocooco”—a beautiful animal, about the size of a common cat, but the body and limbs slenderer, and of a longer make. It has a very long tail, at least double the length of its body; it is covered with fur, and marked alternately with broad rings of black and white. But what it is chiefly remarkable for, besides the form of its hands and feet, is the largeness of its eyes, which are surrounded with a broad, black space; and the length of the hinder legs, which by far exceed those before. When it sleeps, it brings its nose to its belly and its tail over its head. When it plays, it uses a sort of galloping, with its tail raised over its back, which keeps continually in motion. The head is covered with dark ash-coloured hair—the back and sides with a red ash-colour, and not so dark as on the head, the whole being glossy, soft, and delicate, smooth to the touch, and standing almost upright like the pile of velvet. It is a native of Madagascar, and appears to be a harmless, gentle animal; and though it resembles the monkey in many respects, yet it has neither its malice nor its mischief: nevertheless, like the monkey it seems to be always in motion, and moves like all four-handed animals in an oblique direction.

A second of this kind, which is also a native of Madagascar, is the “mongooz,” which is less than the former, with a soft, glossy robe, but a little curled. The nose is also thicker than that of the mocooco; the eyes are black, with orange-coloured circles round the pupil; and the tail is of one uniform colour. As to the rest, it is found of various colours, some being black, others brown; and its actions somewhat resemble those of a monkey.

The “vari” is much larger than either of the former; its hair is much longer, and it has a kind of ruff round the neck, consisting of very long hair, by which it may be easily distinguished from the rest. It differs also in its disposition, which is fierce and savage; as also in the loudness of its voice, which somewhat resembles the roaring of the lion. This also is a native of Madagascar.

To this tribe we may refer a little four-handed animal, of the island of Ceylon, which Mr. Buffon calls the “lori,” very remarkable for the singularity of its figure. This is of all other animals the longest in proportion to its size, having nine vertebrae in the loins, whereas other quadrupeds have only seven. The body appears still longer by having no tail. In other respects it resembles those of the maki kind, as well in its hands and feet as in its snout, and in the glossy qualities of its hair. It is about the size of a squirrel, and appears to be a tame, harmless little animal.

OF THE OPOSSUM AND ITS KINDS.—To those four-handed animals of the ancient continent we may add the four-handed animals of the new, which use their hands like the former as well as their tails, and which fill up the chasm between the monkey tribe and the lower orders of the forest. As the maki kind in some measure seem to unite the fox and the monkey in their figure and size, so these seem to unite the monkey and the rat. They are all less than the former: they have long tails, almost bare of hair; and their fur as well as their shape seem to place them near the rat kind. Some have accordingly ranked them in that class; but their being four-handed is a sufficient reason for placing them in the rear of the monkeys.

The first and the most remarkable of this tribe is the "opossum," an animal found both in North and South America, of the size of a small cat. The head resembles that of a fox; it has fifty teeth in all, but two great ones in the midst like those of a rat. The eyes are little, round, clear, lively, and placed upright; the ears are long, broad, and transparent, like those of the rat kind; its tail also increases the similitude, being round, long, a little hairy in the beginning, but quite naked towards the end. The fore-legs are short, being about three inches long, while those behind are about four. The feet are like hands, each having five toes or fingers, with white, crooked nails, and rather longer behind than before. But it is particular in this animal that the thumb on the hinder-legs wants a nail, whereas the fingers are furnished with clawed nails as usual.

But that which distinguishes this animal from all others, and what has excited the wonder of mankind for more than two centuries, is the extraordinary conformation of its belly, as it is found to have a false womb, into which the young, when brought forth in the usual manner, creep, and continue for some days longer to lodge and suckle securely. This bag, if we may so call it, being one of the most extraordinary things in natural history, requires a more minute description. Under the belly of the female is a kind of slit or opening of about three inches long; this opening is composed of a skin, which makes a bag internally, and which is covered on the inside with hair; in this bag are the teats of the female, and into it the young when brought forth retire, either to suckle or to escape from danger. This bag has a power of opening and shutting at the will of the animal; and this is performed by means of several muscles and two bones, which are fitted for this purpose, and which are peculiar to this animal only. These two bones are placed before the "os pubis," to which they are joined at the base; they are about two inches long, and grow smaller and smaller to their extremities. These support the muscles that serve to open the bag, and give them a fixture. To these muscles there are antagonists, that serve in the same manner to shut the bag; and this they perform so exactly, that in the living animal the opening can scarce be discerned, except when the sides are forcibly drawn asunder. The inside of this bag is furnished with glands, that exude a musky substance, which communicates to the flesh of the animal and renders it unfit to be eaten. It is not to be supposed that this is the place where the young are conceived, as some have been led to imagine; for the opossum has another womb, like that of the generality of animals, in which generation is performed in the ordinary manner. The bag we have been describing may rather be considered as a supplementary womb. In the real womb the little animal is partly brought to perfection; in the ordinary one, it receives a kind of additional incubation, and acquires at last strength enough to follow the dam wherever she goes. We have many reasons to suppose that the young of this animal are all brought forth prematurely, or before they have acquired that degree of perfection which is common in other quadrupeds. The little ones when

first produced are in a manner but half completed, and some travellers assert that they are at that time not much larger than flies. We are assured, also, that immediately on quitting the real womb they creep into the false one, where they continue fixed to the teat, until they have strength sufficient to venture once more into the open air, and share the fatigues of the parent. Ulloa assures us that he has found five of these little creatures hidden in the belly of the dam three days after she was dead, still alive, and all clinging to the teat with great avidity. It is probable, therefore, that upon their first entering the false womb they seldom stir out from thence; but when more advanced they venture forth several times in the day, and, at last, seldom make use of their retreat except in cases of necessity or danger. Travellers are not agreed in their accounts of the time which these animals take to continue in the false womb; some assure us they remain there for several weeks; and others, more precisely, mention a month. During this period of strange gestation there is no difficulty in opening the bag in which they are concealed; they may be reckoned, examined, and handled without much inconvenience; for they keep fixed to the teat, and cling there as firmly as if they made a part of the body of the animal that bears them. When they are grown stronger they drop from the teat into the bag in which they are contained; and at last find their way out in search of more copious subsistence. Still, however, the false belly serves them for a retreat, either when they want to sleep or to suckle, or when they are pursued by an enemy. The dam on such occasions opens her bag to receive them, which they enter.

The opossum when on the ground is a slow, helpless animal; the formation of its hands are alone sufficient to show its incapacity for running with any degree of swiftness; but to counterbalance this inconvenience it climbs trees with great ease and expedition. It chiefly subsists upon birds, and hides among the leaves of the trees to seize them by surprise. It often also hangs by the tail, which is long and muscular; and in this situation, for hours together, with the head downwards, it keeps watching for its prey. If any lesser animal which it is able to overcome passes underneath, it drops upon it with deadly aim, and quickly devours it. By means of its tail the opossum also flings from one tree to another, hunts insects, escapes its pursuers, and provides for its safety. It seems to be a creature that lives upon vegetables, as well as animal substances, roots, sugar-canes, the bark, and even the leaves, of trees. It is easily tamed, but it is a disagreeable domestic, as well from its stupidity and figure as its scent, which, however fragrant in small quantities, fails not to be ungrateful when copiously supplied.

An animal greatly resembling the former is the "marmose," which is found in the same continent. It seems only to differ in size, being less; and, instead of a bag to receive its young, has only two longitudinal folds near the thighs, within which the young, which are prematurely brought forth, as in the last instance, continue to suckle. The young of these when first produced are not above the size of a bean, but continue sticking to the teat until they have arrived at greater maturity.

The "cayopolin" is somewhat larger than the former, and a good deal resembling it in habits and figure, except that its snout is more pointed, its tail is longer in proportion, and its colour is different, being of an ash, somewhat inclining to yellow; however, I should suppose it to be only a variety of the former.

To this number we may add the "phalanger," so called by Mr. Buffon—a good deal resembling the former, but distinguished by the fashion of its hinder hands, the thumb and fore-finger being joined together except at the extremities. This animal is about the size of a rat, and has been called the "rat of Surinam."

The last animal of this class is called by Mr. Buffon the "tarsier." This extraordinary little animal resembles the former in having four hands and a long tail; but it differs very much in the extreme length of its hinder legs, which are longer than the rest of its whole body. The bones of that part of the foot called the "tarsus" are likewise so very long, that from thence the animal has received its name: the tail is naked in the middle, and hairy only at both extremities; its hair is woolly, soft, and of a deep ash-colour. As to the rest, it is unknown from what country this animal was brought; but the naturalist from whom we have this description supposes it to be a native of America.

From this general description of four-handed animals, we perceive what few advantages the brute creation derive from those organs which, in man, are employed to so many great and useful purposes. The being able to pluck the food from the trees, the capacity of clinging among the branches, or at most of converting one of those branches into a weapon of defence, are the highest stretches of their sagacity, and the only use their hands have hitherto been employed in; and yet, some superficial men have asserted that the hands alone are sufficient to vindicate the dominion of mankind over other animals; and that much of his boasted reason is nothing more than the result of his happier conformation: however, were this so, an ape or a monkey would in some instances be more rational than we; their fingers are smaller, and, in some of them, more finely formed than ours. To what a variety of purposes might they not be employed if their powers were properly exerted! Those works which we from the largeness of our fingers are obliged to go clumsily about, one of these could very easily perform with the utmost exactness; and if the fineness of the hand assisted reason, an ape would be one of the most reasonable beings in the creation. But these admirably-formed machines are almost useless both to mankind and themselves, and contribute little more to the happiness of animal life than the paws of the lowest quadruped. They are supplied, indeed, with the organs; but they want the mind to put them into action: it is that reasoning principle alone with which man has been endowed, that can adapt seemingly opposite causes to concur in the great general design, and, even where the organs are deficient, that can supply their place by the intervention of assisting instruments. Where reason prevails, we find that it scarcely matters what the organs are that give it the direction; the being furnished with that principle still goes forward steadily, and uniformly successful—breaks through every obstacle, and becomes master of every enterprise. I have seen a man without hands or legs convert, by practice, his very stumps to the most convenient purposes, and with these clumsy instruments perform the most astonishing feats of dexterity. We may therefore conclude that it is the mind alone that gives a master to the creation; and that, if a bear or a horse were endowed with the same intellects that have been given to man, the hardness of a hoof or the awkwardness of a paw would be no obstacle to their advancement in the arts of dominion or of social felicity.

CHAP. II.

OF THE ELEPHANT.

Having gone through the description of those quadrupeds that, by resembling each other in some striking particular, admit of being grouped together and considered under one point of view, we now come to those insulated sorts that bear no similitude with the rest, and that to be distinctly described must be separately considered.

The foremost of these, and in every respect the

noblest in Nature, is the elephant—not less remarkable for its size than its docility and undersanding. All historians concur in giving it the character of the most sagacious animal next to man; and yet, were we to take our idea of its capacity from its outward appearance, we should be led to conceive very meanly of his abilities. The elephant at first view presents the spectator with an enormous mass of flesh that seems scarcely animated. Its huge body, covered with a callous hide without hair—its large mis-shapen legs, that seemed scarcely formed for motion—its little eyes, large ears, and long trunk—all give it an air of extreme stupidity. But our prejudices will soon subside when we come to examine its history; they will even serve to increase our surprise when we consider the various advantages it derives from so clumsy a conformation.

The elephant is seen from seven to no less than fifteen feet high. Whatever care we take to imagine a large animal before-hand, yet the first sight of this huge creature never fails to strike us with astonishment, and in some measure to exceed our idea. Having been used to smaller animals, we have scarce any conception of its magnitude; for a moving column of flesh fourteen feet high is an object so utterly different from those we are constantly presented with, that to be conceived it must be actually seen. Such, I own, were the suggestions that naturally arose to me when I first saw this animal, and yet for the sight of which I had taken care to prepare my imagination. I found my ideas fall as short of its real size as it did of its real figure—neither the pictures I had seen nor the descriptions I had read giving me adequate conceptions of either.

It would therefore be impossible to give an idea of this animal's figure by a description—which, even assisted by the art of the engraver, will but confusedly represent the original. In general it may be observed that the forehead is very high and rising, the ears very large and dependent, the eyes extremely small, the proboscis or trunk long, the body round and full, the back rising in an arch, and the whole animal short in proportion to its height. The feet are round at the bottom; on each foot there are five flat horny risings, which seem to be the extremities of the toes, but do not appear outwardly. The hide is without hair, full of scratches and scars, which it receives in its passage through thick woods and thorny places. At the end of the tail there is a tuft of hair a foot and a half long. The female is less than the male, and the udder is between the fore-legs. But a more accurate, as well as a more entertaining, description of the parts will naturally occur in the history of their uses.

Of all quadrupeds the elephant is the strongest as well as the largest; and yet in a state of nature it is neither fierce nor formidable. Mild, peaceful, and brave, it never abuses its power or its strength, and only uses its force for its own protection or that of its community. In its native deserts the elephant is seldom seen alone, but appears to be a social, friendly creature. The oldest of the company conducts the band—that which is next seniority brings up the rear. The young, the weak, and the sickly fall into the centre; while the females carry their young, and keep them from falling by means of their trunks. They maintain this order only in dangerous marches, or when they desire to feed in cultivated grounds; they move with less precaution in the forest and solitudes, but without ever separating, or removing so far asunder as to be incapable of lending each other any requisite assistance. Nothing can be more formidable than a drove of elephants as they appear at a distance in an African landscape; wherever they march the forests seem to fall before them; in their passage they bear down the branches upon which they feed; and if they enter into an enclosure they destroy all the labours of the husbandman in a very short time. Their invasions are the more disagreeable as

there is no means of repelling them; since it would require a small army to attack the whole drove when united. It now and then happens that one or two are found lingering behind the rest, and it is against these that the art and force of the hunters are united; but an attempt to molest the whole body would certainly be fatal. They go forward directly against him who offers the insult, strike him with their tusks, seize him with their trunks, fling him into the air, and then trample him to pieces under their feet. But they are thus dreadful only when offended, and do no manner of personal injury when suffered to feed without interruption. It is even said that they are mindful of injuries received; and, when once molested by man, seek all occasions for the future to be revenged; they smell him with their long trunks at a distance, follow him with all their speed upon the scent, and, though slow to appearance, they are soon able to come up with and destroy him.

In their natural state they delight to live along the sides of rivers, to keep in the deepest vales, and to refresh themselves in the most shady forests and watery places. They cannot live far from the water; and they always disturb it before they drink. The often fill their trunk with it, either to cool that organ or to divert themselves by spouting it out like a fountain. They are equally distressed by the extremes of heat and cold; and, to avoid the former, they frequently take shelter in the most obscure recesses of the forest, or often plunge into the water, and even swim from the continent to islands some leagues distant from the shore.

Their chief food is of the vegetable kind, for they loath all kind of animal diet. When one among their number happens to light upon a spot of good pasture he calls the rest, and invites them to share in the entertainment; but it must be a very copious pasture indeed that can supply the necessities of the whole band. As with their broad and heavy feet they sink deep wherever they go, they destroy much more than they devour; so that they are frequently obliged to change their quarters, and to migrate from one country to another. The Indians and Negroes, who are often incommoded by such visitants, do all they can to keep them away, making loud noises, and large fires round their cultivated grounds; but these precautions do not always succeed; the elephants often break through their fences, destroy their whole harvest, and overturn their little habitations. When they have satisfied themselves, and trod down or devoured whatever lay in their way, they retreat in the same orderly manner in which they made their irruption.

Such are the habits of this animal considered in a social light; and, if we regard it as an individual, we shall find its powers still more extraordinary. With a very awkward appearance, it possesses all the senses in great perfection, and is capable of applying them to more useful purposes than any other quadruped. The elephant, as we observed, has very small eyes, when compared to the enormous bulk of its body. But though their minuteness may at first sight appear deformed, yet, when we come to examine them, they are seen to exhibit a variety of expression, and to discover the various sensations with which it is moved. It turns them with attention and friendship to its master; it seems to reflect and deliberate; and as its passions slowly succeed each other their various workings are distinctly seen.

The elephant is not less remarkable for the excellence of its hearing. Its ears are extremely large, and greater in proportion than even those of an ass. They are usually dependent; but it can readily raise and move them. They serve also to wipe its eyes, and to protect them against the dust and flies that might otherwise incommode them. It appears delighted with music, and very readily learns to beat time, to move in measure, and even to join its voice to the sound of the drum and the trumpet.

This animal's sense of smelling is not only exquisite, but it is in a great measure pleased with the same odours that delight mankind. The elephant gathers flowers with great pleasure and attention; it picks them up one by one, unites them into a nosegay, and seems charmed with the perfume. The orange-flower seems to be particularly grateful both to its sense of taste and smelling; it strips the tree of all its verdure, and eats every part of it, even to the branches themselves. It seeks in the meadows the most odoriferous plants to feed upon; and in the woods it prefers the cocoa, the banana, the palm, and the sago-tree to all others. As the shoots of all these are tender and filled with pith, it eats not only the leaves and the fruits, but even the branches, the trunk, and the whole plant to the very roots.

But it is in the sense of touch that this animal excels all others of the brute creation, and perhaps even man himself. The organ of this sense lies wholly in the trunk, which is an instrument peculiar to this animal, and which serves it for all the purposes of a hand. The trunk is, properly speaking, only the snout lengthened out to a great extent, hollow like a pipe, and ending in two openings, or nostrils, like those of a hog. An elephant of fourteen feet high has the trunk about eight feet long, and five feet and a half in circumference at the mouth, where it is thickest. It is hollow all along, but with a partition running from one end of it to the other; so that though outwardly it appears like a single pipe, it is inwardly divided into two. This fleshy tube is composed of nerves and muscles, covered with a proper skin of a blackish colour, like that of the rest of the body. It is capable of being moved in every direction, of being lengthened and shortened, of being bent or straightened, so pliant as to embrace any body it is applied to, and yet so strong that nothing can be torn from the gripe. To aid the force of this grasp there are several little eminences, like a caterpillar's feet, on the underside of this instrument, which without doubt contribute to the sensibility of the touch as well as to the firmness of the hold. Through this trunk the animal breathes, drinks, and smells as through a tube; and at the very point of it, just above the nostrils, there is an extension of the skin, about five inches long, in the form of a finger, and which, in fact, answers all the purposes of one; for with the rest of the extremity of the trunk it is capable of assuming different forms at will, and consequently of being adapted to the minutest objects. By means of this the elephant can take a pin from the ground, untie the knots of a rope, unlock a door, and even write with a pen. "I have myself seen," says Aelian, "an elephant writing Latin characters on a board in a very orderly manner, his keeper only showing him the figure of each letter. While thus employed, the eyes might be observed studiously cast down upon the writing, and exhibiting an appearance of great skill and erudition." It sometimes happens the object is too large for the trunk to grasp; in such a case the elephant makes use of another expedient, as admirable as any of the former. It applies the extremity of the trunk to the surface of the object, and, sucking up its breath, lifts and sustains such a weight as the air in that case is capable of keeping suspended. In such manner this instrument is useful in most of the purposes of life; it is an organ of smelling, of touching, and of suction; it not only provides for the animal's necessities and comforts, but it also serves for its ornament and defence.

But though the elephant be thus admirably supplied by its trunk, yet, with respect to the rest of its conformation, it is unwieldy and helpless. The neck is so short that it can scarce turn its head, and must wheel round in order to discover an enemy from behind. The hunters who attack it on that quarter generally thus escape the effects of its indignation, and find time to renew their assaults while the elephant is turning to

face them. The legs are, indeed, not so inflexible as the neck, yet they are very stiff, and bend not without difficulty. Those before seem longer than the hinder, but upon being measured are found to be something shorter. The joints by which they bend are nearly in the middle, like the knee of a man; and the great bulk which they are to support makes their flexure ungainly. While the elephant is young, it bends the legs to lie down or to rise; but when it grows old or sickly, this is not performed without human assistance; and it becomes, consequently, so inconvenient, that the animal chooses to sleep standing. The feet upon which these massy columns are supported form a base scarce broader than the legs they sustain. They are divided into five toes, which are covered beneath the skin, and none of which appear to the eye; a kind of protuberance like claws are only observed, which vary in number from three to five. The apparent claws vary—the internal toes are constantly the same. The sole of the foot is furnished with a skin as thick and hard as horn, and which completely covers the whole under-part of the foot.

To the rest of the elephant's incumbrances may be added its enormous tusks, which are unserviceable for chewing, and are only weapons of defence. These, as the animal grows old, become so heavy, that it is sometimes obliged to make holes in the walls of its stall to rest them in, and ease itself in the fatigue of their support. It is well known to what an amazing size these tusks grow; they are two in number, proceeding from the upper-jaw, and are sometimes found above six feet long. Some have supposed them to be rather the horns than the teeth of this animal; but, besides their greater similitude to bone than to horn, they have been indisputably found to grow from the upper-jaw, and not from the frontal bones, as some have thought proper to assert. Some, also, have asserted that these tusks are shed in the same manner as the stag sheds its horns; but it is very probable, from their solid consistence and from their accidental defects, which often appear to be the effect of a slow decay, that they are fixed as the teeth of other animals are generally found to be. Certain it is that the elephant never sheds them in a domestic state, but keeps them until they become inconvenient and cumbersome to the last degree. An account of the uses to which these teeth are applied, belongs rather to a history of the arts than of Nature.

This animal is equally singular in other parts of its conformation; the lips and the tongue in other creatures serve to suck up and direct their drink or their food; but in the elephant they are totally inconvenient for such purposes; and it not only gathers its food with its trunk, but supplies itself with water by the same means. When it eats hay, as I have seen it frequently, it takes up a small wisp of it with the trunk, turns and shapes it with that instrument for some time, and then directs it into the mouth, where it is chewed by the great grinding teeth, which are large in proportion to the bulk of the animal. This packet when chewed is swallowed, and never ruminated again as in cows or sheep, the stomach and intestines of this creature more resembling those of a horse. Its manner of drinking is equally extraordinary. For this purpose, the elephant dips the end of its trunk into the water, and sucks up just as much as fills that great fleshy tube completely. It then lifts up its head with the trunk full, and turning the point into its mouth, as if it intended to swallow trunk and all, it drives the point below the opening of the wind-pipe. The trunk being in this position and still full of water, the elephant then blows strongly into it at the other end, which forces the water it contains into the throat, where it is heard to pour with a loud gurgling noise, which continues until the whole is blown down. In this manner of drinking, some have been led into the opinion that the young elephant sucks with its trunk and not with its mouth; this, however, is a fact

which no traveller has hitherto had an opportunity of seeing, and it must be referred to some future accident to determine.

The hide of the elephant is as remarkable as any other part. It is not covered over with hair as in the generality of quadrupeds, but is nearly bare. Here and there, indeed, a few bristles are seen growing in the scars and wrinkles of the body, and very thinly scattered over the rest of the skin; but in general the head is dry, rough, and wrinkled, and resembling more the bark of an old tree than the skin of an animal. This grows thicker every year; and by a constant addition of substance, it at length contracts that disorder well known by the name of the elephantiasis, or Arabian leprosy—a disease to which man as well as the elephant is often subject. In order to prevent this the Indians rub the elephant with oil, and frequently bathe it to preserve its pliancy. To the inconveniences of this disorder is added another, arising from the great sensibility of those parts that are not callous. Upon these the flies settle in great abundance, and torment this animal unceasingly; to remedy which the elephant tries all its arts—uses not only its tail and its trunk in the natural manner to keep them off, but even takes the branch of a tree or a bundle of hay to strike them off with. When this fails, it often gathers up the dust with its trunk, and thus covers all the sensible places. In this manner it has been seen to dust itself several times a day, particularly upon leaving the bath.

Water is as necessary to this animal as food itself. When in a state of nature the elephant rarely quits the banks of the river, and often stands in water up to the belly. In a state of servitude the Indians take equal care to provide a good and proper supply; they wash it with great address; they give it all the conveniences for lending assistance to itself; they smooth the skin with pumice-stone, and then rub it over with oil, essences, and odours.

It is not to be wondered at that an animal furnished with so many various advantages, both of strength, sagacity, and obedience, should be taken into the service of man. We accordingly find that the elephant from time immemorial has been employed either for the purposes of labour, of war, or of ostentation, to increase the grandeur of eastern princes or to extend their dominions. We have hitherto been describing this animal in its natural state; we now come to consider it in a different view, as taken from the forest and reduced to human obedience. We are now to behold this brave, harmless creature as learning a lesson from mankind, and instructed by him in all the arts of war, massacre, and devastation. We are now to behold this half-reasoning animal led into the field of battle, and wondering at those tumults and that madness which he is compelled to increase. The elephant is a native of Africa and Asia, being found neither in Europe nor America. In Africa he still retains his natural liberty. The savage inhabitants of that part of the world, instead of attempting to subdue this powerful creature to their necessities, are happy in being able to protect themselves from his fury. Formerly, indeed, during the splendour of the Carthaginian empire, elephants were used in their wars; but this was only a transitory gleam of human power in that part of the globe—the natives of Africa have long since degenerated, and the elephant is only known among them from his devastations. However, there are no elephants in the northern parts of Africa at present, there being none found on this side of Mount Atlas. It is beyond the river Senegal that they are to be met with in great numbers, and so down to the Cape of Good Hope, as well as in the heart of the country. In this extensive region they appear to be more numerous than in any other part of the world. They are there less fearful of man; less retired into the heart of the forests, they seem to be sensible of his importance and

ignorance, and often come down to ravage his little labours. They treat him with the same haughty disdain which they show to other animals, and consider him as a mischievous little being that fears to oppose them openly.

But although these animals are most plentiful in Africa, it is only in Asia that the greatest elephants are found, and rendered subservient to human command. In Africa the largest do not exceed ten feet high; in Asia they are found from ten to fifteen. Their price increases according to their size: and when they exceed a certain bulk, their value then rises, like jewels, as the fancy is pleased to estimate.

The largest are entirely kept for the use of princes, and are maintained with great magnificence and at an enormous expense. The usual colour of the elephant is a dusky black; but some are said to be white, and the price of one of these is said to be inestimable. Such an one is peculiarly appropriated for the monarch's own riding; he is kept in a palace, attended by the nobles, and almost adored by the people. Some have said that these white elephants are larger than the rest; others assert that they are less; and still others entirely doubt their existence.

As the art of war is but very little improved in Asia, there are few princes of the East who do not procure and maintain as many elephants as they are able, and place great confidence on their assistance in an engagement. For this purpose they are obliged to take them wild in their native forests and tame them; for the elephant never breeds in a state of servitude. It is one of the most striking peculiarities in this extraordinary creature that his generative powers totally fail when he comes under the dominion of man—as if he seemed unwillingly to propagate a race of slaves to increase the pride of his conqueror. There is, perhaps, no other quadruped that will not breed in its own native climate, if indulged with a moderate share of freedom; and we know that many of them will copulate in every climate. The elephant alone has never been seen to breed; and though he has been reduced under the obedience of man for ages, the duration of pregnancy in the female still remains a secret. Aristotle, indeed, asserts that she goes two years with young; that she continues to suckle her young for three years, and that she brings forth but one at a time; but he does not inform us of the manner in which it was possible for him to have his information. From authorities equally doubtful, we learn that the little one is about as large as a wild boar the instant it is brought forth; that its tusks do not yet appear, but that all the rest of its teeth are apparent; that at the age of six months it is as large as an ox, and its tusks well grown; and that it continues in this manner for near thirty years, advancing to maturity. All this is doubtful; but it is certain that, in order to recruit the numbers which are consumed in war, the princes of the East are every year obliged to send into the forests, and to use various methods to procure a fresh supply. Of all these numerous bands there is not one that has not been originally wild, nor one that has not been forced into a state of subjection. Men themselves are often content to propagate a race of slaves, that pass down in this wretched state through successive generations; but the elephant under subjection is unalterably barren—perhaps from some physical causes which are as yet unknown.

The Indian princes having vainly endeavoured to multiply the breed of the elephants, like that of other animals, have been at last content to separate the males from the females, to prevent those accessions of desire which debilitated without multiplying the species. In order to take them wild in the woods a spot of ground is fixed upon, which is surrounded with a strong pallisade. This is made of the thickest and the strongest trees and strengthened by cross-bars, which gives firmness to the whole. The posts are fixed at such distances

from each other that a man can easily pass between them—there being only one great passage left open through which an elephant can easily come, and which is so contrived as to shut behind as soon as the beast has entered. To draw him into this enclosure it is necessary first to find him out in the woods; and a female elephant is conducted along into the heart of the forest, where it is obliged by its keeper to cry out for the male. The male very readily answers the cry, and hastens to join her; which the keeper perceiving, obliges her to retreat, still repeating the same cry, until she leads the animal into the enclosure already described, which shuts the moment he has entered. Still, however, the female proceeds calling and inviting, while the male proceeds forward in the enclosure, which grows narrower all the way, until the poor animal finds himself completely shut up, without the power of either advancing or retreating—the female in the meantime being let out by a private way, which she has been previously accustomed to. The wild elephant upon seeing himself in this way instantly attempts to use violence; and upon seeing the hunters all his former desires turn to fury. In the meantime the hunters, having fixed him with cords, attempt to soften his indignation by throwing buckets of water upon him in great quantities, rubbing the body with leaves, and pouring oil down his ears. Soon after two tame elephants are brought, a male and a female, which caress the indignant animal with their trunks, while they still continue pouring water on it to refresh it. At last a tame elephant is brought forward of that number which is employed in instructing the new-comers, and an officer riding upon it, in order to show the late captive that it has nothing to fear. The hunters then open the enclosure, and while this creature leads the captive along, two more are joined on either side of it, and these compel it to submit. It is then tied by cords to a massy pillar, provided for that purpose, and suffered to remain in that position for about a day and a night, until its indignation be wholly subsided. The next day it begins to be somewhat submissive, and in a fortnight is completely tamed like the rest. The females are taken when accompanying the males; they often come into these enclosures, and they shortly afterwards act as decoys to the rest. But this method of taking the elephant differs according to the abilities of the hunter; the Negroes of Africa, who hunt this animal merely for its flesh, are content to take it in pit-falls, and often pursue it in the defiles of a mountain, where it cannot easily turn, and so wound it from behind till it falls.

The elephant when once tamed becomes the most gentle and obedient of all animals. It soon conceives an attachment for the persons that attend it, caresses him, obeys him, and seems to anticipate his desires. In a short time it begins to comprehend several of the signs made to it, and even the different sounds of the voice; it perfectly distinguishes the one of command from that of anger or approbation, and it acts accordingly. It is seldom deceived in its master's voice; it receives his orders with attention, and executes them with prudence—eagerly, yet without precipitation. All its motions are regulated; and its actions seem to partake of its magnitude—being grave, majestic, and secure. It is quickly taught to kneel down to receive its rider; it caresses those it knows with its trunk; with this salutes such as it is ordered to distinguish, and with this, as with a hand, helps to take up a part of its load. It suffers itself to be arrayed in harness, and seems to take a pleasure in the finery of its trappings. It draws either chariots, cannon, or shipping with surprising strength and perseverance; and thus with a seeming satisfaction, provided that it be not beaten without a cause, and that its master appears pleased with its exertions.

The elephant's conductor is usually mounted upon its

neck, and makes use of a rod of iron to guide it, which is sometimes pointed, and at others bent into a hook. With this the animal is spurred forward when dull or disobedient; but in general a word is sufficient to put the gentle creature into motion, especially when it is acquainted with the conductor. This acquaintance is often perfectly necessary; for the elephant frequently takes such an affection to its keeper that it will obey no other: and it has been known to die for grief when in some sudden fit of madness it has killed its conductor. We are told that one of these, that was used by the French forces in India for drawing their cannon, was promised by the conductor a reward for having performed some painful service; but being disappointed of its expectation it slew him in a fury. The conductor's wife, who was a spectator of this shocking scene, could not restrain her madness and despair; but running with her two children in her arms, threw them at the elephant's feet, crying out, that since it had killed her husband it might kill her and her children also. The elephant, seeing the children at his feet, instantly stopped, and moderating its fury, took up the eldest with its trunk, and placing him upon his neck, adopted him for its conductor, and obeyed him ever after with great punctuality.

But it is not for drawing burthens alone that the elephants are serviceable in war; they are often brought into the ranks, and compelled to fight in the most dangerous parts of the field of battle. There was a time, indeed, in India when they were much more used in war than at present. A century or two ago, a great part of the dependence of the general was upon the number and the expertness of his elephants; but of late, since war has been contented to adopt fatal instead of formidable arts, the elephant is little used, except for drawing cannon or transporting provisions. The princes of the country are pleased to keep a few for ornament, or for the purpose of removing their seraglios; but they are seldom led into a field of battle, where they are unable to withstand the discharge of fire-arms, and have been often found to turn upon their employers. Still, however, they are used in war in the more remote parts of the east—in Siam, in Cochin China, in Tonquin, and Pegu. In all these places they not only serve to swell the pomp of state, being adorned with all the barbarian splendour that those countries can bestow, but they are actually led into the field of battle, armed before with coats of mail, and loaded on the back each with a square tower, containing from five to seven combatants. Upon its neck sits the conductor, who goads the animal into the thickest ranks, and encourages it to increase the devastation; wherever it goes nothing can withstand its fury; it levels the ranks with its immense bulk, flings such as oppose it into the air, or crushes them to death under its feet. In the meantime, those who are placed upon its back combat as from an eminence, and fling down their weapons with double force, their weight been added to their velocity. Nothing, therefore, can be more dreadful or more irresistible than such a moving machine to men unacquainted with the modern arts of war; the elephant, thus armed and conducted, raging in the midst of a field of battle, inspires more terror than even those machines that destroy at a distance, and are often most fatal when most unseen. But this method of combating is rather formidable than effectual: polished nations have ever been victorious over those semi-barbarous troops that have called in the elephant to their assistance, or attempt to gain a victory by merely astonishing their opposers. The Romans soon learned the art of opening their ranks to admit the elephant, and thus separating it from assistance, quickly compelled its conductors to calm the animal's fury and to submit. It sometimes also happened that the elephant became impatient of control; and, instead of obeying its conductor, turned upon those forces it was

employed to assist. In either case there was a great deal of preparation to very little effect, for a single elephant is known to consume as much as forty men in a day.

At present, therefore, they are chiefly employed in carrying or drawing burthens throughout the whole peninsula of India; and no animal can be more fitted by Nature for this employment. The strength of an elephant is equal to its bulk, for it can with great ease draw a load that six horses could not remove; it can readily carry upon its back three or four thousand weight—upon its tusks alone it can support near a thousand; its force may also be estimated from the velocity of its motion compared to the mass of its body. It can go in its ordinary pace as fast as a horse at an easy trot; and when pushed, it can move as swiftly as a horse at full gallop. It can travel with ease fifty or sixty miles a day; and when hard pressed almost double that distance. It may be heard trotting on at a great distance; it is easy, also, to follow it by the track, which is deeply impressed on the ground, and from fifteen to eighteen inches in diameter.

In India they are also put to other very disagreeable offices; for in some courts of the more barbarous princes they are used as executioners; and this horrid task they perform with great dexterity. With their trunks they are seen to break every limb of the criminal at the word of command; they sometimes trample him to death, and sometimes impale him on their enormous tusks, as directed. In this the elephant is rather the servant of a cruel master than a voluntary tyrant, since no other animal of the forest is so naturally benevolent and gentle; equally mindful of benefits as sensible of neglect, he contracts a friendship for his keeper, and obeys him even beyond his capacity.

In India, where they were at one time employed in launching ships, a particular elephant was directed to force a very large vessel into the water; the work proved superior to its strength but not to its endeavours, which, however, the keeper affected to despise. "Take away," says he, "that lazy beast, and bring another better fitted for service." The poor animal instantly upon this redoubled its efforts, fractured its skull, and died upon the spot.

In Delhi, an elephant passing along the streets put his trunk into a tailor's shop where several people were at work. One of the persons of the shop, desirous of some amusement, pricked the animal's trunk with his needle, and seemed highly delighted with this slight punishment. The elephant, however, passed on without any immediate signs of resentment; but coming to a puddle filled with dirty water, he filled his trunk, returned to the shop, and spirted the contents over all the finery upon which the tailors were then employed.

An elephant in Adsmear, which often passed through the bazaar or market, as he went by a certain herb-woman always received from her a mouthful of greens. Being one day seized with a periodical fit of madness he broke his fetters, and, running through the market, put the crowd to flight, and among others this woman, who in her haste forgot a little child at her stall. The elephant, recollecting the spot where his benefactress was accustomed to sit, took up the infant gently in his trunk and conveyed it to a place of safety.

At the Cape of Good hope it is customary to hunt these animals for the sake of their teeth. Three horsemen, well mounted and armed with lances, attack the elephant alternately, each relieving the other as they see their companion pressed, till the beast is subdued. Three Dutchmen, brothers, who had made large fortunes by this business, determined to retire to Europe and enjoy the fruits of their labours; but they resolved one day before they went to have a last chase by way of amusement: they met with their game, and began their attack in the usual manner; but unfortunately, one of their

horses falling, happened to fling his rider, the enraged elephant instantly seized the unhappy huntsman with his trunk, flung him up to a vast height in the air, and received him upon one of his tusks as he fell; and then, turning towards the other two brothers, as it were with an aspect of revenge and insult, held out to them the impaled wretch, writhing in the agonies of death.

The teeth of the elephant are what produces the great enmity between him and mankind; but whether they are shed like the horns of the deer, or whether the animal be killed to obtain them, is not yet perfectly known. All we have as yet certain is, that the natives of Africa, from whence almost all our ivory comes, assure us that they find the greatest part of it in their forests; nor would, say they, the teeth of an elephant recompense them for their trouble and danger in killing it; notwithstanding, the elephants which are tamed by man are never known to shed their tusks; and from the hardness of their substance they seem no way analogous to deers' horns.

The teeth of the elephant are very often found in a fossil state. Some years ago, two great grinding-teeth and part of the tusk of an elephant were discovered, at the depth of forty-two yards, in a lead-mine in Flintshire.

The tusks of the mammoth, so often found still fossil in Siberia, and which are converted to the purposes of ivory, are generally supposed to belong to the elephant; however, the animal must have been much larger in that country than it is found at present, as those tusks are often known to weigh four hundred pounds, while those that come from Africa seldom exceed two hundred and fifty. These enormous tusks are found lodged in the sandy banks of the Siberian rivers; and the natives pretend that they belong to an animal which is four times as large as the elephant.

There have lately been discovered several enormous skeletons, five or six feet beneath the surface, on the banks of the Ohio, not remote from the river Miume, in America, seven hundred miles from the sea-coast. Some of the tusks are near seven feet long, one foot nine inches in circumference at the base, and one foot near the points, the cavity at the root or base nineteen inches deep. Besides their size there are yet other differences: the tusks of the true elephant have sometimes a very slight lateral bend; these have a larger twist, or spiral curve, towards the smaller end; but the great and specific difference consists in the shape of the grinding-teeth; which in these newly found are fashioned like the teeth of a carnivorous animal—not flat and ribbed transversely on their surface like those of the modern elephant, but furnished with a double row of high and conic processes, as if intended to masticate, not to grind, their food. A third difference is in the thigh-bone, which is of a greatly disproportionable thickness to that of the elephant, and has also some other anatomical variations. These fossil bones have likewise been found in Peru and the Brazils; and, when cut and polished by the workers in ivory, appear in every respect similar. It is the opinion of Dr. Hunter that they must have belonged to a larger animal than the elephant, and differing from it in being carnivorous. But as yet this formidable creature has evaded our search; and if, indeed, such an animal exists, it is happy for man that it keeps at a distance—since what ravage might not be expected from a creature endued with more than the strength of the elephant, and all the rapacity of the tiger!



CHAP. III.

OF THE RHINOCEROS.

Next to the elephant the rhinoceros is the most powerful of animals. It is usually found twelve feet long from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail, from six to seven feet high, and the circumference of its body is nearly equal to its length. It is therefore equal to the elephant in bulk; and if it appears much smaller to the eye, the reason is that its legs are much shorter. Words can convey but a very confused idea of this animal's shape—and yet there are few so remarkably formed; its head is furnished with a horn growing from the snout, sometimes three feet and a half long—and but for this, that part would have the appearance of a hog; the upper lip, however, is much longer in proportion, ends in a point, is very pliable, serves to collect its food, and deliver it into the mouth; the ears are large, erect, and pointed; the eyes are small and piercing; the skin is naked, rough, knotty, and lies upon the body in folds after a very peculiar fashion; there are two folds very remarkable—one above the shoulders and another above the rump; the skin, which is of a dirty brown colour, is so thick as to turn the edge of a scimitar, and to resist a musket-ball; the belly hangs low; the legs are short, strong, and thick; and the hoofs are divided into three parts, each pointing forward.

Such is the general outline of an animal that appears chiefly formidable from the horn growing from its snout, and formed rather for war than with a propensity to engage. This horn is sometimes found from three feet to three and a half feet long, growing from the solid bone, and so disposed as to be managed to the greatest advantage. It is composed of the most solid substance; and pointed so as to inflict the most fatal wounds. The elephant, the boar, and the buffalo are obliged to strike transversely with their weapons; but the rhinoceros employs all his force with every blow—so that the tiger will more willingly attack any other animal of the forest than one whose strength is so justly employed. Indeed, there is no force which this terrible animal has to apprehend—defended on every side by a thick horny hide, which the claws of the lion or tiger are unable to pierce, and armed before with a weapon that even the elephant does not choose to oppose. The missionaries assure us that the elephant is often found dead in the forests, pierced with the horn of a rhinoceros; and though it looks like wisdom to doubt whatever they tell us, yet I cannot help giving credit to what they relate on this occasion, particularly when confirmed by Pliny. The combat between these two, the most formidable animals of the forest, must be very dreadful. Emanuel, king of Portugal, willing to try their strength, actually opposed them to each other—and the elephant was defeated.

But though the rhinoceros is thus formidable by nature, yet imagination has not failed to exert itself in adding to its terrors. The scent is said to be most exquisite; and it is affirmed that it consorts with the tiger. It is reported, also, that when it has overturned a man, or any other animal, it continues to lick the flesh quite from the bone with its tongue, which is said to be extremely rough. All this, however, is fabulous; the scent, if we may judge from the expansion of the olfactory nerves, is not greater than that of a hog, which we know to be indifferent; it keeps company with the tiger only because they both frequent watery places in the burning climates where they are bred; and as to its rough tongue, that is so far from the truth that no animal of near its size has so soft a one. "I have often felt it myself," says Ladvocat, in his description of this animal; "it is smooth, soft, and small, like that of a dog; and to the feel it appears as if one passed the hand over velvet. I have often seen it lick a young man's face who kept it, and both seemed pleased with the action."

The rhinoceros which was shown in London in 1789, and described by Doctor Parsons, had been sent from Bengal. Though it was very young, not being above two years old, yet the charge of his carriage and food from India cost near a thousand pounds. It was fed with rice, sugar, and hay; it was daily supplied with seven pounds of rice mixed with three of sugar, divided into three portions; it was given great quantities of hay and grass, which it chiefly preferred; its drink was water, which it took in great quantities. It was of a gentle disposition, and permitted itself to be touched and handled by all visitors, never attempting mischief, except when abused or when hungry: in such a case there was no method of appeasing its fury but by giving it something to eat. When angry it would jump against the walls of its room with great violence; and make many efforts to escape, but seldom attempted to attack its keeper, and was always submissive to his threats. It had a peculiar cry, somewhat of a mixture between the grunting of a hog and the bellowing of a calf.

The age of these animals is not well known; it is said by some that they bring forth at three years old, and if we may reason from analogy, it is probable they seldom live till above twenty. That which was shown in London was said by its keeper to be eighteen years old, and even at that age he pretended to consider it as a young one; however, it died shortly after, and that probably in the course of nature.

The rhinoceros is a native of the deserts of Asia and Africa, and is usually found in those extensive forests that are frequented by the elephant and the lion. As it subsists entirely upon vegetable food, it is peaceful and harmless among its fellows of the brute creation; but though it never provokes to combat it equally disdains to fly. It is every way fitted for war, but rests content in the consciousness of its security. It is particularly fond of the prickly branches of trees, and is seen to feed upon such thorny shrubs as would be dangerous to other animals either to gather or to swallow. The prickly points of these, however, may only serve to give a poignant relish to this animal's palate, and may answer the same grateful ends in seasoning its banquet that spices do in heightening ours.

In some parts of the kingdom of Asia, where the natives are more desirous of appearing warlike than showing themselves brave, these animals are tamed, and led into the field to strike terror into the enemy; but they are always an unmanageable and restive animal, and probably more dangerous to the employers than those whom they are brought to oppose.

The method of taking them is chiefly watching them, till they are found either in some moist or marshy place, where, like hogs, they are fond of sleeping and wallowing. They then destroy the old one with fire-arms; for no weapons that are thrown by the force of man are capable of entering this animal's hide. If, when the old one is destroyed, there happens to be a cub, they seize and tame it; these animals are sometimes taken in pit-falls, covered with green branches, laid in those paths which the rhinoceros makes going from the forest to the river-side.

There are some varieties in this animal as in most others; some of them are found in Asia with a double horn, one growing above the other; this weapon, if considered within itself, is one of the strongest and most dangerous that Nature furnishes to any part of the animal creation. The horn is entirely solid, formed of the hardest bony substance, growing from the upper scapular bone by so strong an apophyse, as seemingly to make but one part with it. Many are the medicinal virtues that are ascribed to this horn when taken in powder; but these qualities have been attributed to it without any real foundation, and make only a small part of the many fables which this extraordinary animal has given rise to.

CHAP. IV.

THE HIPPOPOTAMOS.

The hippopotamos is an animal as large and not less formidable than the rhinoceros; its legs are shorter, and its head rather more bulky than that of the animal last described. We have had but few opportunities in Europe of examining this formidable creature minutely; its dimensions, however, have been pretty well ascertained by a description given us by Zerenghi, an Italian surgeon, who procured one of them to be killed on the banks of the river Nile. By his account, it appears that this terrible animal, which chiefly resides in the waters of that river, is above seventeen feet long from the extremity of the snout to the insertion of the tail; above sixteen feet in circumference round the body, and above seven feet high: the head is near four feet long, and above nine feet in circumference. The jaws open about two feet wide, and the cutting-teeth, of which it contains four in each jaw, are above a foot long.

Its feet in some measure resemble those of the elephant; and are divided into four parts. The tail is short, flat, and pointed; the hide is amazingly thick, and, though not capable of turning a musket-ball, is impenetrable to the blow of a sabre; the body is covered over with a few scattered hairs of a whitish colour. The whole figure of the animal is something between that of an ox and a hog, and its cry is something between the bellowing of the one and the grunting of the other.

This animal, however, though so terribly furnished for war, seems no way disposed to make use of its prodigious strength against an equal enemy; it chiefly resides at the bottom of the great rivers and lakes of Africa—the Nile, the Niger, and the Zara; there it leads an indolent kind of life, and seems seldom disposed for action except when excited by the calls of hunger. Upon such occasions three or four of them are often seen at the bottom of a river near some cataract forming a kind of line, and seizing upon such fish as are forced down by the violence of the stream. In that element they pursue their prey with great swiftness and perseverance; they swim with much force, and remain at the bottom for thirty or forty minutes without rising to take breath. They traverse the bottom of the stream as if walking upon land, and make terrible devastation where they find plenty of prey. But it often happens that this animal's piscatory food is not supplied in sufficient abundance; it is then forced upon land, where it is an awkward and unwieldy stranger; it moves but slowly, and, as it seldom forsakes the margin of the river, it sinks at every step it takes; sometimes, however, it is forced by famine up into the higher grounds, where it commits dreadful havoc among the plantations of the helpless natives, who see their possessions destroyed without daring to resist their invader. Their chief method of annoying the animal is by lighting fires, beating drums, and raising a cry to frighten it back to its favourite element; and as it is exceedingly timorous on land they generally succeed in their endeavours. But if they happen to wound or otherwise irritate it too closely, it then becomes formidable to all that oppose it; it overturns whatever it meets, and brings forward all its strength, which it seemed not to have discovered before that dangerous occasion. It possesses the same inoffensive disposition in its favourite element which it is found to have upon land: it is never found to attack the mariners in their boats as they go up or down the stream; but should they inadvertently strike against it, or otherwise disturb its repose, there is much danger of sending them at once to the bottom. "I have seen," says a mariner, as we find it in Dampier, "one of these animals open its jaws, and, seizing a boat between its teeth, at once bite and sink it to the bottom. I have seen it on another

occasion place itself under one of our boats, and, rising under it, overset it, with six men who were in it—who, however, received no other injury." Such is the great strength of this animal; and from hence, probably, the imagination has been willing to match it in combat against others more fierce and equally formidable. The crocodile and the shark have been said to engage with it, and yield an easy victory; but as the shark is only found at sea, and the hippopotamos never ventures beyond the mouth of fresh-water rivers, it is probable that these engagements never occurred. It sometimes happens, indeed, that the princes of Africa amuse themselves with combats on their fresh-water lakes between this and other formidable animals; but whether the rhinoceros or the crocodile are of this number we have not been particularly informed. If this animal be attacked on land, and finds itself incapable of vengeance from the swiftness of its enemy, it immediately returns to the river, where it plunges in head foremost, and after a short time rises to the surface, loudly bellowing, either to invite or intimidate the enemy; but though the Negroes will venture to attack the shark or the crocodile in their element, and there destroy them, they are too well acquainted with the force of the hippopotamos to engage it; this animal, therefore, continues the uncontrolled master of the river, and all others fly from its approach and become an easy prey.

As the hippopotamos lives upon fish and vegetables, so it is possible the flesh of terrestrial animals may be equally grateful. The natives of Africa assert that it has often been found to devour children and other creatures that it was able to surprise upon land; yet it moves but slowly—almost every creature endued with a common share of swiftness is able to escape it; and this animal, therefore, seldom ventures from the river-side but when pressed by the necessities of hunger, or when bringing forth its young.

The female always comes on land to bring forth, and it is supposed that she seldom produces above one at a time. Upon these occasions the animals are particularly timorous, and dread the approach of a terrestrial enemy; the instant the parent hears the slightest noise it dashes into the stream, and the young one is seen to follow it with equal alacrity.

The young ones are said to be excellent eating; but the Negroes, to whom nothing that has life comes amiss, find an equal delicacy in the old. Dr. Pococke has seen their flesh sold in the shambles like beef; and it is said that their breast in particular is as delicate eating as veal. As for the rest, the animals are found in great numbers, and as they produce very fast, their flesh might supply the countries where they are found, could those barbarous regions produce more expert huntsmen. It may be remarked, however, that this creature, which was once in such plenty at the mouth of the Nile, is now wholly unknown in Lower Egypt, and is nowhere to be found in that river except above the cataracts.

symmetry or their easy power of motion. The head somewhat resembles that of the deer, with two round horns near a foot long, and which, it is probable, it sheds as deer are found to do; its neck resembles that of a horse; its legs and feet those of a deer; but with this extraordinary difference, that the fore-legs are near twice as long as the hinder. As these creatures have been found eighteen feet high, and ten from the ground to the top of the shoulder, so allowing three feet for the depth of the body, seven feet remains, which is high enough to admit a man mounted upon a middle-sized horse. The hinder part, however, is much lower, so that when the animal appears standing and at rest, it has somewhat the appearance of a dog sitting; and this formation of its legs gives it an awkward and laborious motion, which, though swift, must yet be tiresome. For this reason the caméléopard is an animal very rarely found, and only finds refuge in the most internal desert regions of Africa. The dimensions of a young one, as they were accurately taken by a person who examined its skin, which was brought from the Cape of Good Hope, were found to be as follow:—The length of the head was one foot eight inches; the height of the fore-leg, from the ground to the top of the shoulder, was ten feet; from the shoulder to the top of the head was seven; the height of the hind-leg was eight feet five inches; and from the top of the shoulder to the insertion of the tail was just seven feet long.

No animal, either from its disposition or its formation, seems less fitted for a state of natural hostility; its horns are blunt, and even knobbed at the ends; its teeth are made entirely for vegetable pasture; its skin is beautifully speckled with white spots upon a brownish ground; it is timorous and harmless, and, notwithstanding its great size, rather flies from than resists the meanest enemy; it partakes very much of the nature of the camel, which it so nearly resembles; it lives entirely upon vegetables, and when grazing is obliged to spread its fore-legs very wide, in order to reach its pasture; its motion is a kind of pace, two legs on each side moving at the same time, whereas in other animals they move transversely. It often lies down with its belly to the earth, and, like the camel, has a callous substance upon its breast, which, when reposing, defends it from injury. This animal was known to the ancients, but has been very rarely seen in Europe. One of them was sent from the East to the Emperor of Germany in the year 1559; but they have often been seen tame at Grand Cairo, in Egypt; and I am told there are two there at present. When ancient Rome was in its splendour, Pompey exhibited at one time no less than ten upon the stage. It was the barbarous pleasure of the people at that time to see the most terrible and the most extraordinary animals produced in combat against each other: the lion, the lynx, the tiger, the elephant, the hippopotamos, were all let loose promiscuously, and were seen to inflict indiscriminate destruction.

CHAP. V.

THE CAMELEOPARD.

Were we to be told of an animal so tall that a man on horseback could with ease ride under its belly without stooping, we should hardly give credit to the relation; yet of this extraordinary size is the caméléopard—an animal that inhabits the deserts of Africa, and the accounts of which are so well ascertained that we cannot deny our assent to their authority. It is no easy matter to form an adequate idea of this creature's size and the oddity of its formation. It exhibits somewhat the slender shape of the deer or the camel, but destitute of their

CHAP. VI.

THE CAMEL AND THE DROMEDARY.

These names do not make two distinct kinds, but are only given to a variety of the same animal, which has, however, existed from time immemorial. The principal, and perhaps the only sensible, difference by which these two races are distinguished consists in this, that the camel has two haunches upon his back, whereas the dromedary has but one; the latter, also, is neither so large nor so strong as the camel. These two races, however, produce with each other, and the mixed breed formed between them is considered the best, the most patient, and the most indefatigable of all the kind.

Of the two varieties the dromedary is by far the most numerous—the camel being scarcely found except in Turkey and the countries of the Levant, while the other is found spread over all the deserts of Arabia, the southern parts of Africa, Persia, Tartary, and a great part of the eastern Indies. Thus the one inhabits an immense tract of country—the other, in comparison, is confined to a province; the other inhabits the sultry countries of the torrid zone—the other delights in a warm but not a burning climate; neither, however, can subsist or propagate in the variable climates towards the north; they seem formed for those countries where they can travel along the sandy desert without being impeded by rivers, and find food at expected distances; such a country is Arabia, and this of all others seems to be most adapted to the support and production of this animal.

The camel is the most temperate of all animals, and it can continue to travel several days without drinking. In those vast deserts where the earth is everywhere dry and sandy—where there are neither birds nor beasts, neither insects nor vegetables, where nothing is seen but hills of sand and heaps of bones—there the camel travels, posting forward without requiring either drink or pasture, and is often found six or seven days without any sustenance whatsoever. Its feet are formed for travelling upon sand, and utterly unfit for moist and marshy places: the inhabitants, therefore, find a most useful assistant in this animal, where no other could subsist, and by its means cross those deserts with safety which would be unpassable by any other method of conveyance.

An animal thus formed for a sandy and desert region cannot be propagated in one of a different nature. Many vain efforts have been tried to propagate the camel in Spain; they have been transported to America, but have multiplied in neither. It is true, indeed, that they may be brought into these countries, and may, perhaps, be found to produce there; but the care of keeping them is so great, and the accidents to which they are exposed from the changeableness of the climate are so many, that they cannot answer the care of keeping. In a few years, also, they are seen to degenerate; their strength and their patience forsake them; and instead of making the riches they become the burthen of their keepers.

But it is very different in Arabia, and those countries where the camel is turned to useful purposes. It is there considered as a sacred animal, without whose help the natives could neither subsist, traffic, nor travel: its milk makes a part of their nourishment; they feed upon its flesh, particularly when young; they clothe themselves with its hair, which is seen to moult regularly once a year; and if they fear an invading enemy their camels serve them in flight, and in a single day they are known to travel above a hundred miles. Thus, by means of the camel an Arabian finds safety in his deserts; all the armies upon earth might be lost in the pursuit of a flying squadron of this country mounted upon their camels, and taking refuge in solitudes where nothing interposes to stop their flight, or to force them to wait the invader. Nothing can be more dreary than the aspect of these sandy plains, that seem entirely forsaken of life and vegetation; wherever the eye turns nothing is presented but a sterile and dusty soil, sometimes torn up by the winds, and moving in great waves along, which, when viewed from an eminence, resemble less the earth than the ocean; here and there a few shrubs appear, which only teach us to wish for the grove that reminds us of the shade in these sultry climates without affording its refreshment; the return of morning—which, in other places, carries an idea of cheerfulness—here serves only to enlighten the endless and dreary waste, and to present the traveller with an unfinished prospect of his forlorn situation; yet in

this chasm of Nature, by the help of the camel, the Arabian finds safety and subsistence. There are here and there found spots of verdure, which, though remote from each other, are in a manner approximated by the labour and industry of the camel. Thus these deserts, which present the stranger with nothing but objects of danger and sterility, afford the inhabitant protection, food, and liberty. The Arabian lives independent and tranquil in the midst of his solitudes; and, instead of considering the vast solitudes spread around him as a restraint upon his happiness, he is by experience taught to regard them as the ramparts of his freedom.

The camel is easily instructed in the methods of taking up and supporting his burthen; their legs, a few days after they are produced, are bent under their belly; they are in this manner loaded and taught to rise; their burthen is every day thus increased by insensible degrees, till the animal is capable of supporting a weight adequate to its force. The same care is taken in making them patient of hunger and thirst; while other animals receive their food at stated times, the camel is restrained for days together, and these intervals of famine are increased in proportion as the animal seems capable of sustaining them. By this method of education they live five or six days without food or water, and their stomach is formed most admirably by Nature to fit them for long abstinence. Besides the four stomachs, which all animals have that chew their cud (and the camel is of the number), it has a fifth stomach, which serves as a reservoir to hold a greater quantity of water, where the fluid remains without corrupting, or without being adulterated by other aliments. When the camel finds itself pressed with thirst it has here an easy resource for quenching it; it throws up a quantity of this water, by a simple contraction of the muscles, into the other stomachs, and this serves to macerate its dry and simple food; in this manner, as it drinks but seldom, it takes in a large quantity at a time, and travellers, when straightened for water, have been often known to kill their camels for that which they expected to find within them.

In Turkey, Persia, Arabia, Barbary, and Egypt, their whole commerce is carried on by means of camels, and no carriage is more speedy, and none less expensive in these countries. Merchants and travellers unite themselves into a body, furnished with camels, to secure themselves from the insults of the robbers that infest the countries in which they live. This assemblage is called a "caravan," in which the numbers are sometimes known to be above ten thousand, and the number of camels is often greater than those of the men. Each of these animals is loaded according to its strength, and he is so sensible of it himself, that when his burthen is too great he remains still upon his belly (the posture in which he is laden), refusing to rise till his burthen be lessened or taken away. In general the larger camels are capable of carrying a thousand weight, and sometimes twelve hundred—the dromedary from six to seven. In these trading journeys they travel but slowly, their stages are generally regulated, and they seldom go above thirty, or at most about five and thirty, miles a day. Every evening, when they arrive at a stage, which is usually some spot of verdure, where water and shrubs are in plenty, they are permitted to feed at liberty; they are then seen to eat as much in an hour as will supply them for twenty-four; they seem to prefer the coarsest weeds to the softest pasture; the thistle, the nettle, the caffra, and other prickly vegetables are their favourite food; but their drivers take care to supply them with a kind of paste composition, which serves as a more permanent nourishment. As these animals have often gone the same track, they are said to know their way precisely, and pursue their passage when their guides are utterly astray; when they come within a few miles of their baiting-place in the

evening, they sagaciously scent it at a distance, and, increasing their speed, are often seen to trot with vivacity to their stage.

The patience of this animal is most extraordinary; and it is probable that its sufferings are great, for when it is loaded it sends forth most lamentable cries, but never offers to resist the tyrant that oppresses it. At the slightest sign it bends its knee and lies upon its belly, suffering itself to be loaded in this position; by this practice the burden is more easily laid upon it than if lifted up while standing. At another sign it rises with its load, and the driver getting upon its back between the two panniers—which, like hampers, are placed upon each side—he encourages the camel to proceed by talking and singing. In this manner the creature proceeds contentedly forward, with a slow uneasy walk of about four miles an hour, and, when it comes to its stage, lies down as before to be unloaded.

Mr. Buffon seems to consider the camel to be the most domesticated of all other animals, and to have more marks of the tyranny of man imprinted on its form. He is of opinion that this animal is not now to be found in a state of nature; that the humps on its back, the callosities on its breast and legs, and even the great reservoir for water, are all marks of long servitude and domestic constraint. The deformities he supposes to be perpetuated by generation, and what at first was accident at last becomes nature. However this be, the humps on the back grow large in proportion as the animal is well fed, and if examined they will be found composed of a substance not unlike the udder of a cow.

The inhabitants generally leave but one male to wait on ten females, the rest they castrate; and though they thus become weaker, they are more manageable and patient. The female receives the male in the same position as when these animals are loaded; she goes with young for about a year, and, like all other great animals, produces but one at a time. The camel's milk is abundant and nourishing, and, mixed with water, makes a principal part of the beverage of the Arabians. These animals begin to engender at three years of age, and they ordinarily live from forty to fifty years. The genital part of the male resembles that of the bull, but is placed pointing backwards, so that its urine seems to be ejected in the manner of the female. This, as well as the dung and almost every other part of this animal, is converted to some useful purpose by the keepers. Of the urine sal-ammoniac is made; of the dung, litter for the horses, and fire for the purpose of dressing their victuals. Thus, this animal alone seems to comprise within itself a variety of qualities, any one of which serves to render other quadrupeds absolutely necessary for the welfare of man; like the elephant, it is manageable and tame; like the horse, it gives the rider security; it carries greater burthens than the ox or the mule, and its milk is furnished in as great abundance as that of the cow; the flesh of the young ones is supposed to be as delicate as veal; their hair is more beautiful and more in request than wool; while even of its very excrements no part is useless.

CHAP. VII.

THE LAMA.

As almost all the quadrupeds of America are smaller than those resembling the ancient continent, so the lama, which may be considered as the camel of the new world, is every way less than that of the old. This animal, like that described in a former chapter, stands high upon its legs, has a long neck, a small head, and resembles the camel, not only in its natural mildness, but its aptitude for servitude, its moderation, and its patience.

The Americans early found out its useful qualities, and availed themselves of its labours. Like the camel, it serves to carry goods over places inaccessible to other beasts of burthen; like the camel, also, it is obedient to its driver, and often dies under but never resists his cruelty.

Of these animals some are white, others black, but they are mostly brown; its face resembles that of the camel, and its height is about equal to that of an ass. They are not found in the ancient continent, but entirely belong to the new; nor are they found spread over all America, but are found chiefly upon those mountains that stretch from New Spain to the Straits of Magellan. They inhabit the highest regions of the globe, and seem to require purer air than animals of a lower situation are found to enjoy. Peru seems to be the place where they are found in droves. In Mexico they are introduced rather as curiosities than beasts of burthen; but in Potosi, and other provinces of Peru, they make the chief riches of the Indians and Spaniards who rear them: their flesh is excellent food; their hair, or rather wool, may be spun into beautiful clothing; and they are capable, in the most rugged and dangerous ways, of carrying burthens not exceeding a hundred-weight with the greatest safety. It is true, indeed, that they go but slowly, and seldom above fifteen miles a day; their tread is heavy but sure: they descend precipices, and find footing among the most craggy rocks, where even men can scarce accompany them; they are, however, but feeble animals, and after four or five days' labour they are obliged to repose for a day or two. They are chiefly used in carrying the riches of the mines of Potosi; and we are told that there are above three hundred thousand of these animals in actual employ.

This animal, as was said before, is above three feet high, and the neck is three feet long; the head is small and well proportioned, the eyes large, the nose long, the lips thick, the upper divided, and the lower a little depending; like all those animals that feed upon grass, it wants the upper cutting teeth; the ears are four inches long, and move with great agility; the tail is but five inches long—it is small, straight, and a little turned up at the end; it is cloven-footed like the ox, but it has a kind of spear-like appendage behind, which assists it in moving over precipices and rugged ways; the wool on the back is short, but long on the sides and the belly; it resembles the camel in the formation of the genital parts in the male, so that it makes urine backwards; it couples also in the same manner, and though it finds much difficulty in the action, it is said to be much inclined to venery. A whole day is often passed before the necessary business can be completed, which is spent in growling, quarrelling, and spitting at each other; they seldom produce above one at a time, and their age never extends above ten or twelve years at farthest.

Though the lama is no way comparable to the camel, either for size, strength, or perseverance, yet the Americans find a substitute in it with which they seem perfectly contented. It appears formed for that indolent race of masters which it is obliged to serve; it requires no care, nor no expense in the attending or providing for its sustenance; it is supplied with a warm covering, and therefore does not require to be housed; satisfied with vegetables and grass, it wants neither corn nor hay to subsist; it is not less moderate in what it drinks, and exceeds even the camel in temperance. Indeed, of all other creatures it seems to require water least, as it is supplied by Nature with saliva in such large quantities that it spits it out on every occasion: this saliva seems to be the only offensive weapon that the harmless creature has to testify its resentment. When overloaded or fatigued, and driven on by all the torturing arts of its keeper, it falls on its belly, and pours out against him a quantity of this fluid—which, though probably no way hurtful, the Indians are much afraid of. They

say that wherever it falls it is of such an acrimonious nature, that it will either burn the skin or cause very dangerous eruptions.

Such are these animals in their domestic state; but as they are found wild in very great numbers, they exhibit marks of great force and agility in their state of nature. The stag is scarcely more swift, or the goat or the chamois a better climber. All its shapes are more delicate and strong; its colour is tawny, and its wool is but short; in their native forests they are gregarious animals, and are often seen in flocks of two or three hundred at a time. When they perceive a stranger they regard him at first with astonishment, without marking any fear or surprise; but shortly, as if by common consent, they snuff up the air, somewhat like horses, and at once, by a general flight, take refuge on the tops of the mountains. They are fonder of the northern than the southern side of the Andes; they often climb above the snowy tracts of the mountain, and seem vigorous in proportion to the coldness of their situation. The natives hunt the wild lama for the sake of its fleece. If the dogs surprise one upon the plain they are generally successful; but if once the lama obtains the rocky precipice of the mountain, the hunters are obliged to desist in their pursuit.

The lama seems to be the largest of the camel kind in America; there are others, which are called "guanacoos" and "pacoos," that are smaller and weaker, but endowed with the same nature, and formed pretty much in the same manner. They seem to bear the same proportions to each other that the horse does to the ass, and are employed with the same degree of subordination. The wool, however, of the paco seems to be the most valuable, and it is formed into stuffs not inferior to silk, either in price or beauty. The natural colour of the paco is that of a dried rose-leaf; the manufacturers seldom give its wool any other dye, but form it into quilts and carpets, which exceed those from the Levant. This manufacture forms a very considerable branch of commerce in South America, and probably might be extended to Europe, were the beauty and the durability of what is thus wrought up sufficiently known.

CHAP. VIII.

THE NYL-GHAU.

This animal, the name of which is pronounced *nylgau*, is a native of India, and has but lately been imported into Europe; it seems to be of a middle nature between the cow and the deer, and carries the appearance of both in its form. In its size, it is as much smaller than the one as it is larger than the other; its body, horns, and tail are not unlike those of a bull; the head, neck, and legs are very like those of a deer. The colour in general is ash or grey, from a mixture of black hairs and white; all along the ridge or the edge of the neck the hair is blacker, larger, and more erect, making a short, thin, and upright mane. Its horns are seven inches long—they are six inches round at the root, growing smaller by degrees, and terminate in a blunt point. The bluntness of these, together with the form of its head and neck, might incline us to suppose it was of the deer kind; but, as it never sheds its horns, it has a greater affinity to the cow.

From the disposition of that brought over to this country, which has been very accurately and minutely described by Dr. Hunter, their manners were harmless and gentle. Although in its native wildness it is said to be fierce and vicious, this seemed pleased with every kind of familiarity, and always licked the hand that stroked or gave it bread, and never once attempted to

use its horns offensively; it seemed to have much dependence on its organs of smell, and snuffed keenly, and with noise, whenever any person came within sight; it did so likewise when any food or drink was brought to it; and was so easily offended with smells, or so cautious, that it would not taste the bread which was offered when the hand happened to smell strong of turpentine. Its manner of fighting is very particular. It was observed at Lord Clive's, where two males were put into a little enclosure, that, while they were at a distance from each other they prepared for the attack by falling upon their fore-knees; they then shuffled towards each other with a quick pace, keeping still upon their fore-knees; and when they were come within some yards, they made a spring and darted against each other. The intrepidity and force with which they dart against any object appeared by the strength with which one of them attempted to overturn a poor labourer, who unthinkingly stood on the outside of the pales of its enclosure. The nyl-ghau, with the quickness of lightning, darted against the wood-work with such violence that he broke it to pieces, and broke off one of his horns close to the root, which occasioned the animal's death. At all the places in India where we have settlements they are considered as rarities, and brought from the distant interior parts of the country. The Emperor sometimes kills them in such numbers as to distribute quarters of them to all his omrahs—which shows that they are internally wild and in plenty, and esteemed good, delicious food. The nyl-ghaus which have been brought to England have been most, if not all of them, received from Surat or Bombay; and they seem to be less uncommon in that part of India than in Bengal, which gives room for a conjecture that they may be indigenous, perhaps, in the province of Guzarat—one of the most western and most considerable of the Hindostan empire, lying to the northward of Surat, and stretching away to the Indian Ocean.

CHAP. IX.

THE BEAR.

Of the bear there are three different kinds—the brown bear of the Alps, the black bear of North America (which is smaller), and the great Greenland or white bear. These, though different in their forms, are no doubt of the same origin, and owe their chief variations to food and climate. They have all the same habitudes, being equally carnivorous, treacherous, and cruel. It has been said, indeed, that the black bear of America rejects animal food; but of the contrary I am certain, as I have often seen the young ones which are brought over to London prefer flesh to every kind of vegetable aliment.

The "brown bear" is properly an inhabitant of the temperate climates; the black finds subsistence in the northern regions of Europe and America; while the great white bear takes refuge in the most icy climates, and lives where scarce any other animal can find subsistence.

The brown bear is not only savage but solitary; he takes refuge in the most unfrequented parts and the most dangerous precipices of uninhabited mountains. It chooses its den in the most gloomy parts of the forest, in some cavern that has been hollowed by time, or in the hollow of some old enormous tree. There it retires alone, and passes some months of the winter without provisions, or without ever stirring abroad. However, this animal is not entirely deprived of sensation like the bat or the dormouse, but seems rather to subsist upon the exuberance of its former flesh, and only feels the calls of appetite when the fat it had acquired in sum-

mer begins to be entirely wasted away. In this manner, when the bear retires to its den to hide for the winter it is extremely fat, but at the end of forty or fifty days, when it comes forth to seek for fresh nourishment, it seems to have slept all its flesh away. It is a common report that during this time they live by sucking their paws, which is a vulgar error that scarce requires confutation. These solitary animals couple in autumn, but the time of gestation with the female is still unknown. The female takes great care to provide a proper retreat for her young; she secures them in the hollow of a rock, and provides a bed of hay in the warmest part of her den. She brings forth in winter, and the young ones begin to follow her in spring. The male and female by no means inhabit the same den; they have each their separate retreat, and seldom are seen together but upon the accessions of genial desire.

The voice of the bear is a kind of growl interrupted with rage, which is often capriciously exerted; and though this animal seems gentle and placid to its masters when tamed, yet it is still to be distrusted and managed with caution, as it is often treacherous and resentful without a cause.

This animal is capable of some degree of instruction. There are few but have seen it dance in awkward measures upon its hind-feet, to the voice or the instrument of its leader; and it must be confessed that the dancer is often found to be the best performer of the two. I am told that it is first taught to perform in this manner by setting it upon hot plates of iron, and then playing to it while in this uneasy situation.

The bear when come to maturity can never be tamed; it then continues in its native fierceness, and, though caged, still formidably impotent, at the approach of its keeper flies to meet him. But notwithstanding the fierceness of this animal, the natives in those countries where it is found hunt it with great perseverance and alacrity. The least dangerous method of capture is by intoxicating it, by throwing brandy upon honey, which it seems to be particularly fond of, and seeks for in the hollow of trees. In Canada, where the black bears are very common, and where their dens are made in trees that are hollow towards the top, they are taken by setting fire to their retreats, which are often about thirty feet from the ground. The old one is generally seen first to issue from her den, and is shot by the hunters. The young ones as they descend are caught in a noose, and are either kept or killed for provision. Their paws are said to be a great delicacy, and their hams are well enough known at the tables of the luxurious here. Their fat, also, which still preserves a certain degree of fluidity, is supposed to be an efficacious remedy in white or indolent tumours, though probably very little superior to hogs-lard.

The "white Greenland bear" differs greatly both in figure and dimensions from those already described; and though it preserves in general the external form of its more southern kindred, yet it grows to above three times the size. The brown bear is seldom above six feet long; the white bear is often known from twelve to thirteen. The brown bear is made rather strong and sturdy, like the mastiff; the Greenland bear, though covered with very long hair and apparently bulky, is nevertheless more slender, both as to the head, neck, and body, and more inclining to the shape of the greyhound. In short, all the variations of its figure and its colour seem to proceed from the coldness of the climate where it resides, and the nature of the food it is supplied with.

The white bear seems the only animal that, by being placed in the coldest climate, grows larger than those that live in the temperate zones. All other species of Animated Nature diminish as they approach the poles, and seem contracted in their size by the rigours of the ambient atmosphere; but the bear, being unmolested

in these desolate climates, and meeting no animal but what he can easily conquer, finding also a sufficient supply of fishy provisions, he grows to an enormous size; and as the lion is the tyrant of an African forest, so the bear remains undisputed master of the icy mountains in Spitzbergen and Greenland. When our mariners land upon those shores in such parts as have not been frequented before, the white bears come down to view them with an awkward curiosity; they approach slowly, seeming undetermined whether to advance or retreat, and being naturally a timorous animal, they are only urged on by the conscious experience of their former victories; however, when they are shot at or wounded they endeavour to fly, or, finding that impracticable, they make a fierce and desperate resistance till they die. As they live upon fish and seals their flesh is too strong for food, and the captors have nothing but the skin to reward them for the dangers incurred in the engagement.

The number of these animals that are found about the north-pole, if we consider the scarcity thereof, of all other terrestrial creatures is very amazing. They are not only seen on land, but often on ice-floats several leagues at sea. They are often transported in this manner to the very shores of Iceland, where they no sooner land but all the natives are in arms to receive them. It often happens, that when a Greenland and his wife are paddling out at sea, by coming too near an ice-float a white bear unexpectedly jumps into their boat, and if he does not overset it, sits calmly where he first came down, and, like a passenger, suffers himself to be rowed along. It is probable the poor little Greenland is not very fond of his new guest; however, he makes a virtue of necessity, and hospitably rows him to shore.

As this animal lives chiefly upon fish, seals, and dead whales, it seldom removes far from the shore. When forced by hunger it often ventures into the deep, swims after seals, and devours whatever it can seize; it is, however, but a bad swimmer, and it is often hunted in this manner by boats till it is fatigued, and at last destroyed. It often happens that a battle ensues between a bear and a morse and a whale, but as the latter are more expert in their own element they generally prove victorious. However, when the bear can find a young whale it repays him for the danger he incurs from meeting with the parent.

CHAP. X.

THE BADGER.

The badger's legs are so short that its belly seems to touch the ground; this, however, is but a deceitful appearance, as it is caused by the length of the hair, which is very long all over the body, and makes it seem much more bulky than it really is. It is a solitary, stupid animal, that finds refuge remote from man, and digs a hole with great assiduity. It seems to avoid the light, and seldom quits its retreat by day, only stealing out at night to find subsistence. It burrows in the ground quite easily, its legs being short and strong, and its claws stiff and horny. As it continues to bury itself, it throws the earth behind it to a great distance, thus forming to itself a winding hole, at the bottom of which it remains in safety. As the fox is not so expert at digging into the earth, it often takes possession of that which has been quitted by the badger; some say it forces it from its retreat by laying its excrements at the mouth of the badger's hole.

This animal, however, is not long in making itself a new habitation, from which it seldom ventures far, as it flies but slowly, and can find safety only in the strength of its retreat. When it is surprised by the dogs at some



WHALEERS ATTACKED
by
POLAR BEARS

W Spent Neville St. Hall.



distance from its hole it then combats with desperate resolution; it falls upon its back, defends itself on every side, and seldom dies unrevengeed in the midst of its enemies.

The badger, like the fox, is a carnivorous animal, and nothing that has life can come amiss to it. It sleeps the greatest part of its time; and thus, without being a voracious feeder, it still keeps fat, particularly in winter. They always keep their hole very clean, and when the female brings forth, she makes a comfortable warm bed of hay at the bottom of her hole for the reception of her young. She brings forth in summer, generally to the number of three or four, which she feeds at first with her milk, and afterwards with such petty prey as she can surprise. She seizes the young rabbits in their warren, robs birds' nests, finds out where the wild bees have laid up their honey, and brings all to her expecting brood.

The young ones when taken are easily tamed, but the old ones still continue savage and incorrigible. After a short time the young ones play with the dogs, follow their master about the house, but seem of all other animals the most partial to the fire: they often approach it so closely that they burn themselves in a dangerous manner. They are sometimes also subject to the mange, and have a gland under the tail which scents pretty strongly. The poor of some countries eat their flesh, which, though fat, is at best but rank and ill-tasted.

CHAP. XI.

THE TAPIR.

There seems to be a rude but inferior resemblance between many animals of the old and the new world. The cougar of America resembles the tiger in natural ferocity, though far inferior in its dimensions. The lama bears some affinity to the camel, but is far behind it in strength and utility. The tapir may be considered as the hippopotamus of the new continent, but degraded both as to size and ferocity.

This animal bears some distant resemblance in its form to a mule. It has a long snout, which it lengthens or contracts at pleasure. Its ears are small, long, and pendant. Its neck and tail are short, and its claws strong and firm, of which it has four upon each foot. Its skin is thick, covered with brown hair; and the natives make shields of it, which cannot be pierced by an arrow.

This animal may in some measure be termed amphibious, as it chiefly resides in the water. It differs, however, from all others of this kind in feeding entirely upon vegetables, and not making this element the place of its depredations. It feeds upon the pastures by the river-side, and, as it is very timorous, the instant it hears the least noise it plunges into the stream. They are greatly sought after by the natives, as their flesh is considered as a delicacy, and thought by some not inferior to beef.

CHAP. XII.

THE RACCOON.

The racoon, which some authors have called the Jamaica rat, is about the size of a small badger; its body is short and bulky; its fur is fine, long, and thick, blackish at the surface and grey towards the bottom; the nose is rather shorter and more pointed than that of a fox; the eyes large and yellow, the teeth resembling those of a dog, the tail thick, but tapering towards a point, regularly marked with rings of black, and at

least as long as the body; the fore-feet are much shorter than the hinder, both armed with five sharp claws, with which, and his teeth, the animal makes a vigorous resistance. Like the squirrel, it makes use of its paws to hold its food while eating; but it differs from the monkey kind, which use but one hand on those occasions, whereas the racoon and the squirrel use both—as, wanting the thumb, their paws singly are unfit for grasping or holding. Though this animal be short and bulky, it is, however, very active; its pointed claws enable it to climb trees with great facility; it runs on the trunk with the same swiftness that it moves upon the plain, and sports among the most extreme branches with great agility, security, and ease; it moves forward chiefly by bounding, and though it proceeds in an oblique direction, it has speed enough most frequently to escape its pursuers.

This animal is a native of the southern parts of America, nor have any travellers mentioned its being found in the ancient continent. But in the climates of which it is a native it is found in noxious abundance, particularly in Jamaica, where it keeps in the mountains, and where it often descends to feed upon the plantations of sugar-cane. The planters of these climates consider these animals as one of their greatest miseries; they have contrived various methods of destroying them, yet still they propagate in such numbers that neither traps nor fire-arms can set them free; so that a swarm of these famished creatures are found to do more injury in a single night than the labours of a month can repair.

But though when wild they are thus troublesome, in a state of tameness no animal is more harmless or amusing; they are capable of being instructed in various little amusing tricks. The racoon is playful and cleanly, and is very easily supported; it eats of everything that is given it, and if left to itself no cat can be a better provider; it examines every corner, eats of all flesh, either boiled or raw, eggs, fruits, or corn; insects themselves cannot escape it, and if left at liberty in a garden, it will feed upon snails, worms, and beetles; but it has a particular fondness for sweets of every kind, and to be possessed of these in its wild state it incurs every danger. Though it will eat its provisions dry, it will for choice dip them in water if it happens to be in the way; it has one peculiarity which few other animals have been found to possess—it drinks as well by lapping like the dog as by sucking like the horse.

CHAP. XIII.

THE COATIMONDI.

The first peculiarity with which this animal strikes the spectator is the extreme length of its snout, which in some measure resembles that of the hog, but elongated to a surprising degree; it bears some distant resemblance to the animal last described, except that the neck and the body are longer, the fur shorter, and the eyes smaller; but its principal distinction, as was said before, consists in the shape of its nose—the upper jaw being an inch longer than the lower, and the snout, which is moveable in every division, turning up at the end. Like the racoon, it sits up on the hinder legs with great ease, and in this position carries the food with both paws to its mouth.

This animal is very subject to eat its own tail, which is rather longer than its body; but this strange appetite is not peculiar to the coat alone—the mocooco and some of the monkey kinds do the same, and seem to feel no pain in wounding a part of the body so remote from the centre of circulation.

It seems possessed of the same playful qualities and

indiscriminate appetites with the animal described in the last chapter; if left at liberty in a state of tameness it will pursue the poultry, and destroy every living thing that it has strength to conquer. Though it is playful with its keeper, yet it seems obstinately bent against receiving any instruction, and neither threats nor caresses can induce it to practice any arts to which it is not naturally inclined. When it sleeps it rolls itself up in a lump, and in that position often continues for fourteen or fifteen hours together.

CHAP. XIV.

THE ANT-BEAR.

There are many animals that live upon ants in Africa and America; the pangolin or scaly lizard of Guinea may be considered among this number; but there are a greater variety in America which make those minute insects their only subsistence. Though they are of different figures and sizes, yet in general they go under one common name of the "ant-bear." The peculiar length and slenderness of their snout, their singular appetites, and their manner of taking their prey, strike us too strongly to attend to the minute differences of their size or form.

They have been classed by Mr. Buffon into the "larger tamandua," the "smaller tamandua," and the "ant-eater." The largest of this kind is four feet long from the tip of the snout to the insertion of the tail; their legs are short, and armed with four strong claws; their tail is long and tufted, and the animal often throws it on its back like the squirrel. The second of this kind is not above eighteen inches long, the tail is without hair, and it sweeps the ground as the animal moves. The ant-eater, which is the third variety, is still smaller than either of the former, as it is not above seven inches from the tip of the snout to the insertion of the tail. The two former are of a brown dusky colour, but this is of a beautiful redish mixed with yellow; though they differ in figure, they all resemble each other in one peculiarity, which is the extreme slenderness of their snout and the amazing length of their tongue.

The snout is produced in so disproportionate a manner, that the length of it makes near a fourth part of the whole figure. A horse has one of the longest heads of any animal we know; and yet the ant-bear has one above twice as long in proportion to its body. The snout of this animal is almost round and cylindrical; it is extremely slender, and is scarce thicker near the eyes than at its extremity. The mouth is very small, the nostrils are very close to each other, the eyes are little in proportion to the length of the nose, the neck is short, the tongue is extremely long, slender, and flattened on both sides; this it keeps generally doubled up in the mouth, and is the only instrument by which it finds subsistence; for the whole of this tribe are entirely without teeth, and find safety only in the remoteness and security of their retreat.

If we examine through the various regions of the earth, we shall find that all the most active, sprightly, and useful quadrupeds have been gathered round man, and either served his pleasures or still maintained their independence by their vigilance, their cunning, or their industry. It is in the remote solitudes that we are to look for the helpless, the deformed, and the monstrous births of Nature. These wretched animals being incapable of defending themselves, either by their agility or their natural arms, fall a prey to every creature that attacks them; they therefore retire for safety into the darkest forests or the most desert mountains, where none of the bolder or swifter animals choose to reside.

It may well be supposed that an animal so helpless as

the ant-bear—with legs too short to fit it for flight, and unprovided with teeth to give it a power of resistance—is neither numerous nor often seen; its retreats are in the most barren and uncultivated parts of South America. It is a native only of the new continent, and entirely unknown to the old. It lives chiefly in the woods, and hides itself under the fallen leaves. It seldom ventures from its retreat, and the industry of an hour supplies it with sufficient food for several days together. Its manner of procuring its prey is one of the most singular in all natural history; as its name implies, it lives entirely upon ants and insects; these, in the countries where it is bred, are found in the greatest abundance, and often build themselves hills five or six feet high, where they live in community. When this animal approaches an ant-hill it creeps slowly forward on its belly, taking every precaution to keep itself concealed, till it comes within a proper distance of the place where it intends to make its banquet; there, lying closely along at its length, it thrusts forth its round red tongue, which is often two feet long, across the path of these busy insects, and there lets it lie motionless for several minutes together. The ants of that country, some of which are half an inch long, considering it as a piece of flesh accidentally thrown before them, come forth and swarm upon it in great numbers, but wherever they touch they stick; for this instrument is covered with a slimy fluid, which, like bird-lime, entangles every creature that lights upon it. When, therefore, the ant-bear has found a sufficient number for one morsel, it instantly draws in the tongue, and devours them all in a moment; after which it still continues in its position practising the same arts until its hunger is entirely appeased; it then retires to its hiding-place once more, where it continues in indolent existence till again excited by the calls of hunger.

Such is the luxurious life of a creature that seems of all others the most helpless and deformed. It finds safety in its hiding-places from its enemies, and an ample supply in some neighbouring ant-hill for all its appetites. As it only tries to avoid its pursuers, it is seldom discovered by them; yet helpless as this animal is, when driven to an extremity, though without teeth, it will fight with its claws with great obstinacy. With these arms alone it has often been found to oppose the dog, and even the jaguar. It throws itself upon its back, fastens upon its enemy with all its claws, sticks with great strength and perseverance, and even after killing its invader, which is sometimes the case, does not quit its hold, but remains fastened upon it with vindictive desperation.

CHAP. XV.

OF THE SLOTH.

Of the sloth there are two different kinds, distinguished from each other by their claws; the one, which in its native country is called the "unan," having only two claws upon each foot, and being without a tail; the other, which is called the "ai," having a tail and three claws upon each foot. The unan has the snout longer, the ears more apparent, and the fur very different from the other. It differs also in the number of its ribs, this having forty-six, while the ai has but twenty-eight. These differences, however, which, though very apparent, have been but little regarded in the description of two animals which so strongly resemble each other in the general outlines of their figure, in their appetites, and their helpless formation.

They are both, therefore, described under the common appellation of the "sloth," and their habits well deserve our wonder and curiosity. Nature seems

cramped and constrained in their formation; other animals are often indolent from choice—these are slow from necessity; the ai, from which I shall take my description, and from which the other differs only in the slight particulars above mentioned, and in being rather more active, is about the size of a badger. Its fur is coarse and staring, somewhat resembling dried grass; the tail very short, and scarce appearing; the mouth extending from ear to ear; the eye dull and heavy; the feet armed with three claws each, and made so short and set on so awkwardly that a few paces is often the journey of a week; but though the feet are short, they are still longer than its legs, and these proceed from the body in such an oblique direction that the sole of the foot seldom touches the ground. When the animal, therefore, is compelled to make a step forward, it scrapes on the back of the nails along the surface, and, wheeling the limbs circularly about, yet still touching the ground, it at length places its foot in a progressive position; the other three limbs are all brought about with the same difficulty; and thus it is seen to move not above three feet in an hour. In fact, this poor creature seldom changes place but by constraint, and when impelled by the severest stings of hunger.

The sloth seems to be the meanest and most ill-formed of all those animals that chew the cud; it lives entirely upon vegetable food, on the leaves, the fruit, and the flowers of trees, and often even on the very bark when nothing else is left on the tree for its subsistence. Like all other ruminant animals it has four stomachs; and these requiring a large share of provision to supply them, it generally strips a tree of all its verdure in less than a fortnight. Still, however, it keeps aloft, unwilling to descend while anything remains that can serve it for food; it therefore fails to devouring the bark, and thus in a short time it kills the tree upon which it found its support. Thus destitute of provisions above, and crawling slowly from branch to branch, in hopes of finding something still left, it is at last obliged to encounter all the dangers that attend it below. Though it is formed by Nature for climbing a tree with great pain and difficulty, yet it is utterly unable to descend; it therefore is obliged to drop from the branches to the ground, and as it is incapable of exerting itself to break the violence of its descent, it drops like a shapeless, heavy mass, and feels no small shock in the fall. There, after remaining some time torpid, it prepares for a journey to some neighbouring tree; but this of all migrations is the most tedious, dangerous, and painful; it often takes a week in crawling to a tree not fifty yards distant; it moves with imperceptible slowness, and often baits by the way. All motions seem to torture it, every step it takes it sets forth a most plaintive, melancholy cry, which, from some distant similitude to the human voice, excites a kind of disgust mixed with pity. This plaintive sound seems its chief defence; few quadrupeds appear willing to interrupt its progress—either that the flesh is offensive, or that they are terrified at its cries. When at length they reach their destined tree, they mount it with much greater ease than when they moved upon the plain. They fall to with famished appetite, and, as before, destroy the very source that supplies them.

How far these may be considered as the unfinished productions of Nature I will not take upon me to determine; if we measure their happiness by our sensations, nothing, it is certain, can be more miserable; but it is probable, considered with regard to themselves, they may have some stores of comfort unknown to us, which may set them on a level with some other inferior ranks of the creation; if a part of their life be exposed to pain and labour, it is compensated by a larger portion of plenty, indolence, and safety. In fact, they are formed very differently from all other quadrupeds, and it is probable they have different enjoyments. Like birds, they have but one common vent for the purposes of propagation,

excrement, and urine. Like the tortoise, which they resemble in the slowness of their motion, they continue to live some time after their nobler parts are wounded, or even taken away. They bear the marks of all those homely-formed animals that, like rude machines, are not easily discomposed.

Its note, according to Kircher, is an ascending and descending hexachord, which it utters only by night; its look is so piteous as to move compassion; it is also accompanied with tears, that dissuade every body from injuring so wretched a being. Its abstinence from food is remarkably powerful; one that had fastened itself by its feet to a pole, and was so suspended across two beams, remained forty days without meat, drink, or sleep; the strength of its feet is so great, that whatsoever it seizes on cannot possibly be freed from its claws. A dog was let loose at the above-mentioned animal, taken from the pole; after some time the sloth laid hold of the dog with its feet, and held him four days, till he perished with hunger.

CHAP. XVI.

THE GERBUA.

This animal as little resembles a quadruped as that which has been described in a former chapter. If we should suppose a bird divested of its feathers and walking upon its legs, it might give us some idea of its figure. It has four feet indeed, but in running or resting it never makes use of any but the hinder. The number of legs, however, do not much contribute to any animal's speed; and the gerbua (though, properly speaking, furnished but with two) is one of the swiftest creatures in the world.

The gerbua is not above the size of a large rat, and its head is sloped somewhat in the manner of a rabbit; the teeth are also formed like those of the rat kind, there being two cutting teeth in each jaw; it has a very long tail, tufted at the end; the head, the back, and the sides are covered with large ash-coloured soft hair; the breast and belly are whitish. But what most deserves our attention in the formation of this little animal is the legs; the fore-legs are not an inch long, with four claws and a thumb upon each, while the hinder legs are two inches and a quarter, and exactly resemble those of a bird, there being but three toes, the middlemost of which is longest.

The gerbua is found in Egypt, Barbary, Palestine, and the deserts between Busserah and Aleppo; its hind-legs, as was said before, are only used in running, while the fore-paws, like those of a squirrel, grasp its food, and in some measure perform the office of hands. It is often seen by travellers as they pass along the deserts, crossing their way, jumping six or eight feet at every bound, and going so swiftly that scarce any other quadruped is able to overtake it. They are a lively, harmless race of animals, living entirely upon vegetables, and burrowing like rabbits in the ground. Mr. Pennant tells us of two that were lately brought to London, that burrowed almost through the brick wall of the room where they were kept; they came out of their hole at night for food, and when caught were much fatter and sleeker than when confined to their burrows. A variety of this animal is also found in Siberia and Circassia, and is most probably common enough over all Asia. They are more expert diggers than even the rabbit itself; and when pursued for a long time, if they cannot escape by their swiftness they instantly try to make a hole in the ground, in which they often bury themselves deep enough to find security before their pursuers come up. Their burrows in some places are so thick as to be dangerous to travellers, the horses

perpetually falling in them. It is a provident little animal, and lays up for the winter. It cuts grass in heaps of a foot square, which when dried it carries into its burrow, therewith to serve for food, and to keep its young warm during the rigours of the winter.

But of all animals of this kind, that which was first discovered and described by Mr. Banks is the most extraordinary. He calls it the "kangaroo;" and though, from its general outline and the most striking peculiarities of its figure it greatly resembles the gerbua, yet it entirely differs if we consider its size, or those minute distinctions which direct the makers of systems in assorting the general ranks of Nature.

The largest of the gerbua kind which are to be found in the ancient continent do not exceed the size of a rabbit. The kangaroo of New Holland, where it is only to be found, is often known to weigh above sixty pounds, and must consequently be as large as a sheep. Although the skin of that which was stuffed and brought home by Mr. Banks was not much above the size of a hare, yet it was greatly superior to any of the gerbua kind that have been hitherto known, and very different in many particulars. The snout of the gerbua, as has been said, is short and round—that of the discovered animal long and slender; the teeth also entirely differ; for as the gerbua has but two cutting teeth in each jaw, making four in all, this animal, beside its cutting teeth, has four canine teeth also; but what makes a more striking peculiarity is the formation of its lower jaw, which, as the ingenious discoverer supposes, is divided into two parts, which open and shut like a pair of scissors, and cut grass—probably this animal's principal food. The head, neck, and shoulders are very small in proportion to the other parts of the body; the tail is nearly as long as the body, thick near the rump, and tapering towards the end; the skin is covered with a short fur, except the head and ears, which bear a slight resemblance to those of the hair. We are not told, however, from the formation of its stomach, to what class of quadrupeds it belongs; from its eating grass, which it has been seen to do, one would be apt to rank it among the ruminant animals; but from the canine teeth which it is found to have, we may on the other hand suppose it to bear some relation to the carnivorous. Upon the whole, however, it can be classed with none more properly than with animals of the gerbua kind, as its hind-legs are so much longer than the fore; it also moves precisely in the same manner, taking great bounds of ten or twelve feet at a time, and thus sometimes escaping even the fleetest greyhound with which Mr. Banks pursued it. One of them that was killed proved to be good food; but a second, which weighed eighty-four pounds, but was not yet come to its full growth, was found to be much inferior.

With this last-described and last-discovered animal I shall conclude the history of quadrupeds, which of all parts of natural knowledge seems to have been described the most accurately. As these, from their figure as well as their sagacity, bear the nearest resemblance to man, and from their uses or enmities are the most respectable parts of the inferior creation, so it was his interest and his pleasure to make himself acquainted with their true history. It is probable, therefore, that time, which enlarges the sphere of our knowledge in other parts of learning, can add but very little to this. The addition of a new quadruped to the catalogue already known is of no small consequence, and happens but seldom; for the number of all is so few, that wherever a new one is found it becomes an object worthy our best attention. It may take refuge in its native deserts from our pursuit, but not from our curiosity.

But it is different with the inferior ranks of creation; the classes of birds, of fishes, and of insects are much more numerous, and equally less known. The quadruped is possessed of no arts of escaping which we are

not able to overcome; but the bird removes itself by its swiftness—the fishes find protection in their native element—and insects are secured in their minuteness, numbers, and variety. Of all these, therefore, we have but a very inadequate catalogue, and though the list be already very large, yet every hour is adding to their extent.

In fact, all knowledge is pleasant only as the object of it contributes to render man happy; and the services of quadrupeds being so very necessary to him in every situation, he is particularly interested in their history: without their aid, what a wretched and forlorn creature would he have been! the principal part of his food, his clothing, and his amusements are derived wholly from them; and he may be considered as a great lord, sometimes cherishing his humble dependents, and sometimes terrifying the refractory, to contribute to his delight and convenience.

The horse and the ass, the elephant, the camel, the lama, and the rein-deer, contribute to ease his fatigues, and to give him that swiftness which he wants from Nature. By their assistance he changes place without labour; he attains health without weariness; his pride is enlarged by the elegance of equipage, and other animals are pursued with a certainty of success. It were happy indeed if, while converting these quadrupeds to his own benefit, he had not turned them to the destruction of his fellow-creatures; he has employed some of them for the purposes of war, and they have conformed to his noxious ambition with but too fatal an obedience.

The cow, the sheep, the deer, and all their varieties, are necessary to him, though in a different manner. Their flesh makes the principal luxuries of his table, and their wool or skins the chief ornament of his person. Even those nations that are forbid to touch anything that has life cannot wholly dispense with their assistance. The milk of these animals makes a principal part of the food of every country, and often repairs those constitutions that have been broken by disease or intemperance.

The dog, the cat, and the ferret may be considered as having deserted from their fellow-quadrupeds to enlist themselves under the conduct and protection of man. At his command they exert all their services against such animals as they are capable of destroying, and follow them into places where he himself wants abilities to pursue.

As there is thus a numerous tribe that he has taken into protection, and that supplies his necessities and amusements, so there is also a still more numerous one that wages an unequal combat against him, and thus calls forth his courage and his industry. Were it not for the lion, the tiger, the panther, the rhinoceros, and the bear, he would scarce know his own powers, and the superiority of human art over brutal fierceness. These serve to excite, and put his nobler passions into motion. He attacks them in their retreat, faces them with resolution, and seldom fails of coming off with a victory. He thus becomes hardier and better in the struggle, and learns to know and to value his own superiority.

As the last-mentioned animals are called forth by his belated efforts, so the numerous tribe of the smaller vermin kind excite his continual vigilance and caution; his various arts and powers have been nowhere more manifest than in the extirpation of those that multiply with such prodigious fecundity. Neither their agility nor their minuteness can secure them from his pursuits; and though they may infest, they are seldom found materially to injure him.

In this manner we see that not only human want is supplied, but that human wit is sharpened by the baseliest partners of man in the creation. By this we see that not only their benefits but their depredations are useful, and that it has wisely pleased Providence to place us like victors in a subdued country, where we have all the benefit of conquest without being so secure as to run in the sloth and excesses of a certain and un-

disturbed possession. It appears, therefore, that those writers who are continually finding immediate benefit in every production see but half way into the general system of Nature. Experience must every hour inform

us that all animals are not formed for our use; but we may be equally well assured, that those conveniences which we want from their friendship are well repaid by that vigilance which we procure from their enmity.



PART IV.

OF BIRDS IN GENERAL.

BOOK I.—CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.—We are now come to a beautiful and loquacious race of animals, that embellish our forests, amuse our walks, and exclude solitude from our most shady retirements. From these man has nothing to fear; their pleasures, their desires, and even their animosities, only serve to enliven the general picture of Nature, and give harmony to meditation.

No part of Nature appears destitute of inhabitants. The woods, the waters, the depths of the earth, have their respective tenants; while the yielding air, and those tracts of seeming space where man never can ascend, are also passed through by multitudes of the most beautiful beings of the creation.

Every order and rank of animals seems fitted for its situation in life, but none more apparently than birds; they share in common with the stronger race of quadrupeds the vegetable spoils of the earth, are supplied with swiftness to compensate for the want of force, and have a faculty of ascending into the air to avoid that power which they cannot oppose.

The bird seems formed entirely for a life of escape, and every part of the anatomy of the animal seems calculated for a life of swiftness. As it is designed to rise upon air, all its parts are proportionably light, and expand a large surface without solidity.

In a comparative view with man, their formation seems much ruder and more imperfect; and they are in general found incapable of the docility even of quadrupeds. Indeed, what great degree of sagacity can be expected in animals whose eyes are almost as large as their brain? However, though they fall below the quadrupeds in the scale of Nature, and are less imitative of human endowments, yet they hold the next rank, and far surpass fishes and insects, both in the structure of their bodies and in their sagacity.

As in mechanics the most curious instruments are generally the most complicated, so it is in anatomy. The body of man presents the greatest variety on dissection; quadrupeds, less perfectly formed, discover their defects in the simplicity of their conformation; the mechanism of birds is still less complex; fishes are furnished with fewer organs still; while insects, more imperfect than all, seem to fill up the chasm that separates animal from vegetable nature. Of man, the most perfect animal, there are but three or four species; of quadrupeds the number are more numerous; birds are more various still; fishes yet more; but insects afford so very great a variety, that they elude the search of the most inquisitive power.

Quadrupeds, as was said, have some distant resemblance in their internal structure with man; but that

of birds is entirely dissimilar. As they seem chiefly formed to inhabit the empty regions of air, all their parts are adapted to their destined situation. It will be proper, therefore, before I give a general history of birds to enter into a slight detail of their anatomy and conformation.

As to their external parts, they seem surprisingly adapted for swiftness of motion. The shape of their body is sharp before, to pierce and make way through the air; it then rises by a gentle swelling to its bulk, and falls off in an expansive tail, which helps to keep it buoyant, while the fore-parts are cleaving the air by their sharpness. From this conformation they have often been compared to a ship making its way through water; the trunk of the body answers to the hold, the head to the prow, the tail to the rudder, and the wings to the oars; from whence the poets have adopted the metaphor of "*remigium alarum*," when they described the wavy motion of a bird in flight.

What we are called upon next to admire in the external formation of birds is the neat position of the feathers, lying all one way, answering at once the purposes of warmth, speed, and security. They mostly tend backward, and are laid over one another in an exact and regular order, armed with warm and soft down next the body, and more strongly fortified and curiously closed externally to fence off the injuries of the weather. But, lest the feathers should spoil by their violent attrition against the air, or imbibe the moisture of the atmosphere, the animal is furnished with a gland behind, containing a proper quantity of oil, which can be pressed out by the bird's bill, and laid smoothly over every feather that wants to be dressed for the occasion. This gland is situated on the rump, and furnished with an opening or excretory duct, about which grows a small tuft of feathers somewhat like a painter's pencil. When, therefore, the feathers are shattered or crumpled, the bird, turning its head backwards, with the bill catches hold of the gland, and, pressing it, forces out the oily substance, with which it anoints the disjointed parts of the feathers, and, drawing them out with great assiduity, recomposes and places them in due order, by which they unite more closely together. Such poultry, however, as live for the most part under cover are not furnished with so large a stock of fluid as those birds that reside in the open air. The feathers of a hen, for instance, are pervious to every shower; on the contrary, swans, geese, ducks, and all such as Nature has directed to live upon the water, have their feathers dressed with oil from the very first day of their leaving the shell. Thus their stock of fluid is equal to the necessity of its consumption. Their very flesh contracts a flavour from it, which renders it in some very rancid, so as to make it

utterly unfit for food; however, though it injures the flesh it improves the feathers for all the domestic purposes to which they are usually converted.

Nor are the feathers with which birds are covered less an object of admiration. The shaft of every feather is made proportionably strong, but hollow below for strength and lightness, and above filled with a pith to feed the growth of the vane or beard that springs from the shaft of the feather on either side. All these feathers are placed generally according to their length and strength, so that the largest and strongest feathers in flight have the greatest share of duty. The vane or beard of the feather is formed with equal contrivance and care. It consists not of one continued membrane—because, if this were broken, it could not easily be repaired; but is composed of many layers, each somewhat in itself resembling a feather, and lying against each other in close conjunction. Towards the shaft of the feather these layers are broad, and of a semicircular form, to serve for strength, and for the closer grafting them one against another when in action. Towards the outer part of the vane these layers grow slender and taper, to be more light. On their under-side they are thin and smooth, but their upper outer edge is parted into two hairy edges, each side having a different sort of hairs, broad at bottom and slender and bearded above. By this mechanism the hooked beards of one layer always lie next the straight beards of the next, and by that means lock and hold each other.

The next object that comes under consideration in contemplating an animal that flies is the wing, the instrument by which this wonderful progression is performed. In such birds as fly, they are usually placed at that part of the body which serves to poise the whole, and support it in a fluid that at first seems so much lighter than itself. They answer to the fore-legs in quadrupeds, and at the extremity of this they have a certain finger-like appendix, which is usually called the "bastard-wing." This instrument of flight is furnished with quills, which differ from the common feathers only in their size being larger, and also from their springing from the deeper part of the skin, their shafts lying almost close to the bone. The beards of these quills are broad on one side and more narrow on the other, both which contribute to the progressive motion of the bird and the closeness of the wing. The manner in which most birds avail themselves of these at first is thus:—They quit the earth with a bound, in order to have room for flapping with the wing: when they have room for this, they strike the body of air beneath the wing with a violent motion, and with the whole under surface of the same; but then, to avoid striking the air with equal violence on the upper side as they rise, the wing is instantly contracted; so that the animal rises by the impulse till it spreads the wing for a second blow. For this reason we always see birds choose to rise against the wind, because they have thus a greater body of air on the under than the upper side of the wing. For these reasons, also, large fowls do not rise easily; both because they have not sufficient room at first for the motion of their wings, and because the body of air does not lie so directly under the wing as they rise.

In order to move the wings, all birds are furnished with two strong pectoral muscles, which lie on each side of the breast-bone. The pectoral muscles of quadrupeds are trifling in comparison to those of birds. In quadrupeds, as well as in man, the muscles which move the thighs and hinder parts of the body are by far the most powerful, while those of the arms are feeble; but in birds, which make use of their wings, the contrary obtains—the pectoral muscles that move the wings or arms are of enormous strength, while those of the thighs are weak and slender. By means of these a bird can move its wings with a degree of strength which, compared to

the animal's size, is almost incredible. The flap of a swan's wing would break a man's leg; and a similar blow from an eagle has been known to lay a man dead in an instant. Such, consequently, is the force of the wing and such its lightness as to be inimitable by Art. No machines that human skill can contrive are capable of giving such force to so light an apparatus. The art of flying, therefore, that has so often and so fruitlessly been sought after, must, it is feared, for ever be unattainable—since as man increases the force of his flying machine he must be obliged to increase its weight also.

In all birds, except nocturnal ones, the head is smaller, and bears less proportion to the body than in quadrupeds, that it may more readily divide the air in flying, and make way for the body so as to render its passage more easy. Their eyes, also, are more flat and depressed than in quadrupeds; a circle of small plates of bone, placed scalewise under the outer coat of the organ, encompasses the pupil on each to strengthen and defend it from injuries. Beside this, birds have a kind of skin called the nictitating membrane, with which, like a veil, they can at pleasure cover their eyes though their eyelids continue open. This membrane takes its rise from the greater or more obtuse corner of the eye, and serves to wipe, cleanse, and probably to moisten its surface. The eyes, though they outwardly appear but small, yet separately each almost equals the brain; whereas in man the brain is more than twenty times larger than the orbit of the eye. Nor is this organ in birds less adapted for vision by a particular expansion of the optic nerve, which renders the impressions of external objects more vivid and distinct.

From this conformation of the eye, it follows that the sense of seeing in birds is infinitely superior to that of other animals. Indeed, this piercing sight seems necessary to the creature's support and safety. Were this organ blunter, from the rapidity of the bird's motion it would be apt to strike against every object in its way; and it could scarcely find subsistence unless possessed of a power to discern its food from above with astonishing sagacity. A hawk, for instance, perceives a lark at a distance which neither men nor dogs could spy; a kite, from an almost imperceptible height in the clouds, darts down on its prey with the most unerring aim. The sight of birds, therefore, exceeds what we know in most other animals, and excels them both in strength and precision.

All birds want the external ear standing out from the head; they are only furnished with holes that convey sounds to the auditory canal. It is true, indeed, that the horned owl and one or two more birds seem to have external ears; but what bears that resemblance are only feathers sticking out on each side of the head, but no way necessary to the sense of hearing. It is probable, however, that the feathers encompassing the ear-holes in birds supply the defect of the exterior ear, and collect sounds to be transmitted to the internal sensory. The extreme delicacy of this organ is easily proved by the readiness with which birds learn tunes or repeat words, and the great exactness of their pronunciation.

The sense of smelling seems not less vivid in the generality of birds. Many of them "wind" their prey at an immense distance, while others are equally protected by this sense against their insidious pursuers. In decoys, where ducks are caught, the men who attend them universally keep a piece of turf burning near their mouths, upon which they breathe lest the fowl should smell them, and consequently fly away. The universality of this practice puts the necessity of it beyond a doubt, and proves the extreme delicacy of the sense of smelling, at least in this species of the feathered creation.

Next to the parts for flight, let us view the legs and feet ministering to motion. They are both made light for the easier transportation through the air. The toes

in some are webbed, to fit them for the waters; in others they are separate, for the better holding objects, or clinging to trees for safety. Such as have long legs have also long necks, as otherwise they would be incapable of gathering up their food either by land or water. But it does not hold, however, that those who have long necks should have long legs, since we see that swans and geese, whose necks are extremely long, have very short legs, and these chiefly employed in swimming.

Thus every external part hitherto noticed appears adapted to the life and situation of the animal; nor are the inward parts, though less immediately appropriated to flight, less necessary to safety. The bones of every part of the body are extremely light and thin; and all the muscles, except that immediately moving the wings, extremely slight and feeble. The tail, which is composed of quill feathers, serves to counterbalance the head and neck; it guides the animal's flight, like a rudder, and greatly assists it either in its ascent or when descending.

If we go on to examine birds internally, we shall find the same wonderful conformation fitting them for a life in the air, and increasing their surface by diminishing their solidity. In the first place, their lungs, which are commonly called the "sole," stick fast to the sides of the ribs and back, and can be very little dilated or contracted. But to make up for this, which might impede their breathing, the ends of the branches of the wind-pipe open into them, while these have openings into the cavity of the belly, and convey the air drawn in by breathing into certain receptacles like bladders, running along the length of the whole body. Nor are these openings obscure or difficult to be discerned; for a probe thrust into the lungs of a fowl will easily find a passage into the belly; and air blown into the wind-pipe will be seen to distend the animal's body like a bladder. In quadrupeds this passage is stopped by the midriff; but in fowls the communication is obvious; and, consequently, they have a much greater facility of taking a long and large inspiration. It is sometimes also seen that the wind-pipe makes many convolutions within the body of the bird, and it is then called the "labyrinth;" but of what use these convolutions are, or why the wind-pipe should make so many turnings within the body of some birds, is a difficulty for which no naturalist has been able to account.

This difference of the wind-pipe often obtains in animals that to all appearance are of the same species. Thus in the tame swan, the wind-pipe makes but a straight passage into the lungs; while in the wild swan, which, to all external appearance, seems the same animal, the wind-pipe pierces through the breast-bone, and there has several turnings before it comes out again and goes to enter the lungs. It is not to form the voice that these turnings are found, since the fowls that are without them are vocal; and those (particularly the bird just mentioned) that have them are silent. Whence, therefore, some birds derive that loud and various modulation in their warblings is not easily to be accounted for—at least the knife of the anatomist goes but a short way in the investigation. All that we are certain of is, that birds have much louder voices in respect to their bulk than animals of any other kind; for the bellowing of an ox is not louder than the scream of a peacock.

In these particulars birds pretty much resemble each other in their internal conformation; but there are some varieties which we should more attentively observe. All birds have, properly speaking, but one stomach; but this is very different in different kinds. In all the rapacious kinds that live upon animal food, as well as in some of the fish-feeding tribe, the stomach is peculiarly formed. The cesophagus or gullet in them is found supplied with glandulous bodies, which serve to dilate and macerate the food as it passes into the stomach, which is always very large in proportion to the size of the bird,

and generally wrapped round with fat, in order to increase its warmth and powers of digestion.

Granivorous birds, or such as live upon fruits, corn, and other vegetables, have their intestines differently formed from those of the rapacious kind. Their gullet dilates just above the breast-bone, and forms itself into a pouch or bag called the crop. This is replete with salivary glands, which serve to moisten and soften the grain and other food which it contains. These glands are very numerous, with longitudinal openings, which emit a whitish and a viscous substance. After the dry food of the bird has been macerated for a convenient time it then passes into the belly, where, instead of a soft, moist stomach, as in the rapacious kind, it is ground between two pair of muscles, commonly called the gizzard, covered on the inside with a stony, ridgy coat, almost cartilaginous. These coats rubbing against each other are capable of bruising and attenuating the hardest substances, their action being often compared to that of the grinding-teeth in man and other animals. Thus the organs of digestion are in a manner reserved in birds. Beasts grind their food with their teeth, and then it passes into the stomach, where it is softened and digested. On the contrary, birds of this sort first macerate and soften it in the crop, and then it is ground and comminuted in the stomach or gizzard. Birds are also careful to pick up sand, gravel, and other hard substances, not to grind their food, as has been supposed, but to prevent the too violent action of the coats of the stomach against each other.

Most birds have two appendices, or blind guts, which in quadrupeds are always found single. Among such birds as are thus supplied, all carnivorous fowl and all birds of the sparrow kind have very small and short ones—water-fowl and birds of the poultry kind the longest of all. There is still another appendix observable in the intestines of birds, resembling a little worm, which is nothing more than the remainder of that passage by which the yolk was conveyed into the guts of the young chicken while yet in the egg, and under incubation.

The outlet of that duct which conveys the bile into the intestines is in most birds a great way distant from the stomach; which may arise from the danger there would be of the bile regurgitating into the stomach in their various rapid motions, as we see in men at sea; wherefore their biliary duct is so contrived that this regurgitation cannot take place.

All birds, though they want a bladder for urine, have large kidneys and ureters, by which this secretion is made and carried away by one common canal. "Birds," says Harvey, "as well as serpents, which have spongy lungs, make but little water, because they drink but little. They therefore have no need of a bladder; but their urine distils down into a common canal, designed for receiving the other excrements of the body. The urine of birds differs from that of other animals; for as there is usually in urine two parts—one more serous and liquid, the other more thick and gross, which subsides to the bottom—in birds the last part is most abundant, and is distinguished from the rest by its white or silver colour. This part is found not only in the whole intestinal canal, but it is seen also in the whole channel of the ureters, which may be distinguished from the coats of the kidneys by their whiteness. This milky substance they have in greater plenty than the more thin and serous part; and it is of a middle consistence, between limpid urine and the grosser parts of the fæces. In passing through the ureters it resembles milk curdled or lightly condensed, and, being cast forth easily, congeals into a chalky crust."

From this simple conformation of the animal it would seem that birds are subject to few diseases; and, in fact, they have but few. There is one, however, which they are subject to, from which quadrupeds are

in a great measure exempt—this is the annual moulting which they suffer; for all birds whatsoever obtain a new covering of feathers once a year, and cast the old ones. During the moulting season they always appear disordered; those most remarkable for their courage then lose all their fierceness; and such as are of a weakly constitution often expire under this natural operation. No feeding can maintain their strength; they all cease to breed at this season; that nourishment which goes to the production of the young is wholly absorbed by the demand required for supplying the nascent plumage.

This moulting time, however, may be artificially accelerated; and those who have the management of singing-birds frequently put their secret in practice. They enclose the bird in a dark cage, where they keep it excessively warm, and throw the poor little animal into an artificial fever; this produces the moult; his old feathers fall before their time, and a new set takes place, more brilliant and beautiful than the former. They add that it mends the bird's singing and increases its vivacity; but it must not be concealed that scarce one bird in three survives the operation.

The manner in which nature performs this operation of moulting is thus:—The quill or feather, when first protruded from the skin and come to its full size, grows harder as it grows older, and receives a kind of periosteum or skin round the shaft by which it seems attached to the animal. In proportion as the quill grows older its sides, or the bony pen part, thicken; but its whole diameter shrinks and decreases. Thus, by the thickening of its sides, all nourishment from the body becomes more sparing; and by the decrease of its diameter it becomes more loosely fixed in its socket, till at length it falls out. In the meantime the rudiments of an incipient quill are beginning below. The skin forms itself into a little bag, which is fed from the body by a small vein and artery, and which every day increases in size till it is protruded. While the one end vegetates into the beard or vane of the feather, that part attached to the skin is still soft, and receives a constant supply of nourishment, which is diffused through the body of the quill by that little light substance which we always find within when we make a pen. This substance, which as yet has received no name that I know of, serves the growing quill as the umbilical artery does an infant in the womb, by supplying it with nourishment, and diffusing that nourishment over the whole frame. When, however, the quill is come to its full growth, and requires no further nourishment, the vein and artery become less and less, till at last the little opening by which they communicated with the quill becomes wholly obliterated; and the quill thus deprived continues in its socket for some months, till in the end it shrinks, and leaves room for a repetition of the same process of Nature as before.

The moulting season commonly continues from the end of summer to the middle of autumn. The bird continues to struggle with this malady during the winter, and Nature has kindly provided that when there are the fewest provisions the animal's appetite shall be least craving. At the beginning of spring, when food begins again to be plentiful, the animal's strength and vigour return. It is then that the abundance of provisions, aided by the mildness of the season, incite to love, and all Nature seems teeming with life, and disposed to continue it.



CHAP. II.

OF THE GENERATION, NESTING, AND INCUBATION OF BIRDS.

The return of spring is the beginning of pleasure. These vital spirits which seemed locked up during the winter then begin to expand; vegetables and insects supply abundance of food; and the bird, having more than a sufficiency for its own subsistence, is impelled to transfuse life as well as to maintain it. Those warblings, which had been hushed during the colder seasons, now begin to animate the fields; every grove and bush resound with the challenge of anger or the call of allure-ment. This delightful concert of the grove, which is so much admired by man, is no way studied for his amusement: it is usually the call of the male to the female—his efforts to sooth her during the times of incubation; or it is a challenge between two males for the affection of some common favourite.

It is by this call that birds begin to pair at the approach of spring, and provide for the support of a future progeny. The loudest notes are usually from the male; while the hen seldom expresses her consent but in a short, interrupted twittering. This compact, at least for the season, holds with unbroken faith; many birds live with inviolable fidelity together for a constancy; and when one dies the other is seen to share the same fate soon after. We must not take our idea of the conjugal fidelity of birds from observing the poultry in our yards, whose freedom is abridged and whose manners are totally corrupted by slavery. We must look for it in our fields and our forests, where Nature continues in unadulterated simplicity—where the number of males is generally equal to that of the females—and where every little animal seems prouder of his progeny than pleased with his mate. Were it possible to compare sensations, the male of all wild birds seems as happy in the young brood as the female; and all his former cares, all his soothing melodies, seem only aimed at that important occasion when they are both to become parents, and to educate a progeny of their own producing. The pleasures of love appear dull in their effects when compared to the interval immediately after the exclusion of their young. They both seem at that season transported with pleasure; every action testifies their pride, their importance, and tender solicitude.

When the business of fecundation is performed the female then begins to lay. Such eggs as have been impregnated by the cock are prolific; and such as have not—for she lays often without any congress whatsoever—continue barren, and are only addled by incubation. Previous, however, to laying, the work of nestling becomes the common care; and this is performed with no small degree of assiduity and apparent design. It has been asserted that birds of one kind always make their nests in the same manner, and of the same materials; but the truth is, that they vary this as the materials, places, or climates happen to differ. The red-breast in some parts of England makes its nest with oak leaves where they are in greatest plenty—in other parts with moss and hair. Some birds that with us make a very warm nest are less solicitous in the tropical climates, where the heat of the weather promotes the business of incubation. In general, however, every species of birds has a peculiar architecture of its own; and this adapted to the number of eggs, the temperature of the climate, or the respective heat of the little animal's own body. Where the eggs are numerous it is then incumbent to make the nest warm, that the animal heat may be equally diffused to them all. Thus the wren and all the small birds make the nest very warm; for having many eggs, it is requisite to distribute warmth to them in common: on the contrary, the plover, which has but two eggs, the eagle, and the crow, are not so solicitous

in this respect, as their bodies are capable of being applied to the small number upon which they sit. With regard to climate, water-fowl, which with us make but a very slovenly nest, are much more exact in this particular in the colder regions of the north. They there take every precaution to make it warm; and some kinds strip the down from their breasts to line it with greater security.

In general, however, every bird resorts to hatch in those climates or places where its food is found in greatest plenty, and always at that season when provisions are in the greatest abundance. The large birds and those of the aquatic kinds choose places as remote from man as possible, as their food is in general different from that which is cultivated by human labour. Some birds which have only the serpent to fear build their nests depending from the end of a small bough, and form the entrance from below—being thus safe either from the serpent or the monkey tribes. But all the little birds that live upon fruits and corn, and that are too often unwelcome intruders on the fruits of human industry, in making their nests use every precaution to conceal them from man. On the other hand, the great birds, remote from human society, use every precaution to render theirs inaccessible to wild beasts or vermin.

Nothing can exceed the patience of birds while hatching; neither the calls of hunger nor the approach of danger can drive them from the nest. They are often fat on beginning to sit, yet before incubation is over the female is usually wasted to skin and bone. Ravens and crows while the females are sitting take care to provide them with food, and this in great abundance. But it is different with most of the smaller kinds: during the whole time the male sits near his mate upon some tree, and soothes her with his singing; and often when she is tired he takes her place, and patiently continues upon the nest until she returns. Sometimes, however, the eggs acquire a degree of heat too much for the purposes of hatching; in such case the hen leaves them to cool a little, and then returns to sit with her usual pleasure and perseverance.

So great is the power of instinct in animals of this class, that they seem driven from one appetite to another, and continue almost passive under its influence. Reason we cannot call it, since the first dictates of that principle would be self-preservation. "Take a brute," says Addison, "out of his instinct, and you find him wholly deprived of understanding. With what caution," continues he, "does the hen provide herself a nest in places unfrequented, and free from noise and disturbance! When she has laid her eggs in such a manner as she can cover them, what care does she take in turning them frequently, that all parts may partake of the vital warmth! When she leaves them to provide for her necessary sustenance, how punctually does she return before they have time to cool, and become incapable of producing an animal! In the summer you see her giving herself greater freedoms, and quitting her care for above two hours together; but in winter, when the rigours of the season would chill the principles of life and destroy the young one, she grows more assiduous in her attendance, and stays away but half the time. When the birth approaches, with how much nicety and attention does she help the chick to break the prison! not to take notice of her covering it from injuries of the weather, providing it with proper nourishment, and teaching it to help itself; nor to mention her forsaking the nest, if, after the usual time of reckoning, the young one does not make its appearance. A chymical operation could not be followed with greater art or diligence than is seen in hatching a chick, though there are many birds that show an infinitely greater sagacity: yet at the same time the hen, that has all this seeming ingenuity (which is, indeed, absolutely necessary for the propagation of the species), considered in

other respects, is without the least glimmerings of thought or common sense: she mistakes a piece of chalk for an egg, and sits upon it in the same manner; she is insensible of any increase or diminution in the number of those she lays; she does not distinguish between her own and those of another species; and when the birth appears of never so different a bird, will cherish it for her own. A hen followed by a brood of ducks will stand affrighted at the edge of a pond, trembling for the fate of her young, which she sees venturing into so dangerous an element. As the different principle which acts in these different animals cannot be termed reason, so when we call it instinct we mean something we have no knowledge of. It appears to me the immediate direction of Providence, and such an operation of the Supreme Being as that which determines all the portions of matter to their proper centres."

The production of the young, as was said, seems to be the great era of a bird's happiness. Nothing can at that time exceed its spirit and industry; the most timid becomes courageous in the defence of its young. Birds of the rapacious kind at this season become more than usually fierce and active. They carry their prey, yet throbbing with life, to the nest, and early accustom their young to habits of slaughter and cruelty. Nor are those of milder natures less busily employed; the little birds then discontinue their singing, taken up with more important pursuits of common subsistence.

While the young are yet unfledged and continue in the nest, the old ones take care to provide them with a regular supply; and, lest one should take all nourishment from the rest, they feed each of their young in their turn. If they perceive that man has been busy with their nest, or has handled the little ones, they abandon the place by night, and provide their brood a more secure though less commodious retreat. When the whole family is completely plumed, and capable of avoiding danger by flight, they are then led forth when the weather is fine, and taught the paternal art of providing for their subsistence. They are led to the places where their food lies; they are shown the method of discovering or carrying it away; and then led back to the nest for a day or two longer. At length, when they are completely qualified to shift for themselves, the old ones take them abroad, and, leading them to the accustomed places, forsake them for the last time, and all future connexion is for ever at an end.

Those birds which are hatched and sent out earliest in the season are the most strong and vigorous; those, on the other hand, that have been delayed till the midst of summer are more feeble and tender, and sometimes incapable of sustaining the rigours of the ensuing winter. Birds themselves seem sensible of this difference, and endeavour to produce early in the spring. If, however, their efforts are obstructed by having their nests robbed, or some similar accident, they still persevere in their efforts for a progeny; and it often happens that some are thus retarded till the midst of winter. What number of eggs any bird can lay in the course of a season is not ascertained; but this is true, that such as would have laid but two or three at the most, if their nests be robbed or their eggs stolen will lay above ten or twelve. A common hen, if moderately fed, will lay above a hundred eggs from the beginning of spring to the latter end of autumn. In general, however, it obtains that the smallest and weakest animals are the most prolific, while the strong and rapacious are abridged by sterility. Thus, such kinds as are easily destroyed are as readily repaired; and Nature, where she has denied the power of resistance, has compensated by the fertility attending procreation.

Birds in general, though they have so much to fear from man and each other, are seldom scared away from their usual haunts. Although they be so perfectly formed for a wandering life, and are supplied with

powers to satisfy all their appetites, though never so remote from the object, though they are so well fitted for changing place with ease and rapidity, yet the greatest number remain contented in the districts where they have been originally bred, and by no means exert their desires in proportion to their endowments. The rook, if undisturbed, never desires to leave his native grove; the black-bird still frequents its accustomed hedge; and the red-breast, though seemingly mild, claims a certain district, from whence he seldom moves, but drives out every one of the same species from thence without pity. They are excited to migration by no other motives but those of fear, climate, or hunger. It must be from one of these powerful motives that the birds called birds of passage every year forsake us for some time, and make their regular expected return.

Nothing has more employed the curiosity of mankind than these annual emigrations; and yet few subjects continue so much involved in darkness. It is generally believed that the cause of their retreat from these parts of Europe is either a scarcity of food at certain seasons, or the want of a secure asylum from the persecution of man during the time of courtship and bringing up their young. Thus the starling, in Sweden, at the approach of winter, finding subsistence no longer in that kingdom, descends every year into Germany; and the hen chaffinches of the same country are seen every year to fly through Holland in large flocks, to pass their winter in a milder climate. Others, with a more daring spirit, prepare for journeys that might intimidate even human perseverance. Thus the quails in spring forsake the burning heats of Africa for the milder sun of Europe; and, when they have passed the summer with us, steer their flight back to enjoy in Egypt the temperate air, which then begins to be delightful. This with them seems a preconcerted undertaking. They unite together in some open place for some days before their departure, and, by an odd kind of chattering, seem to debate on the method to proceed. When their plan is resolved upon they all take flight together, and often appear in such numbers, that to mariners at sea they seem like a cloud resting upon the horizon. The boldest, strongest, and by far the greatest number, make good their intention; but many there are who, not well apprised of their own force for the undertaking, grow weary in the way, and, quite spent by the fatigues of their flight, drop down into the sea, and sometimes upon the deck of some vessel—thus becoming an easy prey to the mariner.

Of the vast quantity of water-fowl that frequent our shores, it is amazing to reflect how few are known to breed here. The cause that principally urges them to leave this country seems to be not merely the want of food, but the desire of a secure retreat. Our country is too populous for birds so shy and timid as the greatest number of these are. When the greater part of our island was a mere waste, an uncultivated tract of woods and marshes, many species of birds which migrate remained with us throughout the year. The great heron and the crane, that have now forsaken this country, in former times bred familiarly in our marshes, and seemed to animate our fens. Their nests, like those of most cloven-footed water fowl, were built on the ground, and exposed to every invader. But as rural economy increased these animals were more and more disturbed. Previously they had little to fear, as the surrounding marsh defended them from all the carnivorous quadrupeds, and their own strength from birds of prey; but upon the intrusion of man, and by a long series of alarms, they have at length been obliged to seek during the summer some lonely habitation, at a safe distance from every destroyer.

Of the numerous tribes of the duck kind we know of no more than five that breed here—the tame swan, the tame goose, the sheldrake, the eider duck, and a few of

the wild ducks. The rest contribute to form that amazing multitude of water-fowl which annually repair to the dreary lakes and deserts of Lapland from the more southern countries of Europe. In those extensive and solitary retreats they perform the duties of incubation and nutrition in full security. There are few of this kind that may not be traced to the northern deserts, to countries of lakes, rivers, swamps, and mountains covered with thick and gloomy forests, that afford shelter during summer to the timid animals who live there in undisturbed security. In those regions, from the thickness of the forests, the ground remains moist and penetrable during the summer season; the woodcock, the snipe, and other slender-billed birds, can there feed at ease; while the web-footed birds find more than sufficient plenty of food from the number of insects, which swarm there to an incredible degree. The days there are long; and the beautiful meteorous nights afford them opportunities of collecting so minute a food, which is probable of all others the most grateful. We are not to be astonished, therefore, at the amazing numbers of fowl that descend from these regions at the approach of winter—numbers to which the armies of Xerxes was but trifling in comparison, and which Linnæus has observed for eight whole days and nights to cover the surface of the river Calix.

This migration from the north usually begins in September, when they quit their retreats, and disperse themselves all over the southern parts of Europe. It is not unpleasant to observe the order of their flight; they generally range themselves in a long line, or they sometimes make their march angularly, two lines uniting in the centre like the letter V reversed. The bird which leads at the point seems to cleave the air to facilitate the passage for those which are to follow. When fatigued with this laborious station it falls back into one of the wings of the file, while another takes its place. With us they make their appearance about the beginning of October, circulate first round our shores, and, when compelled by severe frost, betake themselves to our lakes and rivers. Some, indeed, of the web-footed fowl, of harder constitutions than the rest, abide the rigours of their northern climate the whole winter; but when the cold reigns there with more than usual severity they are obliged to seek for more southern skies. They then repair with the rest for shelter to these kingdoms; so that both the diver, the wild swan, and the swallow-tailed sheldrake visit our coasts but seldom, and that only when compelled by the severity of their winters at home.

It has often been a subject of astonishment how animals to all appearance so dull and irrational should perform such long journeys, should know whither to steer, and when to set out upon such a great undertaking. It is probable that the same instinct which governs all their other actions operates also here. They rather follow the weather than the country; they steer only from colder or warmer climates into those of an opposite nature, and, finding the variations of the air as they proceed in their favour, go on till they find land to repose on. It cannot be supposed that they have any memory of the country where they might have spent a former winter; it cannot be supposed that they see the country to which they travel from their height in the air—since, though they mounted for miles, the convexity of the globe would intercept their view; it must therefore only be, that they go on as they continue to perceive the atmosphere more suitable to their present wants and dispositions.

All this seems to be pretty plain; but there is a circumstance attending the migration of swallows which wraps this subject in great obscurity. It is agreed on all hands that they are seen migrating into warmer climates, and that in amazing numbers, at the approach of the European winter. Their return into Europe is

also as well attested about the beginning of summer; but we have another account, which serves to prove that numbers of them continue torpid here during the winter, and, like bats, make their retreat into old walls, the hollow of trees, or even sink into the deepest lakes, and find security for the winter season by remaining there in clusters at the bottom. However this latter circumstance may be, their retreat into old walls is too well authenticated to remain a doubt at present. The difficulty, therefore, is to account for this difference in these animals thus variously preparing to encounter the winter. It was supposed that in some of them the blood might lose its motion by the cold, and that thus they were rendered torpid by the severity of the season; but Mr. Buffon, having placed many of this tribe in an ice-house, found that the same cold by which their blood was congealed was fatal to the animal; it remains, therefore, a doubt to this hour whether there may not be a species of swallows to all external appearance like the rest, but differently formed within, so as to fit them for a state of insensibility during the winter here. It was suggested, indeed, that the swallows found thus torpid were such only as were too weak to undertake the migration, or were hatched too late to join the general convoy; but it was upon these that Mr. Buffon tried his experiment—it was these that died under the operation.

Thus there are some birds which by migrating make a habitation of every part of the earth; but in general every climate has birds peculiar to itself. The feathered inhabitants of the temperate zone are but little remarkable for the beauty of their plumage; but then the smaller kinds make up for this defect by the melody of their voices. The birds of the torrid zone are very bright and vivid in their colours; but they have screaming voices, or are totally silent. The frigid zone, on the other hand, where the seas abound with fish, are stocked with birds of the aquatic kind, in much greater plenty than in Europe; and these are generally clothed with a warmer coat of feathers; or they have large quantities of fat lying underneath the skin, which serves to defend them from the rigours of the climate.

In all countries, however, birds are a more long-lived class of animals than the quadrupeds or insects of the same climate. The life of man himself is but short when compared to what some of them enjoy. It is said that swans have been known to live three hundred years: geese are often seen to live fourscore; while linnets and other small birds, though imprisoned in cages, are often found to reach fourteen or fifteen. How birds, whose age of perfection is much more early than that of quadrupeds, should yet live comparatively so much longer is not easily to be accounted for: perhaps, as their bones are slighter and more porous than those of quadrupeds, there are fewer obstructions in the animal machine; and Nature thus finding more room for the operations of life, it is carried on to a greater extent.

All birds in general are less than quadrupeds—that is, the greatest of one class far surpass the greatest of the other in magnitude. The ostrich, which is the greatest of birds, bears no proportion to the elephant; and the smallest humming-bird, which is the least of the class, is still far more minute than the mouse. In these the extremities of Nature are plainly discernible, and in forming them she appears to have been doubtful in her operations—the ostrich, seemingly covered with hair and incapable of flight, making near approaches to the quadruped class, while the humming-bird, of the size of an humble bee, and with a fluttering motion, seems nearly allied to the insect.

These extremities of this class are rather objects of human curiosity than utility: it is the middle order of birds which man has taken care to propagate and maintain. Of those which he has taken under his pro-

tection, and which administer to his pleasures or necessities, the greatest number seem creatures of his formation. The variety of climate to which he consigns them, the food with which he supplies them, and the purposes for which he employs them, produce amazing varieties, both in their colours, shape, magnitude, and the taste of their flesh. Wild birds are for the most part of the same magnitude and shape; they still keep the prints of primæval nature strong upon them—except in a few they generally maintain their very colour: but it is otherwise with domestic animals; they change at the will of man—of the tame pigeon, for instance, it is said that they can be bred to a feather.

As we are thus capable of influencing their form and colour, so also it is frequent to see equal instances of our influencing their habits, appetites, and passions. The cock, for instance, is artificially formed into that courage and activity which he is seen to possess; and many birds testify a strong attachment to the hand that feeds them: how far they are capable of instruction is manifest to those who have the care of hawks. But a still more surprising instance of this was seen some time ago in London; a canary bird was taught to pick up the letters of the alphabet at the word of command, so as to spell any person's name in company; and this the little animal did by motions from its master, which were imperceptible to every other spectator. Upon the whole, however, they are inferior to quadrupeds in docility, and seem more mechanically impelled by all the power of instinct.

CHAP. III.

OF THE DIVISION OF BIRDS.

Though birds are fitted for sporting in air, yet as they find their food upon the surface of the earth there seems a variety equal to the different aliments with which it tends to supply them. The flat and burning desert, the rocky cliff, the extensive fen, the stormy ocean, as well as the pleasing landscape, have all their peculiar inhabitants. The most obvious distinction, therefore, of birds is into those that live by land and those that live by water; or, in other words, into land-birds and water-fowl.

It is no difficult matter to distinguish land-fowl from water-fowl by the legs and the toes. All land-birds have their toes divided, without any membrane or web between them; and their legs and feet serve them for the purposes of running, grasping, or climbing. On the other hand, water-fowl have their legs and feet formed for the purposes of wading in the water or swimming on its surface. In those that wade the legs are long and naked; in those that swim the toes are webbed together, as we see in the feet of a goose, which serve like oars to drive them forward with greater velocity. The formation, therefore, of land-fowl and water-fowl is as distinct as their habits; and Nature herself seems to offer us this obvious distribution in methodising animals of the feathered creation.

However, a distinction so comprehensive goes but a short way in illustrating the different tribes of so numerous a class. The number of birds already known amounts to above eight hundred; and every person who turns his mind to these kinds of pursuits is every day adding to the catalogue. It is not enough, therefore, to be able to distinguish a land-fowl from a water-fowl; much more is still required to be able to distinguish the different kinds of birds from each other, and even the varieties in the same kind when they happen to offer. This certainly is a work of great difficulty; and perhaps the attainment will not repay the labour. The sensible part of mankind will not withdraw all their

attention from more important pursuits, to give it entirely up to what promises to repay them only with a very confined species of amusement. In my distribution of birds, therefore, I will follow Linnæus in the first sketch of his system: and then leave him to follow the most natural distinctions—in enumerating the different kinds that admit of a history or require a description.

Linnæus divides all birds into six classes—namely, birds of the “rapacious kind”—of the “pie kind”—of the “poultry kind”—of the “sparrow kind”—of the “duck kind”—and of the “crane kind.” The first four comprehend the various kinds of land-birds—the two last those that belong to the water.

Birds of the rapacious class constitute that class of carnivorous fowl that live by rapine. He distinguishes them by their beak, which is hooked, strong, and notched at the point; by their legs, which are short and muscular, and made for the purpose of tearing; by their toes, which are strong and knobbed, and their talons, which are sharp and crooked; by the make of their body, which is muscular; and their flesh, which is impure. Nor are they less known by their food, which consists entirely of flesh; their stomach, which is membranous; and their manners, which are fierce and cruel.

Birds of the pie kind have the bill differing from the former; as in those it resembles a hook, destined for tearing to pieces, in these it resembles a wedge, fitted for the purpose of cleaving. Their legs are formed short and strong, for walking; their body is slender and impure, and their food miscellaneous. They nestle in trees; and the male feeds the female during the time of incubation.

Birds of the poultry kind have the bill a little convex, for the purpose of gathering their food. The upper chap hangs over the lower, their bodies are fat and muscular, and their flesh white and pure. They live upon grain, which is moistened in the crop. They make their nest on the ground without art; they lay many eggs, and use promiscuous venery.

Birds of the sparrow kind comprehend all that beautiful and vocal class that adorn our fields and groves, and gratify every sense in its turn. Their bills may be compared to a forceps that catches hold; their legs are formed for hopping along; their bodies are tender—pure in such as feed upon grain, impure in such as live upon insects. They live chiefly in trees; their nests are artificially made, and their amours are observed with conjugal fidelity.

Birds of the duck kind use their bill as a kind of strainer to their food; it is smooth, covered with skin, and nervous at the point. Their legs are short, and their feet formed for swimming, the toes being webbed together. Their body is fat, inclined to rancidity. They live in waters, and chiefly build their nests upon land.

With respect to the order of birds that belong to the waters, those of the crane kind have the bill formed for the purposes of searching and examining the bottom of pools; their legs are long, and formed for wading; their toes are not webbed; their thighs are half naked; their body is slender, and covered with a very thin skin; their tail is short, and their flesh savoury. They live in lakes upon animals, and they chiefly build their nests upon the ground.

Such is the division of Linnæus with respect to this class of animals; and at first sight it appears natural and comprehensive. But we must not be deceived by appearances: the student—who should imagine he was making a progress in the history of Nature while he was only thus making arbitrary distributions—would be very much mistaken. Should he come to enter deeper into this naturalist’s plan, he would find birds the most unlike in nature thrown together into the same class; and find animals joined that entirely differ in climate, in habitudes, in manners, in shape, colouring, and size.

In such a distribution, for instance, he would find the humming-bird and the raven, the rail and the ostrich, joined in the same family. If, when he asked what sort of a creature was the humming-bird, he were told that it was in the same class with the carrion-crow, would he not think himself imposed upon? In such a case, the only way to form any idea of the animal whose history he desires to know is to see it; and that curiosity very few have an opportunity of gratifying. The number of birds is so great, that it might exhaust the patience not only of the writer but the reader to examine them all: in the present confined undertaking it would certainly be impossible. I will therefore now attach myself to a more natural method; and, still keeping the general division of Linnæus before me, enter into some description of the most noted or the most worth knowing.

Under one or other class, as I shall treat them, the reader will probably find all the species and all the varieties that demand his curiosity. When the leader of any tribe is described, and its history known, it will give a very tolerable idea of all the species contained under it. It is true, the reader will not thus have his knowledge ranged under such precise distinctions; nor can he be able to say with such fluency that the rail is of the ostrich class: but what is much more material, he will have a tolerable history of the bird he desires to know, or at least of that which most resembles it in nature.

However, it may be proper to apprise the reader that he will not here find his curiosity satisfied as in the former volumes, where we often took Mr. Buffon for our guide. Those who have hitherto written the natural history of birds have in general been contented with telling their names or describing their toes or their plumage. It must often, therefore, happen, that instead of giving the history of a bird we must be content to entertain the reader with merely its description. I will therefore divide the following history of birds, with Linnæus, into six parts; in the first of which I will give such as Brisson has ranged among the rapacious birds; next those of the pie kind; and thus go on through the succeeding classes till I finish with those of the duck kind. But before I enter upon a systematic detail, I will beg leave to give the history of three or four birds that do not well range in any system. These, from their great size, are sufficiently distinguishable from the rest, and, from their incapacity of flying, lead a life a good deal differing from the rest of the feathered creation. The birds I mean are the ostrich, the cassowary, the emu, the dodo, and the solitaire.

CHAP. IV.

THE OSTRICH.

In beginning with the feathered tribe, the first animal that offers seems to unite the class of quadrupeds and of birds in itself. While it has the general outline and properties of a bird, yet it retains many of the marks of the quadruped. In appearance the ostrich resembles the camel, and is almost as tall; it is covered with a plumage that almost resembles hair much more nearly than feathers, and its internal parts bear as near a similitude to those of the quadruped as of the bird creation. It may be considered, therefore, as an animal made to fill up that chasm in Nature which separates one class of beings from another.

The ostrich is the largest of all birds. Travellers affirm that they are seen as tall as a man on horseback; and even some of those that have been brought into England were above seven feet high. The head and bill somewhat resemble those of a duck; and the neck may be likened to that of a swan, but that it is much

longer; the legs and thighs resemble those of a hen; though the whole appearance bears a strong resemblance to that of a camel. But to be more particular, it is usually seven feet high from the top of the head to the ground, but from the back it is only four; so that the head and neck are above three feet long. From the top of the head to the rump, when the neck is stretched out in a right line, it is six feet long, and the tail is about a foot more. One of the wings, without the feathers, is a foot and a half; and being stretched out, with the feathers, is three feet.

The plumage is much alike in all—that is, generally black and white; though some of them are said to be grey. The greatest feathers are at the extremities of the wings and tail, and the largest are generally white. The next row is black and white; and of the small feathers on the back and belly, some are white and others black. There are no feathers on the sides, nor yet on the thighs nor under the wings. The lower part of the neck, about half way, is covered with smaller feathers than those on the belly and back; and those, like the former, also are of different colours.

All these feathers are of the same kind, and peculiar to the ostrich; for other birds have several sorts, some of which are soft and downy, and others hard and strong. Ostrich feathers are almost all as soft as down, being utterly unfit to serve the animal for flying, and still less adapted to be a proper defence against external injury. The feathers of other birds have the webs broader on one side than the other, but those of the ostrich have their shaft exactly in the middle. The upper part of the head and neck are covered with a very fine, clear, white hair, that shines like the bristles of a hog; and in some places there are small tufts of it, consisting of about twelve hairs, which grow from a single shaft about the thickness of a pin.

At the end of each wing there is a kind of spur, almost like the quill of a porcupine. It is an inch long, being hollow and of a horny substance. There are two of these on each wing, the largest of which is at the extremity of the bone of the wing, and the other a foot lower. The neck seems to be more slender in proportion to that of other birds, from its not being furnished with feathers. The skin in this part is of a livid flesh-colour, which some improperly would have to be blue. The bill is short and pointed, and two inches and a half at the beginning. The external form of the eye is like that of a man, the upper eye-lid being adorned with eye-lashes which are longer than those on the lid below. The tongue is small, very short, and composed of cartilages, ligaments, and membranes, intermixed with fleshy fibres. In some it is about an inch long, and very thick at the bottom. In others it is but half an inch, being a little forked at the end.

The thighs are very fleshy and large, being covered with a white skin inclining to redness, and wrinkled in the manner of a net, whose meshes will admit the end of a finger. Some have very small feathers here and there on the thighs; and others again have neither feathers nor wrinkles. What are called the legs of birds in this are covered before with large scales. The end of the foot is cloven, and has two very large toes, which, like the leg, are covered with scales. These toes are of unequal sizes. The largest, which is on the inside, is seven inches long, including the claw, which is near three fourths of an inch in length, and almost as broad. The other toe is but four inches long, and is without a claw.

The internal parts of this animal are formed with no less surprising peculiarity. At the top of the breast, under the skin, the fat is two inches thick; and on the fore-part of the belly it is as hard as suet, and about two inches and a half thick in some places. It has two distinct stomachs. The first, which is lowermost, in its natural situation somewhat resembles the crop in other

birds; but it is considerably larger than the other stomach, and is furnished with strong muscular fibres, as well circular as longitudinal. The second stomach, or gizzard, has outwardly the shape of the stomach of a man; and upon opening is always found filled with a variety of discordant substances—hay, grass, barley, beans, bones, and stones, some of which exceed in size a pullet's egg. The kidneys are eight inches long and two broad, and differ from those of other birds in not being divided into lobes. The heart and lungs are separated by a midriff, as in quadrupeds, and the parts of generation also bear a very strong resemblance and analogy.

Such is the structure of this animal forming the shade that unites birds and quadrupeds; and from this structure its habits and manners are entirely peculiar. It is a native only of the torrid regions of Africa, and has long been celebrated by those who have had occasion to mention the animals of that region. Its flesh is proscribed in Scripture as unfit to be eaten; and most of the ancient writers describe it as well known in their times. Like the race of the elephant, it is transmitted down without mixture; and has never been known to breed out of that country which first produced it. It seems formed to live among the sandy and burning deserts of the torrid zone; and as in some measure it owes its birth to their genial influence, so it seldom migrates into tracts more mild or more fertile. As that is the peculiar country of the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the camel, so it may readily be supposed capable of affording a retreat to the ostrich. They inhabit from preference the most solitary and horrid deserts, where there are few vegetables to clothe the surface of the earth, and where the rain never comes to refresh it. The Arabians assert that the ostrich never drinks; and the place of its habitation seems to confirm the assertion. In these formidable regions ostriches are seen in large flocks; which to the distant spectator appear like a regiment of cavalry, and have often alarmed a whole caravan. There is no desert, how barren soever, but what is capable of supplying these animals with provision; they eat almost everything; and these barren tracts are thus doubly grateful, as they afford both food and security. The ostrich is of all other animals the most voracious. It will devour leather, glass, hair, iron, stones, or anything that is given. Nor are its powers of digestion less in such things as are digestible. Those substances which the coats of the stomach cannot soften pass whole; so that glass, stones, or iron are excluded in the form in which they were devoured. All metals, indeed, which are swallowed by any animal lose a part of their weight, and often the extremities of their figure, from the action of the juices of the stomach upon their surface. A quarter-pistole which was swallowed by a duck lost seven grains of its weight in the gizzard before it was voided; and it is probable that a still greater diminution of weight would happen in the stomach of an ostrich; considered in this light, therefore, this animal may be said to digest iron; but such substances seldom remain long enough in the stomach of any animal to undergo so tedious a dissolution. However this be, the ostrich swallows almost everything presented to it. Whether this be from the necessity which smaller birds are under of picking up gravel to keep the coats of their stomach asunder, or whether it be from a want of distinguishing by the taste what substances are fit and what incapable of digestion, certain it is, that in the ostrich dissected by Ranby there appeared such a quantity of heterogeneous substances that it was wonderful how any animal could digest such an overcharge of nourishment. Valisnieri also found the first stomach filled with a quantity of incongruous substances—grass, nuts, cords, stones, glass, brass, copper, iron, tin, lead, and wood; a piece of stone was found among the rest that weighed more than a

pound. He saw one of these animals that was killed by devouring a quantity of quick-lime. It would seem that the ostrich is obliged to fill up the great capacity of its stomach in order to be at ease; but that nutritious substances not occurring, it pours in whatever offers to supply the void.

In their native deserts, however, it is probable they live chiefly upon vegetables, where they lead an inoffensive and social life—the male, as Thevenot assures us, assorting with the female with connubial fidelity. They are said to be very much inclined to venery; and the make of the parts in both sexes seems to confirm the report. It is probable, also, they copulate like other birds, by compression; and they lay very large eggs, some of them being above five inches in diameter, and weighing above fifteen pounds. These eggs have a very hard shell, somewhat resembling those of the crocodile, except that those of the latter are less and rounder.

The season for laying depends entirely on the climate where the animal is bred. In the northern parts of Africa this season is about the beginning of July; in the south, it is about the latter end of December. These birds are very prolific, and lay generally from forty to fifty eggs at one clutch. It has been commonly reported that the female deposits them in the sand, and, covering them up, leaves them to be hatched by the heat of the climate, and then permits the young to shift for themselves. Very little of this, however, is true: no bird has a stronger affection for her young than the ostrich, nor none watches her eggs with greater assiduity. It happens, indeed, in those hot climates that there is less necessity for the continual incubation of the female; and she more frequently leaves her eggs, which are in no fear of being chilled by the weather; but though she sometimes forsakes them by day, she always carefully broods over them by night; and Kolben, who has seen great numbers of them at the Cape of Good Hope, affirms that they sit on their eggs like other birds, and that the male and female take this office by turns, as he had frequent opportunities of observing. Nor is it more true what is said of their forsaking their young after they are excluded the shell. On the contrary, the young ones are not even able to walk for several days after they are hatched. During this time the old ones are very assiduous in supplying them with grass, and very careful to defend them from danger; nay, they encounter every danger in their defence. It was a way of taking them among the ancients to plant a number of sharp stakes round the ostrich's nest in her absence, upon which she pierced herself at her return. The young when brought forth are of an ash-colour the first year, and are covered with feathers all over. But in time these feathers drop; and those parts which are covered assume a different and more becoming plumage.

The beauty of a part of this plumage, particularly the long feathers that compose the wings and tail, is the chief reason that man has been so active in pursuing this harmless bird to its deserts, and hunting it with no small degree of expense and labour. The ancients used these plumes in their helmets; the ladies of the East make them an ornament in their dress; and, among us, our undertakers and our fine gentlemen still make use of them to decorate their hearses and their hats. Those feathers which are plucked from the animals while alive are much more valued than those taken when dead, the latter being dry, light, and subject to be worm-eaten.

Beside the value of their plumage, some of the savage nations of Africa hunt them also for their flesh, which they consider as a dainty. They sometimes also breed these birds tame, to eat the young ones, of which the female is said to be the greatest delicacy. Some nations have obtained the name of struthophagi, or ostrich-eaters, from their peculiar fondness for this food; and even the Romans themselves were not averse to it. Apicius gives us a receipt for making sauce for the ostrich; and Helio-

galus is noted for having dressed the brains of six hundred ostriches in one dish; for it was his custom never to eat but of one dish in a day, but that was an expensive one. Even among the Europeans the eggs of the ostrich are said to be well tasted and extremely nourishing, but they are too scarce to be fed upon, although a single egg be a sufficient entertainment for eight men.

As the spoils of the ostrich are thus valuable, it is not to be wondered at that man has become their most assiduous pursuer. For this purpose the Arabians train up their best and fleetest horses, and hunt the ostrich still in view. Perhaps, of all other varieties of the chase, this, though the most laborious, is yet the most entertaining. As soon as the hunter comes within sight of his prey he puts on his horse with a gentle gallop so as to keep the ostrich still in sight, yet so as not to terrify him from the plain into the mountains. Of all known animals that make use of their legs in running the ostrich is by far the swiftest: upon observing himself, therefore, pursued at a distance, he begins to run at first but gently—either insensible of his danger or sure of escaping. In this situation he somewhat resembles a man at full speed; his wings, like two arms, keep working with a motion correspondent to that of his legs; and his speed would very soon snatch him from the view of his pursuers; but, unfortunately for the silly creature, instead of going off in a direct line, he takes his course in circles; while the hunters still make a small course within, relieve each other, meet him at unexpected turns, and keep him thus still employed, still followed for two or three days together. At last, spent with fatigue and famine, and finding all power of escape impossible, he endeavours to hide himself from those enemies he cannot avoid, and covers his head in the sand or the first thicket he meets. Sometimes, however, he attempts to face his pursuers; and, though in general the most gentle animal in Nature, when driven to desperation he defends himself with his beak, his wings, and his feet. Such is the force of his motion, that a man would be utterly unable to withstand him in the shock.

The struthophagi have another method of taking this bird: they cover themselves with an ostrich's skin, and passing up an arm through the neck, thus counterfeit all the motions of this animal. By this artifice they approach the ostrich, which becomes an easy prey. He is sometimes also taken by dogs and nets: but the most usual way is that mentioned above.

When the Arabians have thus taken an ostrich they cut its throat, and, making a ligature below the opening, they shake the bird as one would rinse a barrel; then, taking off the ligature, there runs out from the wound in the throat a considerable quantity of blood mixed with the fat of the animal, and this is considered as one of the greatest dainties. They next flea the bird; and of the skin, which is strong and thick, sometimes make a kind of vest, which answers the purposes of a cuirass and a buckler.

There are others who, more compassionate or more provident, do not kill their captive, but endeavour to tame it, for the purposes of supplying those feathers which are in so great request. The inhabitants of Dara and Lybia breed up whole flocks of them, and they are tamed with very little trouble. But it is not for their feathers alone that they are prized in this domestic state; they are often ridden upon and used as horses. Moore assures us that at Joar he saw a man travelling upon an ostrich; and Adanson asserts that at the factory of Podore he had two ostriches, which were then young, the strongest of which ran swifter than the best English racer, although he carried two Negroes on his back. As soon as the animal perceived that it was thus loaded it set off running with all its force, and made several circuits round the village; till at length the

people were obliged to stop it by barring up the way. How far this strength and swiftness may be useful to mankind, even in a polished state, is a matter that perhaps deserves inquiry.

The parts of this animal are said to be convertible to many salutary purposes in medicine. The fat is said to be emollient and relaxing; that while it relaxes the tendons it fortifies the nervous system; and being applied to the region of the loins it abates the pain of the stone in the kidney. The shell of the egg powdered, and given in proper quantities, is said to be useful in promoting urine and dissolving the stone in the bladder. The substance of the egg itself is thought to be peculiarly nourishing: however, Galen, in mentioning this, asserts that the eggs of hens and pheasants are good to be eaten—those of geese and ostriches are the worst of all.

CHAP. V.

THE EMU.

Of this bird, which many call the "American ostrich," but little is certainly known. It is an inhabitant of the new continent; and the travellers who have mentioned it seem to have been more solicitous in proving its affinity to the ostrich than in describing those peculiarities which distinguish it from all others of the feathered creation.

It is chiefly found in Guiana, along the banks of the Oroonoko, in the inland provinces of Brazil and Chili, and the vast forests that border on the mouth of the river Plata. Many other parts of South America were known to have them; but as men multiplied, these large and timorous birds either fell beneath their superior power or fled from their vicinity.

The emu, though not so large as the ostrich, is only second to it in magnitude. It is by much the largest bird in the new continent, and is generally found to be six feet high, measuring from its head to the ground. Its legs are three feet long, and its thigh is near as thick as that of a man. The toes differ from those of the ostrich, as there are three in the American bird and but two in the former. Its neck is long, its head small, and the bill flattened like that of the ostrich; but in all other respects it more resembles a cassowary—a large bird to be described hereafter. The form of the body appears round; the wings are short, and entirely unfitted for flying; and it entirely wants a tail. It is covered from the back and rump with long feathers, which fall backward and cover the anus; these feathers are grey upon the back and white upon the belly. It goes very swiftly, and seems assisted in its motion by a kind of tubercle behind, like a heel, upon which, on plain ground, it treads very securely: in its course it uses a very odd kind of action, lifting up one wing, which it keeps elevated for a time, till, letting it drop, it lifts up the other. What the bird's intention may be in thus keeping only one wing up is not easy to discover; whether it makes use of this as a sail to catch the wind, or whether as a rudder to turn its course in order to avoid the arrows of the Indians, yet remains to be ascertained; however this be, the emu runs with such swiftness that the fleetest dogs are thrown out in the pursuit. One of them, finding itself surrounded by the hunters, darted among the dogs with such fury that they made way to avoid its rage; and it escaped by its amazing velocity in safety to the mountains.

As this bird is but little known, so travellers have given a loose to their imaginations in describing some of its actions, which they were conscious could not be easily contradicted. This animal, says Nierenberg, is very peculiar in the hatching of its young. The male

compels twenty or thirty of the females to lay their eggs in one nest; he then, when they have done laying, chases them away, and places himself upon the eggs; however, he takes a singular precaution of laying two of the number aside, which he does not sit upon. When the young ones come forth these two eggs are added; which the male having foreseen, breaks one and then the other, upon which multitudes of flies are found to settle; and these supply the young brood with a sufficiency of provision till they are able to shift for themselves.

On the other hand, Wafer asserts that he has seen great quantities of this animal's eggs on the desert shores north of the river Plata, where they were buried in the sand in order to be hatched by the heat of the climate. Both this as well as the preceding account may be doubted; and it is more probable that it was the crocodile's eggs which Wafer had seen, which are undoubtedly hatched in that manner.

When the young ones are hatched they are familiar, and follow the first person they meet. I have been followed myself, says Wafer, by many of these young ostriches, which at first are extremely harmless and simple, but as they grow older they become more cunning and distrustful, and run so swift that a grey-hound can scarcely overtake them. Their flesh in general is good to be eaten, especially if they be young. It would be no difficult matter to rear up flocks of these animals tame, particularly as they are naturally so familiar; and they might be found to answer domestic purposes like the hen or the turkey. Their maintenance could not be expensive if, as Narborough says, they live entirely upon grass.

CHAP. VI.

THE CASSOWARY.

The cassowary is a bird which was first brought into Europe by the Dutch from Java, in the East Indies, in which part of the world it is only to be found. Next to the preceding, it is the largest and heaviest of the feathered species.

The cassowary, though not so large as the former, yet appears more bulky to the eye—its body being nearly equal, and its neck and legs much thicker and stronger in proportion; this conformation gives it an air of strength and force, which the fierceness and singularity of its countenance conspire to render formidable. It is five feet and a half long from the point of the bill to the extremity of the claws; the legs are two feet and a half high from the body to the end of the claws; the head and neck together are a foot and a half; and the largest toe, including the claw, is five inches long. The claw alone of the least toe is three inches and a half in length; the wing is so small that it does not appear, it being hid under the feathers of the back. In other birds a part of the feathers serve for flight, and are different from those that serve for merely covering; but in the cassowary all the feathers are of the same kind, and outwardly of the same colour. They are generally double, having two long shafts, which grow out of a short one which is fixed in the skin. Those that are double are always of an unequal length; for some are fourteen inches long, particularly on the rump, while others are not above three. The beards that adorn the stem or shaft are, from about half way to the end, very long, and as thick as a horse's hair, without being subdivided into fibres. The stem or shaft is flat, shining, black, and knotted below, and from each knot there proceeds a beard; the beard at the end of the large feathers are also perfectly black, and towards the root of a grey tawny colour—shorter, more soft, and throw-

ing out fine fibres like down; so that nothing appears except the ends, which are hard and black, because the other part composed of down is quite covered. There are feathers on the head and neck; but they are so short and thinly sown that the bird's skin appears naked, except towards the hinder part of the head, where they are a little longer. The feathers which adorn the rump are extremely thick, but do not differ in other respects from the rest, except their being longer. The wings, when they are deprived of their feathers, are but three inches long; and the feathers are like those on other parts of the body. The end of the wings are adorned with five prickles, of different lengths and thickness, which bend like a bow; these are hollow from the roots to the very points, having only that slight substance within which all quills are known to have. The longest of these prickles is eleven inches; and it is a quarter of an inch in diameter at the root, being thicker there than towards the extremity; the point seems as though it were broken off.

The part, however, which most distinguishes this animal is the head: this, though small, like that of an ostrich, does not fail to inspire some degree of terror. It is bare of feathers, and is in a manner armed with a helmet of a horny substance, that covers it from the root of the bill to near half the head backwards. This helmet is black before and yellow behind. Its substance is very hard, being formed by the elevation of the bone of the skull; and it consists of several plates, one over another, like the horn of an ox. Some have supposed that this was shed every year with the feathers; but the most probable opinion is that it only exfoliates slowly like the beak. To the peculiar oddity of this natural armour may be added the colour of the eye in this animal, which is a bright yellow, and the globe being about an inch and a half in diameter, give it an air equally fierce and extraordinary. At the bottom of the upper eyelid there is a row of small hairs, over which there is another row of black hair, which looks pretty much like an eyebrow. The lower eyelid, which is the largest of the two, is also furnished with plenty of black hair. The hole of the ear is very large and open, being only covered with small black feathers. The sides of the head about the eye and ear, being destitute of any covering, are blue, except the middle of the lower eyelid, which is white. The part of the bill which answers to the upper jaw in other animals is very hard at the edges above, and the extremity of it is like that of a turkey-cock. The end of the lower mandible is slightly notched, and the whole is of a greyish brown, except a green spot on each side. As the beak admits a very wide opening, this contributes not a little to the bird's menacing appearance. The neck is of a violet colour, inclining to that of slate; and it is red behind in several places, but chiefly in the middle. About the middle of the neck before, at the rise of the large feathers, there are two processes formed by the skin, which resemble somewhat the gills of a cock, but that they are blue as well as red. The skin which covers the fore-part of the breast, on which this bird leans and rests, is hard, callous, and without feathers. The thighs and legs are covered with feathers, and are extremely thick, strong, straight, and covered with scales of several shapes; but the legs are thicker a little above the foot than in any other place. The toes are likewise covered with scales, and are but three in number; for that which should be behind is wanting. The claws are of a hard, solid substance, black without and white within.

The internal parts are equally remarkable. The cassowary unites with the double stomach of animals that live upon vegetables the short intestines of those that live upon flesh. The intestines of the cassowary are thirteen times shorter than those of the ostrich. The heart is very small, being but an inch and a half long, and an inch broad at the base. Upon the whole, it has

the head of a warrior, the eye of a lion, the defence of a porcupine, and the swiftness of a courser.

Thus formed for a life of hostility, for terrifying others, and for its own defence, it might be expected that the cassowary was one of the most fierce and terrible animals of the creation. But nothing is so opposite to its natural character—nothing so different from the life it is contented to lead. It never attacks others; and instead of using its bill when attacked, it rather makes use of its legs, and kicks like a horse, or runs against its pursuer, beats him down, and treads him to the ground.

The manner of going of this animal is not less extraordinary than its appearance. Instead of going directly forward, it seems to kick up behind with one leg, and then making a bound onward on the other, it goes with such prodigious velocity that the swiftest racer would be left far behind.

The same degree of voraciousness which we perceived in the ostrich obtains as strongly here. The cassowary swallows everything that comes within the capacity of its gullet. The Dutch assert that it can devour not only glass, iron, and stones, but even live and burning coals, without testifying the smallest fear or feeling the least injury. It is said that the passage of the food through its gullet is performed so speedily, that even the very eggs which it has swallowed whole pass through it unbroken in the same form they went down. In fact, the alimentary canal of this animal, as was observed above, is extremely short; and it may happen that many kinds of food are indigestible in its stomach, as wheat and currants are to man, when swallowed whole.

The cassowary's eggs are of a grey ash colour, inclining to green. They are not so large nor so round as those of the ostrich. They are marked with a number of little tubercles of a deep green, and the shell is not very thick. The largest of these is found to be fifteen inches round one way, and about twelve the other.

The southern part of the most eastern Indies seems to be the natural climate of the cassowary. His domain, if we may so call it, begins where that of the ostrich terminates. The latter has never been found beyond the Ganges; while the cassowary is never seen nearer than the islands of Banda, Sumatra, Java, the Molucco Islands, and the corresponding parts of the continent. Yet even here this animal seems not to have multiplied in any considerable degree, as we find one of the kings of Java making a present of one of these birds to the captain of a Dutch ship, considering it as a very great rarity. The ostrich, which has dwelt in the desert and unpeopled regions of Africa, is still numerous, and the unrivalled tenant of its inhospitable climate. But the cassowary, which is the inhabitant of a more peopled and polished region, is growing scarcer every day. It is thus in proportion as man multiplies all the savage and noxious animals fly before him; at his approach they quit their ancient habitations, how adapted soever they may be to their natures, and seek a more peaceable though barren retreat, where they willingly exchange plenty for freedom, and encounter all the dangers of famine to avoid the oppressions of an unrelenting destroyer.

CHAP. VII.

THE DODO.

Mankind has generally made swiftness the attribute of birds; but the dodo has no title to this distinction. Instead of exciting the idea of swiftness by its appearance, it seems to strike the imagination as a thing the most unwieldy and inactive in all Nature. Its body is massive, almost round, and covered with feathers; it

is just barely supported upon two short thick legs, like pillars, while its head and neck rise from it in a manner truly grotesque. The neck is thick and puffy; the head consists of two great chaps that open far behind the eyes (which are large, black, and prominent), so that when the animal gapes it seems to be all mouth. The bill, therefore, is of an extraordinary length, not flat and broad, but thick, and of a bluish white, sharp at the end, and each chap crooked in opposite directions: they resemble two pointed spoons that are laid together by the backs. From all this results a stupid and voracious physiognomy; which is still more increased by a bordering of feathers round the root of the beak, which has the appearance of a hood or cowl, and finishes this picture of stupid deformity. Bulk, which in other animals implies strength, in this only contributes to inactivity. The ostrich or the cassowary are no more able to fly than the animal before us; but then they supply that defect by their speed in running. The dodo seems weighed down by its own heaviness, and has scarce strength to urge itself forward. It seems among birds what the sloth is among quadrupeds—an unresisting thing, equally incapable of flight or defence. It is supplied with wings, covered with soft, ash-coloured feathers, but they are too short to assist it in flying. It is furnished with a tail, with a few small curled feathers; but this tail is disproportioned and displaced. Its legs are too short for running, and its body too fat to be strong. One would take it for a tortoise that had supplied itself with the feathers of a bird, and that, thus dressed out with the instruments of flight, it was only still the more unwieldy.

This bird is a native of the Isle of France; and the Dutch, who first discovered it there, called it in their language the nauseous bird, as well from its disgusting figure as from the bad taste of its flesh. However, succeeding observers contradict this first report, and assert that its flesh is good and wholesome eating. It is a silly, simple bird, as may very well be supposed from its figure, and is very easily taken. Three or four dodos are enough to dine a hundred men.

Whether the dodo be the same bird with that which some travellers have described under the "bird of Nazareth" yet remains uncertain. The country from whence they both come is the same—their incapacity of flying is the same—the form of the wings and body in both are similar; but the chief difference given is in the colour of the feathers, which in the female of the bird of Nazareth are said to be extremely beautiful; and in the height of their legs, which in the dodo are short; in the other they are described as being long. Time and future observation must clear up these doubts; and the testimony of a single witness who has seen both will throw more light on the subject than the reasoning of a hundred philosophers.

BOOK II.—CHAP. I.

OF RAPACIOUS BIRDS IN GENERAL.

There seems to obtain a general resemblance in all the classes of Nature. As among quadrupeds a part were seen to live upon the vegetable productions of the earth, and another part upon the flesh of each other; so among birds, some live upon vegetable food and others by rapine, destroying all such as want force or swiftness to procure their safety. By thus peopling the woods with animals of different dispositions Nature has wisely provided for the multiplications of life; since, could we suppose that there were as many animals produced as there were vegetables supplied to sustain them, yet there might still be another class of animals formed which could find a sufficient sustenance by feeding upon

such vegetable feeders as happened to fall by the course of Nature. By this contrivance a greater number will be sustained upon the whole; for the numbers would be but very thin were every creature a candidate for the same food. Thus, by supplying a variety of appetites, Nature has also multiplied life in her productions.

In thus varying their appetites, Nature has also varied the form of the animal; and while she has given some an instinctive passion for animal food, she has also furnished them with powers to obtain it. All land-birds of the rapacious kinds are furnished with a large head, and a strong, crooked beak, notched at the end, for the purpose of tearing their prey. They have strong, short legs, and sharp, crooked talons for the purpose of seizing it. Their bodies are formed for war, being fibrous and muscular; and their wings for swiftness of flight, being well-feathered and expansive. The sight of such as prey by day is astonishingly quick; and such as ravage by night have their sight so fitted as to see objects in darkness with great precision.

Their internal parts are equally formed for the food they seek for. Their stomach is simple and membranous, and wrapt in fat to increase the powers of digestion; and their intestines are short and glandular. As their food is succulent and juicy, they want no length of intestinal tube to form it into proper nourishment. Their food is flesh, which does not require a slow digestion to be converted into a similitude of substance to their own.

Thus formed for war, they lead a life of solitude and rapacity. They inhabit by choice the most lonely places and the most desert mountains. They make their nests in the clefts of rocks, and on the highest and most inaccessible trees of the forest. Whenever they appear in the cultivated plain or the warbling grove, it is only for the purposes of depredation, and are gloomy intruders on the general joy of the landscape. They spread terror wherever they approach; all that variety of music which but a moment before enlivened the grove, at their appearing is instantly at an end—every order of lesser birds seek for safety, either by concealment or flight; and some are even driven to take protection with man to avoid their less merciful pursuers.

It would indeed be fatal to all the smaller race of birds if, as they are weaker than all, they were also pursued by all; but it is contrived wisely for their safety that every order of carnivorous birds seek only for such as are of the size most approaching their own. The eagle flies at the bustard or the pheasant—the sparrow-hawk pursues the thrush and the linnet. Nature has provided that each species should make war only on such as are furnished with adequate means of escape. The smallest birds avoid their pursuers by their extreme agility rather than the swiftness of their flight; for every order would soon be at an end if the eagle, to its own swiftness of wing, added the versality of the sparrow.

Another circumstance which tends to render the tyranny of these animals more supportable is, that they are less fruitful than other birds, breeding but few at a time. Those of the larger kind seldom produce above four eggs, often but two—those of the smaller kind never above six or seven. The pigeon, it is true, which is their prey, never breeds above two at a time; but then she breeds every month in the year. The carnivorous kinds only breed annually, and, of consequence, their fecundity is small in comparison.

As they are fierce by nature, and are difficult to be tamed, so this fierceness extends even to their young, which they force from the nest sooner than birds of the gentler kind. Other birds seldom forsake their young till completely able to provide themselves; the rapacious kinds expel them from the nest at a time when they should still protect and support them. This severity to their young proceeds from the necessity of providing for

themselves. All animals that, by the conformation of their stomach and intestines, are obliged to live upon flesh and support themselves by prey, though they may be mild when young, soon become fierce and mischievous by the very habit of using those arms with which they are supplied by Nature. As it is only by the destruction of other animals that they can subsist, they become more furious every day; and even the parental feelings are overpowered in their general habits of cruelty. If the power of obtaining a supply be difficult, the old ones soon drive their brood from their nest to shift for themselves, and often destroy them in a fit of fury instigated by hunger.

Another effect of this natural and acquired severity is, that almost all birds of prey are unsociable. It has long been observed by Aristotle, that all birds with crooked beaks and talons are solitary; like quadrupeds of the cat kind, they lead a lonely, wandering life, and are only united in pairs by that instinct which overpowers their rapacious habits of enmity with all other animals. As the male and female are often necessary to each other in their pursuits, so they sometimes live together; but except at certain seasons they most usually prowl alone, and, like robbers, enjoy in solitude the fruits of their plunder.

All birds of prey are remarkable for one singularity, for which it is not easy to account. All the male-birds are about a third less and weaker than the females, contrary to what obtains among quadrupeds, among which the males are always the largest and the boldest; from thence the male is called by falconers a "tercel"—that is, a tierce or third less than the other. The reason of this difference cannot proceed from the necessity of a larger body in the female for the purposes of breeding, and that her volume is thus increased by the quantity of her eggs; for in other birds that breed much faster, and that lay in much greater proportion—such as the hen, the duck, or the pheasant—the male is by far the largest of the two. Whatever be the cause, certain it is that the females, as Willoughby expresses it, are greater in size, more beautiful and lovely for shape and colours, stronger, more fierce and generous, than the males. It may be that it is necessary for the female to be thus superior, as it is incumbent upon her to provide not only for herself but her young ones also.

These birds, like quadrupeds of the carnivorous kind, are all lean and meagre. Their flesh is stringy and ill-tasted, soon corrupting, and tintured with the flavour of the animal food upon which they subsist. Nevertheless, Belonius asserts that many people admire the flesh of the vulture and the falcon, and dress them for eating when they meet with any accident that unfits them for the chase. He asserts that the osprey, a species of the eagle, when young is excellent food; but he contents himself with advising us to breed these birds up for our pleasure in the field rather than for the table.

Of land-birds of a rapacious nature there are five kinds—the eagle kind, the hawk kind, the vulture kind, and the horned and the screech-owl kind. The distinctive marks of this class are taken from their claws and beak; their toes are separated—their legs are feathered to the heel—their toes are four in number, three before and one behind—their beak is short, thick, and crooked.

The eagle kind are distinguished from the rest by their beak, which is straight till towards the end, when it begins to hook downwards.

The vulture kind are distinguished by the head, and also being without feathers.

The hawk kind are distinguished by the beak, being hooked from the very root.

The horned owl is distinguished by the feathers at the base of the bill standing forwards, and by some feathers on the head that stand out, very much resembling horns.

The screech-owl is distinguished by the feathers at the base of the bill standing forwards, and having no horns.—A description of one in each kind will serve for all the rest.

CHAP. II.

THE EAGLE AND ITS AFFINITIES.

The golden eagle is the largest and noblest of all those birds that have received the name of eagle. It weighs above twelve pounds. Its length is three feet; the extent of its wings, seven feet four inches; the bill is three inches long, and of a deep blue colour; and the eye of a hazel colour. The sight and sense of smelling are very acute. The head and neck are clothed with narrow, sharp-pointed feathers, and of a deep brown colour bordered with tawny; but those on the crown of the head in very old birds turn grey. The whole body, above as well as beneath, is of a dark brown; and the feathers of the back are finely clouded with a deeper shade of the same. The wings, when clothed, reach to the end of the tail. The quill-feathers are of a chocolate colour, the shafts white. The tail is of a deep brown, irregularly barred and blotched with an obscure ash-colour, and usually white at the roots of the feathers. The legs are yellow, short, and very strong, being three inches in circumference, and feathered to the very feet. The toes are covered with large scales and armed with the most formidable claws, the middle of which are two inches long.

In the rear of this terrible bird follow the "ring-tailed eagle," the "common eagle," the "bald eagle," the "white eagle," the "kough-footed eagle," the "erne," the "black eagle," the "osprey," the "sea-eagle," and the "crowned eagle." These, and others that might be added, form different shades in this fierce family, but have all the same rapacity, the same general form, the same habits, and the same manner of bringing up their young.

In general these birds are found in mountainous and ill-peopled countries, and breed among the loftiest cliffs. They choose those places which are remotest from man, upon whose possessions they but seldom make their depredations, being contented rather to follow the wild game in the forest than to risk their safety to satisfy their hunger.

This fierce animal may be considered among birds as the lion among quadrupeds; and in many respects they have a strong similitude to each other. They are both possessed of force, and an empire over their fellows of the forest. Equally magnanimous, they disdain smaller plunder; and only pursue animals worthy the conquest. It is not till after having been long provoked by the cries of the rook or the magpie that this generous bird thinks fit to punish them with death: the eagle also disdains to share the plunder of another bird, and will take up with no other prey but that which he has acquired by his own pursuits. How hungry soever he may be he never stoops to carrion; and when satiated he never returns to the same carcass, but leaves it for other animals more rapacious and less delicate than himself. Solitary, like the lion, he keeps the desert to himself alone; it is as extraordinary to see two pair of eagles in the same mountain as two lions in the same forest. They keep separate to find a more ample supply, and consider the quantity of their game as the best proof of their dominion. Nor does the similitude of these animals stop here: they have both sparkling eyes, and nearly of the same colour; their claws are of the same form, their breath equally strong, and their cry equally loud and terrifying. Bred for war, they are enemies of all society—alike fierce, proud, and incapable of being

easily tamed. It requires great patience and much art to tame an eagle; and even though taken young and brought under by long assiduity, yet still it is a dangerous domestic, and often turns its force against its master. When brought into the field for the purposes of fowling, the falconer is never sure of its attachment: that innate pride and love of liberty still prompt it to regain its native solitudes; and the moment the falconer sees it when let loose first stoop towards the ground and then rise perpendicularly into the clouds, he gives up all his former labour for lost, quite sure of never beholding his late prisoner more. Sometimes, however, they are brought to have an attachment for their feeder; they are then highly serviceable, and liberally provide for his pleasures and support. When the falconer lets them go from his hand they play about and hover round him till their game presents, which they see at an immense distance, and pursue with certain destruction.

Of all animals the eagle flies highest; and from thence the ancients have given him the epithet of "the bird of heaven." Of all others, also, he has the quickest eye; but his sense of smelling is far inferior to that of the vulture. He never pursues, therefore, but in sight; and when he has seized his prey he stoops from his height, as if to examine its weight, always laying it on the ground before he carries it off. As his wing is very powerful, yet, as he has but little suppleness in the joints of the leg, he finds it difficult to rise when down; however, if not instantly pursued, he finds no difficulty in carrying off geese and cranes. He also carries away hares, lambs, and kids; and often destroys fawns and calves, to drink their blood, and carries a part of their flesh to his retreat. Infants themselves, when left unattended, have been destroyed by these rapacious creatures; which probably gave rise to the fable of Ganyমেদ's being snatched up by an eagle to heaven.

The eagle is thus at all times a formidable neighbour; but peculiarly when bringing up its young. It is then that the female as well as the male exert all their force and industry to supply their young. Smith, in his History of Kerry, relates that a poor man in that country got a comfortable subsistence for his family during a summer of famine out of an eagle's nest by robbing the eaglets of food, which was plentifully supplied by the old ones. He protracted their assiduity beyond the usual time by clipping the wings, and retarding the flight of the young; and very probably, also, as I have known myself, by so trying as to increase their cries, which is always found to increase the parents' despatch to procure them provision. It was lucky, however, that the old eagles did not surprise the countryman as he was thus employed, as their resentment might have been dangerous.

It happened some time ago, in the same country, that a peasant resolved to rob the nest of an eagle that had built in a small island in the beautiful lake of Killarney. He accordingly stripped, and swam in upon the island while the old ones were away; and, robbing the nest of its young, he was preparing to swim back with the eaglets tied in a string; but while he was yet up to his chin in the water the old eagles returned, and, missing their young, quickly fell upon the plunderer, and in spite of all his resistance despatched him with their beaks and talons.

In order to extirpate these pernicious birds, there is a law in the Orkney Islands which entitles any person that kills an eagle to a hen out of every house in the parish in which the plunderer is killed.

The nest of the eagle is usually built in the most inaccessible cliff of the rock, and often shielded from the weather by some jutting crag that hangs over it. Sometimes, however, it is wholly exposed to the winds, as well sideways as above; for the nest is flat, though built with great labour. It is said that the same nest serves the eagle during life; and indeed the pains bestowed in

forming it seems to argue as much. One of these was found in the Peak of Derbyshire, which Willoughby thus describes:—"It was made of great sticks, resting one end on the edge of a rock, the other on two birch-trees. Upon these was a layer of rushes, and over them a layer of heath, and upon the heath rushes again; upon which lay one young one and an addle egg; and by them a lamb, a hare, and three heath-poults. The nest was about two yards square, and had no hollow in it. The young eagle was of the shape of a goshawk, of almost the weight of a goose, rough footed, or feathered down to the foot, having a white ring about the tail." Such is the place where the female eagle deposits her eggs, which seldom exceed two at a time in the larger species, and not above three in the smallest. It is said that she hatches them for thirty days; but frequently, of even this small number of eggs a part is addled; and it is extremely rare to find three eaglets in the same nest. It is asserted that as soon as the young ones are somewhat grown the mother kills the most feeble or the most voracious. If this happens it must proceed only from the necessities of the parent, who is incapable of providing for their support; and is content to sacrifice a part to the welfare of all.

The plumage of the eaglets is not so strongly marked as when they come to be adult. They are at first white, then inclining to yellow, and at last of a light brown. Age, hunger, long captivity, and diseases make them whiter. It is said they live above a hundred years; and that they at last die, not of old age, but from the beaks turning inward upon the under mandible, and thus preventing their taking any food. They are equally remarkable, says Mr. Pennant, for their longevity, and for their power of sustaining a long absence from food. One of this species, which has now been nine years in the possession of Mr. Owen Holland, of Conway, lived thirty-two years with the gentleman who made him a present of it; but what its age was when the latter received it from Ireland is unknown. The same bird also furnishes a proof of the truth of the other remark; having once, through the neglect of servants, endured hunger for twenty-one days without any sustenance whatever.

Those eagles which are kept tame are fed with every kind of flesh, whether fresh or corrupting; and when there is a deficiency of that, bread, or any other provision, will suffice. It is very dangerous approaching them if not quite tame; and they sometimes send forth a loud, piercing, lamentable cry, which renders them still more formidable. The eagle drinks but seldom; and perhaps when at liberty not at all, as the blood of its prey serves to quench its thirst. The eagle's excrements are always soft and moist, and tinged with that whitish substance which, as was said before, mixes in birds with the urine.

Such are the general characteristics and habitudes of the eagle; however, in some these habitudes differ, as the sea-eagle and the osprey live chiefly upon fish, and consequently build their nests on the sea-shore and by the sides of rivers, on the ground among reeds, and often lay three or four eggs, rather less than those of a hen, of a white elliptical form. They catch their prey, which is chiefly fish, by darting down upon them from above. The Italians compare the violent descent of these birds on their prey to the fall of lead into water; and call them "aquila piombina," or the leaden eagle.

Nor is the bald eagle, which is an inhabitant of North Carolina, less remarkable for habits peculiar to itself. These birds breed in that country all the year round. When the eaglets are just covered with down and a sort of white woolly feathers, the female eagle lays again. These eggs are left to be hatched by the warmth of the young ones that continue in the nest; so that the flight of one brood makes room for the next that are but just hatched. These birds fly very heavily; so that they cannot overtake their prey like others of the same

denomination. To remedy this, they often attend a sort of fishing-hawk, which they pursue, and strip the plunder of its prey. This is the more remarkable, as this hawk flies swifter than they. These eagles also generally attend upon fowls in the winter; and when any birds are wounded they are sure to be seized by the eagle, though they may fly from the fowler. This bird will often also steal young pigs, and carry them alive to the nest, which is composed of twigs, sticks, and rubbish; it is large enough to fill the body of a cart, and is commonly full of bones half eaten and putrid flesh, the stench of which is intolerable.

The distinctive marks of each species are as follow:—

The "golden eagle"—of a tawny, iron colour; the head and neck of a redish iron; the tail feathers of a dirty white, marked with cross-bands of tawny iron; the legs covered with tawny iron feathers.

The "common eagle"—of a brown colour; the head and upper part of the neck inclining to red; the tail feathers white, blackening at the ends; the outer ones on each side of an ash-colour; the legs covered with feathers of a redish brown.

The "bald eagle"—brown; the head, neck, and tail feathers white; the feathers of the upper part of the leg brown.

The "white eagle"—the whole white.

The "kough-footed eagle"—of a dirty brown; spotted under the wings and on the legs with white; the feathers of the tail white at the beginning and the point; the leg feathers dirty brown spotted with white.

The "white-tailed eagle"—dirty brown; head white; the stems of the feathers black; the rump inclining to black; the tail feathers, the first half black, the end half white; the legs naked.

The "erne"—a dirty iron colour above, an iron mixed with black below; the head and neck ash mixed with chesnut; the points of the wings blackish; the tail feathers white; the legs naked.

The "black eagle"—blackish; the head and upper neck mixed with red; the tail feathers, the first half white, speckled with black; the other half blackish; the feathers dirty white.

The "sea eagle"—inclining to white, mixed with iron brown; belly white, with iron-coloured spots; the covert feathers of the tail whitish; the tail feathers black at the extremity; the upper part of the leg feathers of an iron brown.

The "osprey"—brown above; white below; the back of the head white; the outward tail feathers on the inner side streaked with white; legs naked.

The "jean le blanc"—above, brownish grey; below, white, spotted with tawny brown; the tail feathers on the outside and at the extremity brown; on the inside, white streaked with brown; legs naked.

The "eagle of Brazil"—blackish brown; ash colour, mixed in the wings; tail feathers white; legs naked.

The "Oroonoko eagle"—with a topping above, blackish brown; below, white spotted with black; upper neck yellow; tail feathers brown, with white circles; leg feathers white spotted with black.

The "crowned African eagle"—with a topping; the tail of an ash colour, streaked on the upper side with black.

The "eagle of Pondicherry"—chesnut colour; the six outward tail feathers black one half.

mous bird, whose place is not yet ascertained; as naturalists are in doubt whether to refer it to the eagle tribe or to that of the vulture. Its great strength, force, and vivacity might plead for its place among the former—the baldness of his head and neck might be thought to degrade it among the latter. In this uncertainty, it will be enough to describe the bird by the light we have, and leave future historians to settle its rank in the feathered creation. Indeed, if size and strength, combined with rapidity of flight and rapacity, deserve pre-eminence, no bird can be put in competition with it.

The condor possesses in a higher degree than the eagle all the qualities that render it formidable, not only to the feathered kind but to beasts, and even to man himself. Acosta, Garcilasso, and Desmarchais assert that it is eighteen feet across, the wings extended. The beak is so strong as to pierce the cow—two of them are able to devour it. They do not abstain from even man himself. But fortunately there are but few of the species; for if there had been plenty, every order of animals must have carried on an unsuccessful war against them. The Indians assert that they will carry off a deer or a young calf in their talons, as eagles would a hare or a rabbit; that their sight is piercing and their air terrible; that they seldom frequent the forests, as they require a large space for the display of their wings; but that they are found on the sea-shore and the banks of rivers, whither they descend from the heights of the mountains. By later accounts we learn that they come down to the sea-shore only at certain seasons, when their prey happens to fail them upon land; that they then feed upon dead fish, and such other nutritious substances as the sea throws upon the shore. We are assured, however, that their countenance is not so terrible as the old writers have represented it; but that they appear of a milder nature than either the eagle or the vulture.

Condamine has frequently seen them in several parts of the mountains of Quito, and observed them hovering over a flock of sheep; and he thinks they would at a certain time have attempted to carry one off had they not been scared away by the shepherds. Labat acquaints us that those who have seen this animal declare that the body is as large as that of a sheep—that the flesh is tough, and as disagreeable as carrion. The Spaniards themselves seem to dread its depredations; and there have been many instances of its carrying off their children.

Mr. Strong, the master of a ship, as he was sailing along the coasts of Chili, in the thirty-third degree of south latitude, observed a bird sitting upon a high cliff near the shore, which some of the ship's company shot with a leaden bullet and killed. They were greatly surprised when they saw its magnitude; for, when the wings were extended they measured thirteen feet from one tip to the other. One of the quills was two feet four inches long; and the barrel or hollow part was six inches and three quarters, and an inch and a half in circumference.

We have a still more circumstantial account of this amazing bird by P. Feuillee, the only traveller who has accurately described it:—"In the valley of Illo, in Peru, I discovered a condor perched on a high rock before me: I approached within gun-shot and fired; but as my piece was only charged with swan-shot, the lead was not able sufficiently to pierce the bird's feathers. I perceived, however, by its manner of flying that it was wounded; and it was with a good deal of difficulty that it flew to another rock, about five hundred yards distant on the sea-shore. I therefore charged again with ball, and hit the bird under the throat, which made it mine. I accordingly ran up to seize it; but even in death it was terrible, and defended itself upon its back with its claws extended against me, so that I scarce knew how to lay hold of it. Had it not been mortally wounded I should have found it no easy matter to take it; but I at last

CHAP. III.

THE CONDOR OF AMERICA.

We might now come to speak of the vulture kind, as they hold the next rank to the eagle; but we are interrupted in our method by the consideration of an enor-

dragged it down from the rock, and with the assistance of one of the seamen I carried it to my tent to make a coloured drawing.

"The wings of this bird, which I measured very exactly, were twelve feet three inches (English) from tip to tip. The great feathers, which were of a beautiful shining black, were two feet four inches long. The thickness of the beak was proportionable to the rest of the body, the length about four inches, the point hooked downwards and white at its extremity, and the other part was of a jet black. A short down of a brown colour covered the head; the eyes were black, and surrounded with a circle of redish brown. The feathers on the breast, neck, and wings were of a light brown; those on the back were rather darker. Its thighs were covered with brown feathers to the knees. The thigh bone was ten inches long; the leg five inches; the toes were three before and one behind—that behind was an inch and a half; and the claw with which it was armed was black, and three quarters of an inch long. The other claws were in the same proportion; and the leg was covered with black scales, as also the toes; but in these the scales were larger.

"These birds usually keep in the mountains, where they find their prey; they never descend to the sea-shore but in the rainy season; for as they are very sensible of cold they go there for greater warmth. Though these mountains are situated in the torrid zone the cold is often very severe; for a great part of the year they are covered with snow, but particularly in winter.

"The little nourishment which these birds find on the sea-coast, except when the tempest drives in some great fish, obliges the condor to continue there but a short time. They usually come to the coast at the approach of evening, stay there all night, and fly back in the morning."

It is doubted whether this animal be proper to America only, or whether it may not have been described by the naturalists of other countries. It is supposed that the great bird called the "rock," described by Arabian writers and so much exaggerated by fable, is but the species of the condor. The great bird of Tarnassar, in the East Indies, which is larger than the eagle, as well as the vulture of Senegal, that carries off children, are probably no other than the bird we have been describing. Russia, Lapland, and even Switzerland and Germany, are said to have known this animal. A bird of this kind was shot in France that weighed eighteen pounds, and was said to be eighteen feet across the wings; however, one of the quills was described as only being larger than that of a swan; so that probably the breadth of the wings may have been exaggerated, since a bird so large would have quills more than twice as big as those of a swan. However this be, we are not to regret that it is scarcely ever seen in Europe, as it appears to be one of the most formidable enemies of mankind. In the deserts of Pachomac, where it is chiefly seen, men seldom venture to travel. Those wild regions are quite sufficient of themselves to inspire a secret horror: broken precipices—prowling panthers—forests only vocal with the hissing of serpents—and mountains still more terrible by the condor, the only bird that ventures to make its residence in those deserted situations.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE VULTURE AND ITS AFFINITIES.

The first rank in the description of birds has been given to the eagle—not because it is stronger or larger than the vulture, but because it is more generous and bold. The eagle, unless pressed by famine, will not stoop to carrion, and never devours but what he has

earned by his own pursuit. The vulture, on the contrary, is indelicately voracious, and seldom attacks living animals when it can be supplied with the dead. The eagle meets and singly opposes his enemy; the vulture, if it expects resistance, calls in the aid of its kind, and basely overpowers its prey by a cowardly combination. Putrefaction and stench, instead of deterring, only serve to allure them. The vulture seems among birds what the jackal and the hyæna are among quadrupeds, who prey upon carcases and root up the dead.

Vultures may be easily distinguished from the eagle kind by the nakedness of their heads and necks, which are without feathers, and only covered with a very slight down or a few scattered hairs. Their eyes are more prominent; those of the eagle being buried more in the socket. Their claws are shorter and less hooked. The inside of the wing is covered with a thick down, which is different in them than from all other birds of prey. Their attitude is not so upright as that of the eagle; and their flight more difficult and heavy.

In this tribe we may range the golden, the ash-coloured, and the brown vulture, which are inhabitants of Europe; the spotted and black vulture of Egypt; the bearded vulture, and the king of the vultures of South America. They all agree in their nature, being equally indolent, yet rapacious and unclean.

The "golden vulture" seems to be the foremost of the kind, and is in many things like the golden eagle, but larger in every proportion. From the end of the beak to that of the tail it is four feet and a half; and to the claws' end forty-five inches. The length of the upper mandible is almost seven inches, and the tail twenty-seven in length. The lower part of the neck, breast, and belly are of a red colour; but on the tail it is more faint, and deeper near the head. The feathers are black on the back, and on the wings and tail of a yellowish brown. Others of the kind differ from this in colour and dimensions; but they are all strongly marked by their naked heads, and beak straight in the beginning but hooking at the point.

They are still more strongly marked by their nature, which, as has been observed, is cruel, unclean, and indolent. There sense of smelling, however, is amazingly great; and Nature for this purpose has given them two large apertures or nostrils without, and an extensive olfactory membrane within. Their intestines are formed directly from those of the eagle kind; for they partake more of the formation of such birds as live upon grain. They have both a crop and a stomach, which may be regarded as a kind of gizzard, from the extreme thickness of the muscles of which it is composed. In fact, they seem adapted inwardly not only for being carnivorous, but to eat corn, or whatsoever of that kind comes in their way.

This bird, which is common in many parts of Europe, and but too well known on the western continent, is totally unknown in England. In Egypt, Arabia, and many other kingdoms of Africa and Asia, vultures are found in great abundance. The inside down of their wing is converted into a very warm and comfortable kind of fur, and is commonly sold in the Asiatic markets.

Indeed, in Egypt this bird seems to be of singular service. There are great flocks of them in the neighbourhood of Grand Cairo, which no person is permitted to destroy. The service they render the inhabitants is the devouring all the carrion and filth of that great city; which might otherwise tend to corrupt and putrefy the air. They are commonly seen in company with the wild dogs of the country, tearing a carcase very deliberately together. This odd association produces no quarrels; the birds and quadrupeds seem to live amicably, and nothing but harmony subsists between them. The wonder is still the greater, as both are extremely rapacious, and both lean and bony to a very great degree—

probably having no great plenty even of the wretched food on which they subsist.

In America they lead a life somewhat similar. Wherever the hunters (who there only pursue beasts for the skins) are found to go, these birds are seen to pursue them. They still keep hovering at a little distance; and when they see the beast flayed and abandoned, they call out to each other, pour down upon the carcase, and in an instant pick its bones as bare and clean as if they had been scraped by a knife.

At the Cape of Good Hope, in Africa, they seem to discover a still greater share of dexterity in their methods of carving. "I have," says Kolben, "been often a spectator of the manner in which they have anatomised a dead body—I say anatomised, for no artist in the world could have done it more cleanly. They have a wonderful method of separating the flesh from the bones, and yet leaving the skin quite entire. Upon coming near the carcase, one would not suppose it thus deprived of its internal substance till he began to examine it more closely; he then finds it, literally speaking, nothing but skin and bone. Their manner of performing the operation is this:—They first make an opening in the belly of the animal, from whence they pluck out and greedily devour the entrails; then entering into the hollow which they have made, they separate the flesh from the bones without ever touching the skin. It often happens that an ox returning home alone to its stall from the plough lies down by the way; it is then, if the vultures perceive it, that they fly with fury down, and inevitably devour the unfortunate animal. They sometimes attempt them grazing in the fields; and then, to the number of a hundred or more, make their attack all at once and together."

"They are attracted by carrion," says Catesby, "from a very great distance. It is pleasant to behold them when they are thus eating and disputing for their prey. An eagle generally presides at their entertainments, and makes them all keep their distance till he has done. They then fall to with an excellent appetite; and their sense of smelling is so exquisite, that the instant a carcase drops we may see the vultures floating in the air from all quarters, and come sousing on their prey." It is supposed by some that they eat nothing that has life; but this is only when they are not able; for when they can come at lambs they show no mercy; and serpents are their ordinary food. The manner of these birds is to perch themselves several together on the old pine and cypress trees; where they continue for several hours with their wings unfolded; nor are they fearful of danger, but suffer people to approach them very near, particularly when they are eating.

The sloth, the filth, and the voraciousness of these birds almost exceed credibility. In the Brazils, where they are found in great abundance, when they light upon a carcase which they have liberty to tear at their ease, they so gorge themselves that they are unable to fly, but keep hopping along when they are pursued. At all times they are a bird of slow flight, and unable readily to raise themselves from the ground; but when they have overfed they are then utterly helpless. But they soon get rid of their burthen; for they have a method of vomiting up what they have eaten, and then they fly off with greater facility.

It is pleasant, however, to be a spectator of the hostilities between animals that are thus hateful and noxious. Of all creatures, the two most at enmity is the vulture of Brazil and the crocodile. The female of this terrible amphibious creature, which in the rivers of that part of the world grows to the size of twenty-seven feet, lays its eggs, to the number of one or two hundred, in the sand on the side of the river, where they are hatched by the heat of the climate. For this purpose she takes every precaution to hide from all other animals the place where she deposits her burthen; in the meantime, a

number of vultures, or galinassos as the Spaniards call them; sit silent and unseen in the branches of some neighbouring forest, and view the crocodile's operations, with the pleasing expectation of succeeding plunder. They patiently wait till the crocodile has laid the whole number of her eggs, till she has covered them carefully under the sand, and until she is retired from them to a convenient distance. Then, all together, encouraging each other with cries, they pour down upon the nest, brook up the sand in a moment, lay the eggs bare, and and devour the whole brood without remorse. Wretched as is the flesh of these animals, yet men, perhaps, when pressed by hunger have been tempted to taste it. Nothing can be more lean, stringy, nauseous, and unsavoury. It is in vain that, when killed, the rump has been cut off; in vain the body has been washed, and spices used to overpower its prevailing odour; it still smells and tastes of the carrion by which it was nourished, and sends forth a stench that is insupportable.

These birds, at least those of Europe, usually lay two eggs at a time, and produce but once a year. They make their nests in inaccessible cliffs, and in places so remote that it is rare to find them. Those in our part of the world chiefly reside in the places where they breed, and seldom come down into the plains, except when the snow and ice in their native retreats has banished all living animals but themselves; they then come from their heights, and brave the perils they must encounter in a more cultivated region. As carrion is not found at those seasons in sufficient quantity, or sufficiently remote from man to sustain them, they prey upon rabbits, hares, serpents, and whatever small game they can overtake or overpower.

Such are the manners of this bird in general; but there is one of the kind, called "the king of the vultures," which from its extraordinary figure deserves a separate description. This bird is a native of America, and not of the East Indies, as those who make a trade of showing birds would induce us to believe. The bird is larger than a turkey-cock; but is chiefly remarkable for the odd formation of the skin of the head and neck, which is bare. This skin arises from the base of the bill, and is of an orange colour; from whence it stretches on each side to the head; from thence it proceeds like an indented comb, and falls on either side according to the motion of the head. The eyes are surrounded by a red skin of a scarlet colour; and the iris has the colour and lustre of pearl. The head and neck are without feathers, covered with a flesh-coloured skin on the upper part, a fine scarlet behind the head, and a dusky coloured skin before; farther down, behind the head, arises a little tuft of black down, from whence issues and extends beneath the throat on each side a wrinkled skin of a brownish colour, mixed with blue, and redish behind; below, upon the naked part of the neck, is a collar formed by soft, longish feathers, of a deep ash-colour, which surround the neck and cover the breast before. Into this collar the bird sometimes withdraws its whole neck, and sometimes a part of its head; so that it looks as if it had withdrawn the neck into the body. Those marks are sufficient to distinguish this bird from all others of the vulture kind; and it cannot be doubted but that it is the most beautiful of all this deformed family; however, neither its habits nor instincts vary from the rest of the tribe—being like them a slow cowardly bird, living chiefly upon rats, lizards, and serpents, and upon carrion or excrement when it happens in the way. The flesh is so bad that even savages themselves cannot abide it.



CHAP. V.

OF THE FALCON KIND AND ITS AFFINITIES.

Every creature becomes more important in the history of nature in proportion as it is connected with man. In this view, the smallest vegetable or the most seemingly contemptible insect is a subject more deserving attention than the most flourishing tree or the most beautiful of the feathered creation. In this view the falcon is a more important animal than the eagle or the vulture; and, though so very diminutive in the comparison, is, notwithstanding, from its connexion with our pleasures a much more interesting object of curiosity.

The amusement of hawking, indeed, is now pretty much given over in this kingdom; for as every country refines, as its enclosures become higher and closer, those rural sports must consequently decline in which the game is to be pursued over a long extent of country, and where, while everything retards the pursuer below, nothing can stop the object of his pursuit above.

Falconry, that is now so much disused among us, was the principal amusement of our ancestors. A person of rank scarce stirred out without his hawk on his hand—which in old paintings is the criterion of nobility. Harold, afterwards king of England, when he went on a most important embassy into Normandy, is drawn in an old bas-relief, as embarking with a bird on his fist and a dog under his arm. In those days it was sufficient for noblemen's sons to wind the horn and to carry their hawk fair, and leave study and learning to the children of meaner people. Indeed, this diversion was in such high esteem among the great all over Europe, that Frederic, one of the emperors of Germany, thought it not beneath him to write a treatise upon hawking.

The expense which attended this sport was very great: among the old Welch princes the king's falconer was the fourth officer in the state; but, notwithstanding all his honours, he was forbid to take more than three draughts of beer from his horn, lest he should get drunk and neglect his duty. In the reign of James I. Sir Thomas Monson is said to have given a thousand pounds for a cast of hawks; and such was their value in general, that it was made felony in the reign of Edward III. to steal a hawk. To take its eggs, even in a person's own ground, was punishable with imprisonment for a year and a day, together with a fine at the king's pleasure. In the reign of Elizabeth the imprisonment was reduced to three months; but the offender was to lie in prison till he got security for his good behaviour for seven years farther. In the earlier times the art of gunning was but little practised, and the hawk was then valuable not only for its affording diversion, but for its procuring delicacies for the table that could seldom be obtained any other way.

Of many of the ancient falcons used for this purpose we at this time know only the names, as the exact species are so ill described that one may be very easily mistaken for another. Of those in use at present, both here and in other countries, are the gyr-falcon, the falcon, the lanner, the sacre, the hobby, the kestrel, and the merlin. These are called the long-winged hawks, to distinguish them from the goos-hawk, the sparrow-hawk, the kite, and the buzzard, that are of shorter wing, and either too slow, too cowardly, too indolent, or too obstinate to be serviceable in contributing to the pleasures of the field.

The generous tribe of hawks, as was said, are distinguished from the rest by the peculiarity of their wings, which reach nearly as low as the tail. In these, the first quill of the wing is nearly as long as the second; it terminates in a point which begins to diminish from about an inch of its extremity. This sufficiently distinguishes the generous breed from that of the baser race of kites, sparrow-hawks, and buzzards, in whom the

tail is longer than the wings, and the first feather of the wing is rounded at the extremity. They differ also in the latter having the fourth feather of the wing the longest—in the generous race it is always the second.

The generous race, which have been taken into the service of man, are endowed with natural powers that the other kind are not possessed of. From the length of their wings they are swifter to pursue their game; from a confidence in this swiftness they are bolder to attack it; and from an innate generosity they have an attachment to their feeder, and, consequently, a docility which the baser birds are strangers to.

The gyr-falcon leads in this bold train. He exceeds all other falcons in the largeness of his size, for he approaches nearly to the magnitude of the eagle. The top of the head is flat, and of an ash-colour, with a strong, thick, short, and blue beak. The feathers of the back and wings are marked with black spots in the shape of a heart; he is a courageous and fierce bird, nor fears even the eagle himself; but he chiefly flies at the stork, the heron, and the crane. He is mostly found in the colder regions of the north, but loses neither his strength nor his courage when brought into the milder climates.

The falcon, properly so called, is the second in magnitude and fame. There are some varieties in this bird; but there seem to be only two that claim distinction—the falcon-gentle and the peregrine-falcon. Both are much less than the gyr, and somewhat about the size of a raven. They differ but slightly, and perhaps only from the different states they were in when brought into captivity. These differences are easier known by experience than taught by description. The falcon-gentle moults in March, and often sooner; the peregrine falcon does not moult till the middle of August. The peregrine is stronger in the shoulder, has a larger eye, and yet more sunk in the head; his beak is stronger, his legs longer, and the toes better divided.

Next in size to these is the lanner, a bird now very little known in Europe; then follows the sacre, the legs of which are of a bluish colour, and serve to distinguish that bird; to them succeeds the hobby, used for smaller game, for daring larks, and stooping at quails. The kestrel was trained for the same purposes; and lastly the merlin, which, though the smallest of all the hawk or falcon kind, and not much larger than a thrush, yet displays a degree of courage that renders him formidable even to birds ten times his size. He has often been known to kill a partridge or a quail at a single pounce from above.

Some of the other species of sluggish birds were now and then trained to the sport, but it was when no better could be obtained; but these just described were only considered as birds of the nobler races. Their courage in general was such, that no bird not very much above their own size could terrify them—their swiftness so great that scarce any bird could escape them—and their docility so remarkable, that they obeyed not only the commands but the signs of their master. They remained quietly perched upon his hand till their game was flushed, or else kept hovering round his head, without ever leaving him but when he gave permission. The common falcon is a bird of such spirit, that, like a conqueror in a city, he keeps all birds in awe and in subjection to his prowess. When he is seen flying wild, as I often had an opportunity of observing, the birds of every kind, that seemed entirely to disregard the kite or the sparrow-hawk, fly with screams at his most distant appearance. Long before I could see the falcon, I have seen them with the utmost signs of terror endeavouring to avoid him; and, like the peasants of a country before a victorious army, every one of them attempted to shift for himself. Even the young falcons, though their spirit be depressed by captivity, will, when brought out into the field, venture to fly at barnacles and wild geese, till, being soundly brushed and

beaten by those strong birds, they learn their error, and desist from meddling with such unwieldy game for the future.

To train up a hawk to this kind of obedience, so as to hunt for his master and bring him the game he shall kill, requires no small degree of skill and assiduity. Numberless treatises have been written on this subject, which are now, with the sport itself, almost utterly forgotten: indeed, except to a few, they seem utterly unintelligible; for the falconers had a language peculiar to themselves, in which they conversed and wrote, and took a kind of professional pride in using no other. A modern reader, I suppose, would be little edified by one of the instructions, for instance, which we find in Willoughby, when he bids us "draw our falcon out of the mew twenty days before we enseat her. If she truss and carry, the remedy is, coffee her talons, her paws, and petty single."

But as it certainly makes a part of natural history to show how much the nature of birds can be wrought upon by harsh or kind treatment, I will just take leave to give a short account of the manner of training a hawk, divested of those cant words with which men of art have thought proper to obscure their profession.

In order to train up a falcon, the master begins by putting straps upon his legs, which are called "jesses," to which is fastened a ring with the owner's name, by which, in case he should be lost, the finder may know where to bring him back. To these, also, are added little bells, which serve to mark the place where he is if lost in the chase. He is always carried on the hand, and is obliged to keep without sleeping. If he be stubborn and attempt to bite, his head is plunged into water. Thus, by hunger, watching, and fatigue, he is obliged to submit to having his head covered by a hood or cowl, which also covers his eyes. This preliminary employment often continues for three days and nights without ceasing. It rarely happens but at the end of this time his necessities and the privation of light make him lose all idea of liberty, and bring down his natural wildness. His master judges of his being tamed when he permits his head to be covered without resistance, and when uncovered he seizes the meat before him contentedly. The repetition of these lessons by degrees ensures success. His wants being the chief principle of his dependence, they endeavour to increase his appetite by giving him little balls of flannel, which he greedily swallows. Having thus excited the appetite, care is taken to satisfy it; and thus gratitude attaches the bird to the man who but just before had been his tormentor.

When the first lessons have succeeded, and the bird shows signs of docility, he is taken to some green, the head is uncovered, and, by flattering him with food at different times, he is taught to jump on the hand and to continue there. When confirmed in this habit, it is then thought time to make him acquainted with the lure. This lure is only a thing stuffed like the bird the falcon is designed to pursue, such as a heron, a pigeon, or a quail, and on this lure they always take care to give him his food. It is quite necessary that the bird should not only be acquainted with this but fond of it, and delicate in his food when shown it. When the falcon has flown upon this and tasted the first morsel, some falconers then take it away; but by this there is a danger of daunting the bird—and the surest method is, when he flies to seize it to let him feed at large, which serves as a recompense for his docility. The use of this lure is to flatter him back when he has flown into the air, which it sometimes fails to do; and it is always requisite to assist it by the voice and the signs of the master. When these lessons have been long repeated it is then necessary to study the character of the bird—to frequently speak to him if he be inattentive to the voice—to stint in their food such as do not come kindly and readily to the lure—to keep waking them if they be not sufficiently

familiar—and to cover them frequently with the hood if they fear darkness. When the familiarity and docility of the bird are sufficiently confirmed on the green, he is then carried into the open fields, but still secured by a string about twenty yards long. He is then uncovered as before; and the falconer, calling him at some paces' distance, shows him the lure. When he flies upon it he is permitted to take a large morsel of the food which is tied to it. The following day the lure is shown him at a greater distance, till at last he comes to fly at it at the utmost length of his string. He is then to be shown the game itself alive (tame or disabled) which he is designed to pursue. After having seized this several times with his string, he is then left entirely at liberty, and carried into the field for the purpose of pursuing that which is wild. At this he flies with avidity; and when he has seized or killed it he is brought back by the voice or the lure.

By this method of instruction a hawk may be taught to fly at any game whatsoever; but falconers have confined their pursuit only to such animals as yield them profit by the capture or pleasure in the pursuit. The hare, the partridge, and the quail repay the trouble of taking them; but the most delightful sport is the falcon's pursuit of the heron, the kite, or the wood-lark. Instead of flying directly forward, as some other birds do, these, when they see themselves threatened by the approach of the hawk, immediately take to the skies. They fly almost perpendicularly upward, while their ardent pursuer keeps pace with their flight, and tries to rise above them. Thus both diminish by degrees from the gazing spectator below, till they are quite lost in the clouds; but they are soon seen descending, struggling together, and using every effort on both sides—the one of rapacious insult, the other of desperate defence. The unequal combat is soon at an end; the falcon comes off victorious, and the other, killed or disabled, is made a prey either to the bird or the sportsman.

As for other birds they are not so much pursued, as they generally fly straight forward, by which the sportsman loses sight of the chase, and, what is still worse, runs a chance of losing his falcon also. The pursuit of the lark by a couple of merlins is considered, to him only who regards the sagacity of the chase, as one of the most delightful spectacles this exercise can afford. The amusement is to see one of the merlins climbing to get the ascendant of the lark, while the other, lying low for the best advantage, waits the success of its companion's efforts; thus while the one stoops to strike its prey, the other seizes it as it is coming down.

Such is the natural and acquired habits of these birds, which of all others have the greatest strength and courage relative to their size. While the kite or the goose-hawk approach their prey side-ways, these dart perpendicularly, in their wild state, upon their game, and devour it on the spot, or carry it off, if not too large for their power of flying. They are sometimes seen descending perpendicularly from the clouds from an amazing height, and darting down on their prey with inevitable swiftness and destruction.

The more ignoble race of birds make up by cunning and assiduity what these claim by force and celerity. Being less courageous they are more patient; and, having less swiftness, they are better skilled at taking their prey by surprise. The kite, which may be distinguished from all the rest of this tribe by his forked tail and his slow floating motion, seems almost for ever upon the wing. He appears to rest himself upon the bosom of the air, and not to make the smallest effort in flying. He lives only upon accidental carnage, as almost every bird in the air is able to make good its retreat against him. He may be therefore considered as an insidious thief who only prowls about, and, when he finds a small bird wounded, or a chicken strayed too far from the mother, instantly seizes the hour of calamity,

and, like a famished glutton, is sure to show no mercy. His hunger, indeed, often urges him to acts of seeming desperation. I have seen one of them fly round and round for a while to mark a clutch of chickens, and then on a sudden dart like lightning upon the unresisting little animal, and carry it off, the hen in vain crying out, and the boys hooting and casting stones to scare it from its plunder. For this reason, of all birds the kite is the good housewife's greatest tormentor and aversion.

Of all obscene birds the kite is the best known; but the most plentiful. He is a sluggish, inactive bird, and often remains perched whole days together upon the same bough. He is rather an assassin than a pursuer; and lives more upon frogs, mice, and insects, which he can easily seize, than upon birds which he is obliged to follow. He lives in summer by robbing the nests of other birds and sucking their eggs, and more resembles the owl kind in his countenance than any other rapacious bird of day. His figure implies the stupidity of his disposition; and so little is he capable of instruction from man, that it is common to a proverb to call one who cannot be taught, or continues obstinately ignorant, a "buzzard." The honey-buzzard, the moor-buzzard, and the hen-harrier are all of this stupid tribe, and differ chiefly in their size, growing less in the order I have named them. The goose-hawk and sparrow-hawk are what Mr. Willoughby calls short-winged birds, and consequently unfit for training, however injurious they may be to the pigeon-house or the sportsman. They have been, indeed, taught to fly at game; but little is to be obtained from their efforts, being difficult of instruction and capricious in their obedience. It has been lately asserted, however, by one whose authority is respectable, that the sparrow-hawk is the boldest and the best of all others for the pleasure of the chase.

CHAP. VI.

THE BUTCHER-BIRD.

Before I conclude this short history of rapacious birds that prey by day, I must take leave to describe a tribe of smaller birds, that seem from their size rather to be classed with the harmless order of the sparrow kind, but which, from their crooked beak, courage, and appetites for slaughter, certainly deserve a place here. The lesser butcher-bird is not much above the size of a lark; that of the smallest species is not so big as a sparrow; yet, diminutive as these little animals are, they make themselves formidable to birds of four times their dimensions.

The greater butcher-bird is about as large as a thrush; its bill is black, an inch long, and hooked at the end. This mark, together with its carnivorous appetite, rank it among the rapacious birds; at the same time that its legs and feet, which are slender, and its toes, formed somewhat differently from the former, would seem to make it the shade between such birds as live wholly upon flesh, and such as live chiefly upon insects and grain.

Indeed, its habits seem entirely to correspond with its conformation, as it is found to live as well upon flesh as upon insects, and thus to partake in some measure of a double nature. However, its appetite for flesh is the most prevalent; and it never takes up with the former when it can obtain the latter. The bird, therefore, leads a life of continual combat and opposition. As from its size it does not much terrify the smaller birds of the forest, so it very frequently meets birds willing to try its strength, and it never declines the engagement.

It is wonderful to see with what intrepidity this little creature goes to war with the pie, the crow, and the magpie, all above four times bigger than itself, and which

sometimes prey upon flesh in the same manner. It not only fights upon the defensive, but often comes to the attack, and always with advantage, particularly when the male and female unite to protect their young, and to drive away the more powerful birds of rapine. At that season they do not wait the approach of their invader; it is sufficient that they see him preparing for the assault at a distance. It is then that they sally forth with loud cries, wound him on every side, and drive him off with such fury that he seldom ventures to return to the charge. In these kinds of disputes they generally come off with the victory; though it sometimes happens that they fall to the ground with the bird they have so fiercely fixed upon, and the combat ends with the destruction of the assailant as well as the defender.

For this reason the most redoubtable birds of prey respect them; while the kite, the buzzard, and the crow seem rather to fear than seek the engagement. Nothing in Nature better displays the respect paid to the claims of courage than to see this little bird, apparently so contemptible, fly in company with the lanner, the falcon, and all the tyrants of the air, without fearing their power or avoiding their resentment.

As for small birds, they are its usual food. It seizes them by the throat, and strangles them in an instant. When it has thus killed the bird or insect, it is asserted that it fixes them upon some neighbouring thorn, and, when thus spitted, pulls them to pieces with its bill. It is supposed that as Nature has not given this bird strength sufficient to tear its prey with its feet, as the hawks do, it is obliged to have recourse to this extraordinary expedient.

During summer, such of them as constantly reside here (for the smaller red butcher-bird migrates) remain among the mountainous parts of the country; but in winter they descend into the plains, and nearer human habitations. The larger kind make their nests on the highest trees, while the lesser build in bushes in the fields and hedge-rows. They both lay about six eggs of a white colour, but encircled at the bigger end with a ring of brownish red. The nest on the outside is composed of white moss, interwoven with long grass; within it is well lined with wool, and is usually fixed among the forking branches of a tree. The female feeds her young with caterpillars and other insects while very young; but soon after accustoms them to flesh, which the male procures with surprising industry. Their nature also is very different from other birds of prey in their parental care; for, so far from driving out their young from the nest to shift for themselves, they keep them with care; and even when adult they do not forsake them, but the whole brood live in one family together. Each family lives apart, and is generally composed of the male, female, and five or six young ones; these all maintain peace and subordination among each other, and hunt in concert. Upon the returning season of courtship this union is at an end: the family parts for ever, each to establish a little household of its own. It is easy to distinguish these birds at a distance, not only from their going in companies, but also from their manner of flying, which is always up and down, seldom direct or side-ways.

Of these birds there are three or four different kinds; but the greater ash-coloured butcher-bird is the least known among us. The red-backed butcher-bird migrates in autumn, and does not return till spring. The woodchat resembles the former, except in the colour of its back, which is brown, and not red as in the other. There is still another, less than either of the former, found in the marshes near London. This, too, is a bird of prey, although not much bigger than a titmouse—an evident proof that an animal's courage or rapacity does not depend upon its size. Of foreign birds of this kind there are several; but as we know little of their manner of living, we will not, instead of history, substitute mere

description. In fact, the colours of a bird, which is all we know of them, would afford a reader but small entertainment in the enumeration. Nothing can be more easy than to fill volumes with the different shades of a bird's plumage; but these accounts are written with more pleasure than they are read; and a single glance of a good plate or picture imprints a juster idea than a volume could convey.

CHAP. VII.

OF RAPACIOUS BIRDS OF THE OWL KIND THAT PREY BY NIGHT.

Hitherto we have been describing a tribe of animals who, though plunderers among their fellows of the air, yet wage war boldly in the face of day. We now come to a race equally cruel and rapacious; but who add to their savage disposition the further reproach of treachery, and carry out all their depredations by night.

All birds of the owl kind may be considered as nocturnal robbers, who, unfitted for taking their prey while it is light, surprise it at those hours of rest when the tribes of Nature are in the least expectation of an enemy. Thus there seems no link in Nature's chain broken—nowhere a dead and inactive repose; but every place, every season, every hour of the day and night is bustling with life, and furnishing instances of industry, self-defence, and invasion.

All birds of the owl kind have one common mark, by which they are distinguished from others; their eyes are formed for seeing better in the dusk than in the broad glare of sunshine. As in the eyes of tigers and cats, that are formed for a life of nocturnal depredation, there is a quality in the retina that takes in the rays of light so copiously as to permit their seeing in places almost quite dark; so in these birds there is the same conformation of that organ, and though, like us, they cannot see in a total exclusion of light, yet they are sufficiently quick-sighted at times when we remain in total obscurity. In the eyes of all animals Nature has made a complete provision, either to shut out too much light or to admit a sufficiency by the contraction and dilation of the pupil. In these birds the pupil is capable of opening very wide, or shutting very close: by contracting the pupil the brighter light of the day, which would act too powerfully upon the sensibility of the retina, is excluded; by dilating the pupil, the animal takes in more faint rays of the night, and thereby is enabled to spy its prey, and catch it with greater facility in the dark. Besides this, there is an irradiation on the back of the eye, and the very iris itself has a faculty of reflecting the rays of light, so as to assist the vision in the gloomy places where those birds are found to frequent.

But though owls are dazzled by too bright a daylight, yet they do not see best in the darkest nights, as some have been apt to imagine. It is in the dusk of the evening or the grey of the morning that they are best fitted for seeing—at those seasons when there is neither too much light nor too little. It is then that they issue from their retreats to hunt or surprise their prey, which is usually attended with great success: it is then that they find all other birds asleep, or preparing for repose, and they have only to seize the most unguarded.

The nights when the moon shines are the times of their most successful plunder; for when it is wholly dark they are less qualified for seeing and pursuing their prey: except, therefore, by moonlight, they contract the hours of their chase; and if they come out at the approach of dusk in the evening they return before it is totally dark, and then rise by twilight the next morning to pursue their game, and to return in like manner before the broad daylight begins to dazzle them with its splendour.

Yet the faculty of seeing in the night, or of being entirely dazzled by day, is not alike in every species of these nocturnal birds; some see by night better than others; and some are so dazzled by daylight that they perceive their enemies and avoid them. The common white or barn-owl, for instance, sees with such exquisite acuteness in the dark, that though the barn has been shut at night and the light thus totally excluded, yet it could perceive the smallest mouse that emerged from its hole. On the contrary, the brown horn-owl is often seen to prowl along the hedges by day, like the sparrow-hawk, and sometimes with success.

All birds of the owl kind may be divided into two sorts—those that have horns and those without. These horns are nothing more than two or three feathers that stand up on each side of the head over the ear, which give this animal a kind of horned appearance. Of the horned kind is the "great horned owl," which at first view appears as large as an eagle. When he comes to be observed more closely, however, he will be found much less. His legs, body, wings, and tail are shorter; his head much larger and thicker; his horns are composed of feathers that rise above two inches and a half high, and which he can erect or depress at pleasure; his eyes are large and transparent, encircled with an orange-coloured iris; his ears are large and deep, and it would appear that no animal is possessed with a more exquisite sense of hearing; his plumage is of a reddish brown, marked on the back with black and yellow spots, and yellow only on the belly.

Next to this is the "common horned owl," of a much smaller size than the former, and with horns much shorter. As the great owl is five feet from the tip of one wing to the other, this is but three. The horns are but about an inch long, and consist of six feathers, variegated with black and yellow.

There is still a smaller kind of the horned owl, which is not much larger than a blackbird, and whose horns are remarkably short, being composed of but one feather, and that not above half an inch long.

To these succeed the tribe without horns. The "owlet," which is the largest of this kind, with dusky plumes and black eyes; the "screech-owl," of a smaller size, with blue eyes, and plumage of an iron grey; the "white owl," about as large as the former, with yellow eyes and whitish plumage; the "great brown owl," less than the former, with brown plumage and a brown beak; and, lastly, the "little brown owl," with yellowish-coloured eyes and an orange-coloured bill. To this catalogue might be added others of foreign denominations, which differ but little from our own, if we except the "barfang," or "great Hudson's Bay owl" of Edwards, which is the largest of all the nocturnal tribe, and as white as the snows of the country of which he is a native.

All this tribe of animals, however they may differ in their size and plumage, agree in their general characteristics of preying by night, and having their eyes formed for nocturnal vision. Their bodies are strong and muscular, their feet and claws made for tearing their prey, and their stomachs for digesting it. It may be remarked, however, that the digestion of all birds that live upon mice, lizards, or such like food is not very perfect; for though they swallow them whole, yet they are always seen some time after to disgorge the skin and bones, rolled up in a pellet, as being indigestible.

In proportion as each of these animals bears the daylight best, he sets forward earlier in the evening in pursuit of his prey. The great horned owl is the foremost in leaving his retreat, and ventures into the woods and thickets very soon in the evening. The horned and the brown owl are later in their excursions; but the barn-owl seems to see best in profound darkness, and seldom leaves his hiding-place till midnight.

As they are incapable of supporting the light of the day, or at least of then seeing and readily avoiding their danger, they keep all this time concealed in some obscure retreat suited to their gloomy appetites, and there continue in solitude and silence. The cavern of a rock, the darkest part of a hollow tree, the battlements of a ruined and unfrequented castle, some obscure hole in a farmer's out-house, are the places where they are usually found; if they be seen out of these retreats in the daytime they may be considered as having lost their way—as having by some accident been thrown into the midst of their enemies, and surrounded with danger.

Having spent the day in their retreat, at the approach of evening they sally forth, and skim rapidly up and down along the hedges. The barn-owl, indeed, who lives chiefly upon mice, is contented to be more stationary: he takes his residence upon some shock of corn, or the point of some old house; and there watches in the dark with the utmost perspicacity and perseverance.

Nor are these birds by any means silent; they all have a hideous note, which, while pursuing their prey, is seldom heard, but may be considered rather as a call to courtship. There is something always terrifying in this call, which is often heard in the silence of midnight, and breaks the general pause with a horrid variation. It is different in all, but in each it is alarming and disagreeable. Kircher, who has set the voices of birds to music, has given all the tones of the owl note, which makes a most tremendous melody. Indeed, the prejudices of mankind are united with their sensations to make the cry of the owl disagreeable. The screech-owl's voice was always considered among the people as a presage of some sad calamity that was soon to ensue.

They seldom, however, are heard while they are preying; that important pursuit is always attended with silence, as it is by no means their intention to disturb or forewarn those little animals they wish to surprise. When their pursuit has been successful they soon return to their solitude, or to their young, if that be the season. If, however, they find but little game, they continue their quest still longer; and it sometimes happens that, obeying the dictates of appetite rather than of prudence, they pursue so long that broad day breaks in upon them, and leaves them dazzled, bewildered, and at a distance from home.

In this distress they are obliged to take shelter in the first tree or hedge that offers, there to continue concealed all day, till the returning darkness once more supplies them with a better plan of the country. But it too often happens that, with all their precaution to conceal themselves, they are spied out by the other birds of the place, and are sure to receive no mercy. The black-bird, the thrush, the jay, the bunting, and the red-breast all come in file, and employ their little arts of insult and abuse. The smallest, the feeblest, and the most contemptible of this unfortunate bird's enemies are then the foremost to injure and torment him. They increase their cries and turbulence round him, flap him with their wings, and are ready to show their courage to be great, as they are sensible that their danger is but small. The unfortunate owl, not knowing where to attack or where to fly, patiently sits and suffers all their insults. Astonished and dizzy, he only replies to their mockeries by awkward and ridiculous gestures, by turning his head and rolling his eyes with an air of stupidity. It is enough that an owl appears by day to set the whole grove into a kind of uproar. Either the aversion all the small birds have to this animal, or the consciousness of their own security, makes them pursue him without ceasing, while they encourage each other by their mutual cries to lend assistance in this laudable undertaking.

It sometimes happens, however, that the little birds pursue their insults with the same imprudent zeal with

which the owl himself had pursued his depredations. They hunt him the whole day until evening returns, which, restoring him his faculties of sight once more, he makes the foremost of his pursuers pay dear for their former sport; nor is man always an unconcerned spectator here. The bird-catchers have got an art of counterfeiting the cry of the owl exactly; and having before limed the branches of a hedge, they sit unseen and give the call. At this, all the little birds flock to the place where they expect to find their well-known enemy; but instead of finding their stupid antagonist they are stuck fast to the hedge themselves. This sport must be put in practice an hour before nightfall to be successful; for if it is put off till later, those birds which but a few minutes sooner came to provoke their enemy, will then fly from him with as much terror as they just before showed insolence.

It is not unpleasant to see one stupid bird made in some sort a decoy to deceive another. The great horned owl is sometimes made use of for this purpose, to lure the kite when falconers desire to catch him for the purposes of training the falcon. Upon this occasion they clap the tail of a fox to the great owl to render his figure extraordinary, in which trim he sails slowly along, flying low, which is his usual manner. The kite, either curious to observe this odd kind of animal, or perhaps inquisitive to see whether it may not be proper for food, flies after, and comes nearer and nearer. In this manner he continues to hover, and sometimes to descend, till the falconer setting a strong-winged hawk against him, seizes him for the purpose of training his young ones at home.

The usual place where the great horned owl breeds is in the cavern of a rock, the hollow of a tree, or the turret of some ruined castle. Its nest is near three feet in diameter, and composed of sticks bound together by the fibrous roots of trees, and lined with leaves on the inside. It lays about three eggs, which are larger than those of a hen, and of a colour somewhat resembling the bird itself. The young ones are very voracious, and the parents not less expert at satisfying the call of hunger. The lesser owl of this kind never makes a nest for itself, but always takes up with the old nest of some other bird, which it has often been forced to abandon. It lays four or five eggs; and the young are all white at first, but change colour in about a fortnight. The other owls in general build near the place where they chiefly prey; that which feeds upon birds in some neighbouring grove; that which preys chiefly upon mice near some farmer's yard, where the proprietor of the place takes care to give it perfect security. In fact, whatever mischief one species of owl may do in the woods, the barn-owl makes a sufficient recompense for by being equally active in destroying mice nearer home; so that a single owl is said to be more serviceable than half a dozen cats in ridding the barn of its domestic vermin. "In the year 1580," says an old writer, "at Hallontide, an army of mice so over-run the marshes near Southminster, that they eat up the grass to the very roots. But at length a great number of strange painted owls came and devoured all the mice. The like happened again in Essex about sixty years after."

To conclude our account of these birds, they are all very shy of man, and extremely indocile and difficult to be tamed. The white owl in particular, as Mr. Buffon asserts, cannot be made to live in captivity; I suppose he means if it be taken when old. "They live," says he, "ten or twelve days in the aviary where they are shut up; but they refuse all kind of nourishment, and at last die for hunger. By day they remain without moving from the floor of the aviary; in the evening they mount on the highest perch, where they continue to make a noise like a man snoring with his mouth open. This seems designed as a call for their old companions without; and, in fact, I have seen several others come

to the call, and perch upon the roof of the aviary, where they made the same kind of hissing, and soon after permitted themselves to be taken in a net."

BOOK III.—CHAP. I.

OF BIRDS OF THE POULTRY KIND IN GENERAL.

From the most rapacious and noxious tribe of birds, we make a transition to those which of all others are the most harmless and the most serviceable to man. He may force the rapacious tribes to assist his pleasures in the field, or induce the smaller warblers to delight him with their singing; but it is from the poultry kind that he derives the most solid advantages, as they not only make a considerable addition to the necessaries of life, but furnish out the greatest delicacies to every entertainment.

Almost all the domestic birds of the poultry kind that we maintain in our yards are of foreign extraction; but there are others to be ranked in this class that are as yet in a state of nature, and perhaps only wait till they become sufficiently scarce to be taken under the care of man to multiply their propagation. It will appear remarkable enough if we consider how much the tame poultry which we have imported from distant climates has increased, and how much those wild birds of the poultry kind that have never yet been taken into keeping have been diminished and destroyed. They are all thinned; and many of the species, especially in the more cultivated and populous parts of the kingdom, are utterly unseen.

Under birds of the poultry kind I rank all those that have white flesh, and, comparatively to their head and limbs, have bulky bodies. They are furnished with short strong bills for picking up grain, which is their chief, and often their only sustenance. Their wings are short and concave; for which reason they are not able to fly far. They lay a great many eggs; and as they lead their young abroad the very day they are hatched in quest of food, which they are shown by the mother, and which they pick up for themselves, they generally make their nests on the ground. The toes of all these are united by a membrane as far as the first articulation, and then are divided as in those of the former class.

Under this class we may therefore rank the common cock, the peacock, the turkey, the pintada or Guinea-hen, the pheasant, the bustard, the grouse, the partridge, and the quail. These all bear a strong similitude to each other, being equally granivorous, fleshy, and delicate to the palate. These are among birds what beasts of pasture are among quadrupeds—peaceable tenants of the field, and shunning the thicker parts of the forest, which abounds with numerous animals that carry on unceasing hostilities against them.

As Nature has formed the rapacious class for war, so she seems equally to have fitted these for peace, rest, and society. Their wings are but short, so that they are ill formed for wandering from one region to another; their bills are also short, and incapable of annoying their opposers; their legs are strong, indeed; but their toes are made for scratching up their food, and not for holding or tearing it. These are sufficient indications of their harmless nature; while their bodies, which are fat and fleshy, render them unwieldy travellers, and incapable of straying far from each other.

Accordingly we find them chiefly in society; they live together; and though they may have their disputes, like all other animals, upon some occasions, yet when kept in the same district, or fed in the same yard, they learn the arts of subordination, and in proportion as each knows its strength, he seldom tries a second combat where he has once been worsted.

In this manner, all of this kind seem to lead an indo-

lent, voluptuous life; as they are furnished internally with a very strong stomach, commonly called a gizzard, so their voraciousness scarce knows any bounds. If kept in close captivity, and separated from all their former companions, they still have the pleasure of eating left, and they soon grow fat and unwieldy in their prison. Many of the wilder species of birds when cooped or caged pine away, grow gloomy, and some refuse all sustenance whatever; none except those of the poultry kind grow fat, who seem to lose all remembrance of their former liberty, satisfied with indolence and plenty.

The poultry kind may be considered as sensual epicures, solely governed by their appetites. The indulgence of these seems to influence their other habits, and destroys among them that connubial fidelity for which most other kinds are remarkable. The eagle and the falcon, how fierce soever to other animals, are yet gentle and true to each other; their connexions when once formed continue till death; and the male and female, in every exigence and every duty, lend faithful assistance to each other. They assist each other in the production of their young, in providing for them when produced; and even then, though they drive them forth to fight their own battles, yet the old ones still retain their former affection to each other, and seldom part far asunder.

But it is very different with this luxurious class I am now describing. Their courtship is but short, and their congress fortuitous. The male takes no heed of his offspring; and, satisfied with the pleasure of getting, leaves to the female all the care of providing for posterity. Wild and irregular in his appetites, he ranges from one to another, and claims every female which he is strong enough to keep from his fellows. Though timorous when opposed to birds of prey, yet he is incredibly bold among those of his own kind; and but to see a male of his own species is sufficient to produce a combat. As his desires extend to all, every creature becomes his enemy that pretends to be his rival.

The female, equally without fidelity or attachment, yields to the most powerful. She stands by, a quiet, meretricious spectator of their fury, ready to reward the conqueror with every compliance. She takes upon herself all the labour of hatching and bringing up her young, and chooses a place for hatching as remote as possible from the cock. Indeed, she gives herself very little trouble in making a nest, as her young ones are to forsake it the instant they part from the shell.

She is equally unassisted in providing for her young, that are not fed with meat put into their mouths, as in other classes of the feathered kind, but peck their food, and, forsaking their nests, run here and there, following the parent wherever it is to be found. She leads them forward where they are likely to have the greatest quantity of grain, and takes care to show, by pecking, the sort proper for them to seek for. Though at other times voracious, she is then abstemious to an extreme degree, and, intent only on providing for and showing her young clutch their food, she scarce takes any nourishment herself. Her parental pride seems to overpower every other appetite; but that decreases in proportion as her young ones are more able to provide for themselves, and then all her voracious habits return.

Among the other habits peculiar to this class of birds is that of dusting themselves. They lie flat in some dusty place, and with their wings and feet raise and scatter the dust over their whole body. What may be their reason for thus doing it is not easy to explain. Perhaps the heat of their bodies is such, that they require this powder to be interposed between their feathers to keep them from lying too close together, and thus increasing that heat with which they are incommoded.



CHAP. II.

OF THE COCK.

All birds taken under the protection of man lose a part of their natural figure, and are altered not only in their habits but in their very form. Climate, food, and captivity are three very powerful agents in producing these alterations; and those birds that have longest felt their influence under human direction are the most likely to have the greatest variety in their figures, their plumage, and their dispositions.

Of all other birds the cock seems to be the oldest companion of mankind, to have been first reclaimed from the forest, and taken to supply the accidental failure of the luxuries or necessities of life. As he is thus longest under the care of man, so of all others, perhaps, he exhibits the greatest number of varieties, there being scarce two birds of this species that exactly resemble each other in plumage and form. The tail, which makes such a beautiful figure in the generality of these birds, is yet found entirely wanting in others; and not only the tail but the rump also. The toes, which are usually four in all animals of the poultry kind, yet in a species of the cock are found to amount to five. The feathers, which lie so sleek, and in such beautiful order in those we are acquainted with, are in a peculiar breed all inverted, and stand staring the wrong way. Nay, there is a species that come from Japan, which, instead of feathers, seem covered with hair. These and many other varieties are to be found in this animal, which seem to be the marks this early prisoner bears of his long captivity.

It is not well ascertained when the cock was first made domestic in Europe; but it is generally agreed that we first had him in our western world from the kingdom of Persia. Aristophanes calls the cock the "Persian bird," and tells us he enjoyed that kingdom before some of its earliest monarchs. This animal was in fact known so early even in the most savage parts of Europe, that we are told the cock was one of the forbidden foods among the ancient Britons. Indeed, the domestic fowl seems to have banished the wild one. Persia itself, which first introduced it to our acquaintance, seems no longer to know it in its natural form; and if we did not find it wild in some of the woods of India, as well as in those of the islands in the Indian Ocean, we might begin to doubt, as we do with regard to the sheep, in what form it first existed in a state of Nature.

But those doubts no longer exist: the cock is found in the island of Tinian, in many others of the Indian Ocean, and in the woods on the coasts of Malabar, in his ancient state of independence. In his wild condition his plumage is black and yellow, and his comb and wattles yellow and purple. There is another peculiarity also in those of the Indian woods; their bones, which when boiled with us are white, as everybody knows, in those are as black as ebony. Whether this tincture proceeds from their food, as the bones are tintured red by some feeding upon madder, I leave it to the discussion of others; satisfied with the fact, let us decline speculation.

In their first propagation in Europe there were distinctions that now subsist no longer. The ancients esteemed those fowls whose plumage was redish as invaluable; but as for the white, it was considered as utterly unfit for domestic purposes. These they regarded as subject to become a prey to rapacious birds; and Aristotle thinks them less fruitful than the former. Indeed, his division of these birds seems taken from their culinary uses; the one sort he calls generous and noble, being remarkable for fecundity; the other sort ignoble and useless from their sterility. These distinctions differ widely from our modern notions of generosity in this animal—that which we call the

"game-cock" being by no means so fruitful as the ungenerous dunghill-cock, which we treat with contempt. The Athenians had their cock-matches as well as ourselves; but it is probable they did not enter into our refinement of choosing out the most barren of the species for the purpose of combat.

However this be, no animal in the world has greater courage than the cock when opposed to one of his own species; and in every part of the world where refinement and polished manners have not entirely taken place, cock-fighting is a principal diversion. In China, India, the Philippine islands, and all over the East, cock-fighting is the sport and amusement even of kings and princes. With us it has now become a pastime of other days, and is only encouraged in a few solitary instances. Nevertheless, it is the opinion of many that we have a bolder and more valiant breed than is to be found elsewhere; and some, indeed, have entered into a serious discussion upon the cause of so flattering a singularity. But the truth is, they have cocks in China as bold, if not bolder than ours; and, what would still be considered as valuable among cockers here, they have more strength with less weight. Indeed, I have often wondered why men who lay two or three hundred pounds upon the prowess of a single cock have not taken every method to improve the breed. Nothing, it is probable, could do this more effectually than by crossing the "strain," as it is called, by a foreign mixture; and whether having recourse even to the wild cock in the forests of India would not be useful, I leave to their consideration. However, it is a mean and ungenerous amusement, nor would I wish much to promote it. The truth is, I could give such instructions with regard to cock-fighting, and could so arm one of these animals against the other, that it would be almost impossible for the adversary's cock to survive the first or second blow; but as Boerhaave has said upon a former occasion, when he was treating upon poisons, "to teach the arts of cruelty is equivalent to committing them."

This extraordinary courage in the cock is thought to proceed from his being the most salacious of all other birds whatsoever. A single cock suffices for ten or a dozen hens; and it is said of him that he is the only animal whose spirits are not abated by indulgence. But then he soon grows old; the radical moisture is exhausted; and in three or four years he becomes utterly unfit for the purposes of impregnation. "Hens, also," to use the words of Willoughby, "as they for the greatest part of the year daily lay eggs, cannot suffice for so many births, but for the most part after three years become effete and barren: for when they have exhausted all their seed-eggs, of which they had but a certain quantity from the beginning, they must necessarily cease to lay, there being no new ones generated within."

The hen seldom clutches a brood of chickens above once a season, though instances have been known in which they produced two. The number of eggs a domestic hen will lay in the year are above two hundred, provided she be well fed and supplied with water and liberty. It matters not much whether she be trodden by the cock or no; she will continue to lay, although all the eggs of this kind can never by hatching be brought to produce a living animal. Her nest is made without any care, if left to herself; a hole scratched into the ground among a few bushes is the only preparation she makes for this season of patient expectation. Nature, almost exhausted by its own fecundity, seems to inform her of the proper time for hatching, which she herself testifies by a clucking note, and by discontinuing to lay. The good housewives, who often get more by their hens laying than by their chickens, artificially protract this clucking season, and sometimes entirely remove it. As soon as their hen begins to cluck they stint her in her provisions; if that fails, they

plunge her into cold water; this for the time effectually puts back her hatching; but then it often kills the poor bird, who takes cold and dies under the operation.

If left entirely to herself, the hen would seldom lay above twenty eggs in the same nest without attempting to hatch them: but in proportion as she lays her eggs are removed; and she continues to lay, vainly hoping to increase the number. In the wild state the hen seldom lays above fifteen eggs; but then her provision is more difficultly obtained, and she is perhaps sensible of the difficulty of maintaining too numerous a family.

When the hen begins to sit nothing can exceed her perseverance and patience; she continues for some days immovable, and when forced away by the importunities of hunger she quickly returns. Sometimes, also, her eggs become too hot for her to bear, especially if she be furnished with too warm a nest within doors, for then she is obliged to leave them to cool a little; thus the warmth of the nest only retards incubation, and often puts the brood a day or two back in the shell. While the hen sits she carefully turns her eggs, and even removes them to different situations; till at length, in about three weeks, the young brood begin to give signs of a desire to burst their confinement. When by the repeated efforts of their bill, which serves like a pioneer on this occasion, they have broke themselves a passage through the shell, the hen still continues to sit till all are excluded. The strongest and best chickens are generally the first candidates for liberty; the weakest come behind, and some even die in the shell. When all are produced, she then leads them forth to provide for themselves. Her affection and her pride seem then to alter her very nature and correct her imperfections. No longer voracious or cowardly, she abstains from all food that her young can swallow, and flies boldly at every creature that she thinks is likely to do them mischief. Whatever the invading animal be she boldly attacks him—the horse, the hog, or the mastiff. When marching at the head of her little troop she acts the commander, and has a variety of notes to call her numerous train to their food, or to warn them of approaching danger. Upon one of these occasions, I have seen the whole brood run for security into the thickest part of a hedge, when the hen herself ventured boldly forth and faced a fox that came for plunder. With a good mastiff, however, we soon sent the invader back to his retreat, but not before he had wounded the hen in several places.

Ten or twelve chickens are the greatest number that a good hen can rear and clutch at a time; but as this bears no proportion to the number of her eggs, schemes have been imagined to clutch all the eggs of a hen, and thus turn her produce to the greatest advantage. By these contrivances it has been ascertained that a hen that ordinarily produces but twelve chickens in the year is found to produce as many chickens as eggs, and consequently often above two hundred. The contrivance I mean is the artificial method of hatching chickens in stoves, as is practised at Grand Cairo, or in a chymical laboratory properly graduated, as has been effected by Mr. Reaumur. At Grand Cairo they thus produce six or seven thousand chickens at a time, where, as they are brought forth in their mild spring, which is warmer than our summer, the young ones thrive without clutching. But it is otherwise in our colder and unequal climate; the little animal may without much difficulty be hatched from the shell; but they almost all perish when excluded. To remedy this Reaumur has made use of a woollen hen, as he calls it; which was nothing more than putting the young ones in a warm basket, and clapping over them a thick woollen canopy. I should think a much better substitute might be found, and this from among the species themselves. Capons may very easily be taught to clutch a fresh brood of chickens throughout the year; so that when one little colony is thus reared another may

be brought to succeed it. Nothing is more common than to see capons thus employed; and the manner of teaching them is this—first the capon is made very tame, so as to feed from one's hand; then, about evening, they pluck the feathers off his breast, and rub the bare skin with nettles; they then put the chickens to him, which presently run under his breast and belly, and probably, rubbing his bare skin gently with their heads, allay the stinging pain which the nettles had just produced. This is repeated for two or three nights, till the animal takes an affection to the chickens that have thus given him relief, and continues to give them the protection they seek for: perhaps, also, the querulous voice of the chickens may be pleasant to him in misery, and invite him to succour the distressed. He from that time brings up a brood of chickens like a hen, clutching them, feeding them, clucking, and performing all the functions of the tenderest parent. A capon once accustomed to this service will not give over; but when one brood is grown up he may have another nearly hatched put under him, which he will treat with the same tenderness he did the former.

The cock, from his falaciousness, is allowed to be a short-lived animal; but how long these birds live if left to themselves is not yet well ascertained by any historian. As they are kept only for profit, and in a few years become unfit for generation, there are few that from mere motives of curiosity will make the tedious experiment of maintaining a proper number till they die. Aldrovandus hints their age to be ten years; and it is probable that this may be its extent. They are subject to some disorders, which it is not our business to describe; and as for poisons, besides *nux vomica*, which is fatal to most animals except man, they are injured, as Linnæus asserts, by elderberries, of which they are not a little fond.

CHAP. III.

OF THE PEACOCK.

The peacock by the common people of Italy is said to have the plumage of an angel, the voice of a devil, and the guts of a thief. In fact, each of these qualities mark pretty well the nature of this extraordinary bird. When it appears with its tail expanded, there is none of the feathered creation can vie with it for beauty; yet the horrid scream of its voice serves to abate the pleasure we find from viewing it; and still more, its insatiable gluttony and spirit of depredation make it one of the most noxious domestics that man has taken under his protection.

Our first peacocks were brought from the East Indies; and we are assured that they are still found in vast flocks in a wild state in the islands of Java and Ceylon. So beautiful a bird, and one esteemed such a delicacy at the tables of the luxurious, could not be permitted to continue long at liberty in its distant retreats. So early as the days of Solomon, we find in his navies among the articles imported from the East apes and peacocks. Ælian relates that they were brought into Greece from some barbarous country, and were held in such high esteem among them, that a male and female were valued at above thirty pounds of our money. We are told, also, that when Alexander was in India he found them flying wild, in vast numbers, on the banks of the river Hyarotis, and was so struck with their beauty that he laid a severe fine and punishment on all who should kill or disturb them. Nor are we to be surprised at this, as the Greeks were so much struck with the beauty of this bird when first brought among them, that every person paid a fixed price for seeing it; and several people came from Athens, from Lacedæmon, and from Thessaly purely to satisfy their curiosity.

It was probably first introduced into the West merely on account of its beauty; but mankind, from contemplating its figure, soon came to think of serving it up for a different entertainment. Ausipius Hurco stands charged by Pliny with being the first who fattened up the peacock for the feasts of the luxurious. Whatever there may be of delicacy in the flesh of a young peacock, it is certain an old one is very indifferent eating; nevertheless, there is no mention made of choosing the youngest; it is probable they were killed indiscriminately, the beauty of the feathers in some measure stimulating the appetite. Hortensius, the orator, was the first who served them up at an entertainment at Rome; and from that time they were considered as one of the greatest ornaments of every feast. Whether the Roman method of cookery, which was much higher than ours, might not have rendered them more palatable than we find them at present I cannot tell: but certain it is they talk of the peacock as being the first of viands.

Its fame for delicacy, however, did not continue very long; for we find, in the times of Francis the First, that it was a custom to serve up peacocks to the tables of the great, with an intention not to be eaten but only to be seen. Their manner was to strip off the skin, and then preparing the body with the warmest spices, they covered it up again in its former skin, with all its plumage in full display, and no way injured by the preparation. The bird thus prepared was often preserved for many years without corrupting; and it is asserted of the peacock's flesh, that it keeps longer unputrefied than that of any other animal. To give a higher zest to these entertainments, on weddings particularly, they filled the bird's beak and throat with cotton and camphire, which they set on fire to amuse and delight the company. I do not know that the peacock is much used at our entertainments at present, except now and then at an alderman's dinner or a common-council feast, when our citizen's resolve to be splendid; and even then it is never served with its cotton and camphire.

Like all other birds of the poultry kind the peacock feeds upon corn, but its chief predilection is for barley. But as it is a very proud and fickle bird, there is scarce any food that it will not at times covet and pursue. Insects and tender plants are often eagerly sought at a time that it has a sufficiency of its natural food provided more nearly. In the indulgence of these capricious pursuits walls cannot easily confine it; it strips the tops of houses of their tiles or thatch; it lays waste the labours of the gardener, roots up his choicest seeds, and nips his favourite flowers in the bud. Thus its beauty but ill recompenses for the mischief it occasions; and many of the more homely-looking fowls are very deservedly preferred before it.

Nor is the peacock less a debauchee in its affections than even the cock; and though not possessed of the same vigour, yet burns with more immoderate desire. He requires five females at least to attend him; and if there be not a sufficient number, he will even run upon and tread the sitting hen. For this reason the pea-hen endeavours as much as she can to hide her nest from the male, as he would otherwise disturb her sitting and break her eggs.

The pea-hen seldom lays above five or six eggs in this climate before she sits. Aristotle describes her as laying twelve; and it is probable in her native climate she may be thus prolific; for it is certain that in the forests where they breed naturally they are numerous beyond expression. The bird lives about twenty years; and not till its third year has it that beautiful variegated plumage that adorns its tail.

"In the kingdom of Cambaya," says Taverner, "near the city of Baroch, whole flocks of them are seen in the fields. They are very shy, however, and it is impossible to come near them. They run off swifter than a

partridge, and hide themselves in thickets where it is impossible to find them. They perch by night upon trees; and the fowler often approaches them at that season with a kind of banner, on which a peacock is painted to the life on either side. A lighted torch is fixed on the top of this decoy; and the peacock when disturbed flies to what it takes for another, and is thus caught in a noose prepared for that purpose."

There are varieties of this bird, some of which are white, others crested; that which is called the "peacock of Thibet" is the most beautiful of the feathered creation, containing in its plumage all the most vivid colours—red, blue, yellow, and green, disposed in an almost artificial order, as if merely to please the eye of the beholder.

CHAP. IV.

THE TURKEY.

The natal place of the cock and peacock is pretty well ascertained, but there are stronger doubts concerning the turkey—some contending that it has been brought into Europe from the East Indies many centuries ago; while others assert that it is wholly unknown in that part of the world—that it is a native of the new continent, and that it was not brought into Europe till the discovery of that part of the world.

Those who contend for the latter opinion very truly observe, that among all the descriptions we have of eastern birds that of the turkey is not to be found; while, on the contrary, it is very well known in the new continent, where it runs wild about the woods. It is said by them to have been first seen in France in the reign of Francis I., and in England in that of Henry VIII., which is about the time when Mexico was first conquered by Spain. On the other hand, it is asserted that the turkey, so far from being unknown in Europe before that time, was known even to the ancients; and that Ælian has given a pretty just description of it. They allege that its very name implies its having been brought from some part of the East; and that it is found, among other dainties, served up to the tables of the great before that time among ourselves. But what they pretend to be the strongest proof is, that though the wild turkey be so very common in America, yet the natives cannot contrive to tame it; and though hatched in the ordinary manner, nothing can render it domestic. In this diversity of opinions, perhaps it is best to suspend assent till more lights are thrown on the subject; however, I am inclined to concur with the former opinion.

With us, when young, it is one of the tenderest of all birds; yet in its wild state it is found in great plenty in the forests of Canada, which are covered with snow above three parts of the year. In their natural woods they are found much larger than in their state of domestic captivity; they are much more beautiful also, their feathers being of a dark-grey, bordered at the edges with a bright gold-colour. These the savages of the country weave into cloaks to adorn their persons, and fashion into fans and umbrellas, but never once think of taking into keeping animals that the woods furnish them with in sufficient abundance. Savage man seems to find a delight in precarious possession. A great part of the pleasure of the chase lies in the uncertainty of the pursuit, and he is unwilling to abridge himself in any accidental success that may attend his fatigues. The hunting the turkey, therefore, makes one of his principal diversions, as its flesh contributes chiefly to the support of his family. When he has discovered the place of their retreat—which in general is near fields of nettles, or where there is plenty of any kind of grain—he takes

his dog with him, which is trained to the sport (a faithful, rough creature, supposed to be originally reclaimed from a wolf), and sends him into the midst of the flock. The turkeys no sooner perceive their enemy than they set off running at full speed, and with such swiftness that they leave the dog far behind them: he follows, nevertheless, and, sensible they must soon be tired, as they cannot go full speed for any length of time, he at last forces them to take shelter in a tree, where they sit quite spent and fatigued, till the hunter comes up, and with a long pole knocks them down one after the other.

This manner of suffering themselves to be destroyed argues no great instinct in the animal; and, indeed, in their captive state they do not appear to be possessed of much. They seem a stupid, vain, querulous tribe, apt enough to quarrel among themselves, yet without any weapons to do each other an injury. Everybody knows the strange antipathy the turkey-cock has to a red colour—how he bristles, and, with his peculiar gobbling sound, flies to attack it. But there is another method of increasing the animosity of these birds against each other, which is often practised by boys when they have a mind for a battle. This is no more than to smear over the head of one of the turkeys with dirt, and the rest run to attack it with all the speed of impotent animosity—nay, two of them thus disguised will fight each other till they are almost suffocated with fatigue and anger.

But though so furious among themselves they are weak and cowardly against other animals, though far more powerful. The cock often makes the turkey keep at a distance, and they seldom venture to attack him but with united force, when they rather oppress him by their weight than annoy him by their arms. There is no animal, how contemptible soever, who will venture boldly to face the turkey-cock that he will not fly from. On the contrary, with the insolence of a bully he pursues anything that seems to fear him, particularly lap-dogs and children, against both which he seems to have a peculiar aversion. On such occasions, after he has made them scamper, he returns to his female train, displays his plumage around, struts about the yard, and gobbles out a note of self-approbation.

The female seems of a milder, gentler disposition. Rather querulous than bold, she hunts about in quest of grain and in pursuit of insects, being particularly delighted with the eggs of ants and caterpillars. She lays eighteen or twenty eggs, larger than those of a hen, whitish, but marked with spots resembling the freckles of the face. Her young are extremely tender at first, and must be carefully fed with curd chopped with dock-leaves; but as they grow older they become more hardy, and follow the mother to considerable distances in pursuit of insect food, which they prefer to any other. On these occasions, however, the female—though so large and, as it would seem, so powerful a bird—gives them but very little protection against the attacks of any rapacious animals that come in her way: she rather warns her young to shift for themselves than prepares to defend them. "I have heard," says La Pluche, "a turkey-hen, when at the head of her brood, send forth the most hideous scream without knowing as yet the cause; however, her young, immediately when the warning was given, skulked under the bushes, the grass, or whatever else offered for shelter or protection. They even stretched themselves at their full length upon the ground, and continued lying as motionless as if they were dead. In the meantime the mother, with her eyes directed upwards, continued her cries and screaming as before. Upon looking up to where she seemed to gaze, I discovered a black spot just under the clouds, but was unable at first to determine what it was; however, it soon appeared to be a bird of prey, though at first at too great a distance to be distinguished. I have seen one of these animals continue in this violent, agitated

state, and her whole brood pinned down as it were to the ground, for four hours together, whilst their formidable foe has taken his circuits, mounted, and hovered directly over their heads; at last, upon disappearing, the parent began to change her note, and sent forth another cry, which in an instant gave life to the whole trembling tribe, and they all flocked round her with expressions of pleasure, as if conscious of their happy escape from danger."

When once grown up turkeys are very hardy birds, and feed themselves at very little expense to the farmer. Those of Norfolk are said to be the largest of this kingdom, weighing from twenty to thirty pounds. There are places, however, in the East Indies where they are known only in their domestic state, in which they grow to the weight of sixty pounds.

CHAP. V

OF THE PHEASANT.

It would surprise some sportsmen to be told that the pheasant, which they find wild in the woods in the most remote parts of the kingdom, and in forests which can scarce be said to have an owner, is a foreign bird, and was at first artificially propagated amongst us. They were brought into Europe from the banks of the Phasis, a river of Colchia, in Asia Minor; and whence they still retain their name.

Next to the peacock they are the most beautiful birds, as well for the vivid colour of their plumes as for their happy mixtures and variety. It is far beyond the power of the pencil to draw anything so glossy, so bright, or points so finely blending into each other. We are told that when Croesus, King of Lydia, was seated on his throne, adorned with royal magnificence and all the barbarous pomp of Eastern splendour, he asked Solon if he had ever beheld anything so fine? The Greek philosopher, no way moved by the objects before him, or taking a pride in his native simplicity, replied, that after having seen the beautiful plumage of the pheasant he could be astonished at no other finery.

In fact, nothing can satisfy the eye with a greater variety and richness of ornament than this beautiful creature. The iris of the eye is yellow; and the eyes themselves are surrounded with a scarlet colour, sprinkled with small specks of black. On the fore-part of the head there are blackish feathers mixed with a shining purple. The top of the head and the upper part of the neck are tinged with a darkish green that shines like silk. In some the top of the head is of a shining blue, and the head itself, as well as the upper part of the neck, appears sometimes blue and sometimes green, as it is differently placed to the eye of the spectator. The feathers of the breast, the shoulders, the middle of the back, and the sides under the wings have a blackish ground, with edges tinged of an exquisite colour, which appears sometimes black and sometimes purple, according to the different lights it is placed in; under the purple there is a transverse streak of gold-colour. The tail from the middle feathers to the root is about eighteen inches long; the legs, the feet, and the toes are of the colour of horn. There are black spurs on the legs, shorter than those of a cock; there is a membrane that connects two of the toes together; and the male is much more beautiful than the female.

This bird, though so beautiful to the eye, is not less delicate when served up to the table. Its flesh is considered as the greatest dainty; and when the old physicians spoke of the wholesomeness of any viands, they made their comparison with the flesh of the pheasant. However, notwithstanding all these perfections to tempt the curiosity or the palate, the pheasant has multiplied

in its wild state; and, as if disdaining the protection of man, has left him to take shelter in the thickest woods and the remotest forests. All others of the domestic kind—the cock, the turkey, or the pintada—when once reclaimed have still continued in their domestic state, and persevered in the habits and appetites of willing slavery. But the pheasant, though taken from its native warm retreats, where the woods supply variety of food and the warm sun suits its tender constitution, has still continued its attachment to native freedom, and now wild among us, makes the most envied ornament of our parks and forests, where he feeds upon acorns and berries, and the scanty produce of our chilling climate.

The spirit of independence seems to attend the pheasant even in captivity. In the woods the hen pheasant lays from eighteen to twenty eggs in a season; but in a domestic state she seldom lays above ten. In the same manner, when wild she hatches and leads up her brood with patience, vigilance, and courage; but when kept tame she never sits well; so that a hen is generally her substitute upon such occasions; and as for leading her young to their food, she is utterly ignorant where it is to be found; and the young birds starve if left solely to her protection. The pheasant, therefore, on every account seems better left at large in the woods than reclaimed to pristine captivity. Its fecundity when wild is sufficient to stock the forest—its beautiful plumage adorns it—and its flesh retains a high flavour from its unlimited freedom.

However, it has been the aim of late to take these birds once more from the woods, and to keep them in places fitted for their reception. Like all others of the poultry kind, they have no great sagacity, and suffer themselves easily to be taken. At night they roost upon the highest trees of the wood; and by day they come down into the lower brakes and bushes, where their food is chiefly found. They generally make a kind of flapping noise when they are with the females; and this often apprises the sportsman of their retreats. At other times he tracks them in the snow, and frequently takes them in springs. But of all birds they are shot most easily, as they always make a whirring noise when they rise, by which they attract the gunner, and, being a large mark and flying very slow, there is scarce any chance of missing them.

When these birds are taken young into keeping they become as familiar as chickens, and when they are designed for breeding they are put together in a yard, five hens to a cock; for this bird, like all of the poultry kind, is very salacious. In her natural state the female makes her nest of dry grass and leaves; the same must be laid for her in the pheasandry, and she herself will sometimes properly dispose them. If she refuses to hatch her eggs, then a common hen must be got to supply her place, which task she will perform with perseverance and success. The young ones are very difficult to be reared; and they must be supplied with ants' eggs, which is the food the old one leads them to gather when wild in the woods. To make these go the farther, they are to be chopped up with curds or other meat; and the young ones are to be fed with great exactness, both as to the quantity and the time of their supply. This food is sometimes also to be varied, and wood-lice, ear-wigs, and other insects are to make a variety. The place where they are reared must be kept extremely clean; their water must be changed twice or thrice a day; they must not be exposed till the dew is off the ground in the morning; and they should always be taken in before sun set. When they become adult they can very well shift for themselves, but they are particularly fond of oats and barley.

In order to increase the breed and make it still more valuable, Longolius teaches us a method that appears very peculiar. The pheasant is a very bold bird when first brought into the yard among other poultry, not

sparing the peacock, nor even such young cocks and hens as it can master; but after a time it will live tamely among them, and will at last be brought to couple with a common hen. The breed thus produced take much stronger after the pheasant than the hen; and in a few successions, if they be let to breed with the cock-pheasant (for the mixture is not barren), there will be produced a species more tame, more strong, and more prolific; so that, he adds, it is strange why most of our pheasandries are not stocked with birds produced in this manner.

The pheasant when full grown seems to feed indifferently upon everything that offers. It is said by a French writer that one of the king's sportsmen shooting at a parcel of crows that were gathered round a dead carcase, to his great surprise upon coming up found that he had killed as many pheasants as crows. It is even asserted by some, that such is the carnivorous disposition of this bird, that when several of them are put together in the same yard, if one of them happens to fall sick or seems to be pining, all the rest will fall upon, kill, and devour it. Such is the language of books; those who have frequent opportunities of examining the manners of the bird itself know what credit ought to be given to such an account.

Of the pheasant, as of all other domestic fowl, there are many varieties. There are white pheasants, crested pheasants, and spotted pheasants; but of all others the gold pheasant of China is the most beautiful. It is doubtful whether the peacock itself can bear the comparison. However, the natives of China would not have us consider it as their most beautiful bird, though covered all over with eyes, resembling in miniature those of the peacock. By their accounts it is far exceeded by the "fongwang," an imaginary bird, of which they give a most phantastic description. It is thus that the people of every country, though possessed of the greatest advantages, have still others that they would persuade strangers they enjoy, which have existence only in the imagination.

CHAP. VI.

THE PINTADA, OR GUINEA-HEN.

This is a very remarkable bird, and in some measures unites the characteristics of the pheasant and the turkey. It has the fine delicate shape of the one and the bare head of the other. To be more particular, it is about the size of a common hen, but as it is supported on longer legs it looks much larger. It has a round back, with a tail turned downwards like a partridge. The head is covered with a kind of casque; and the whole plumage is black or dark-grey, speckled with white spots. It has wattles under the bill, which do not proceed from the lower chap as in cocks, but from the upper, which gives it a very peculiar air, while its restless gait and odd chuckling sound distinguish it sufficiently from all other birds whatever.

It is well known all over Europe, and even better than with us in those nations that border on the Mediterranean, who probably had it before us from those parts of Africa which lay nearest. Accordingly we find it in different countries called by different names, from the place whence they had it. They are by some called the "Barbary hen," by others, the "tamis bird," and by others the "bird of Numidia." We have given it the name of that part of Africa from whence probably it was first brought.

In many parts of their native country they are seen in vast flocks together, feeding their young, and leading them in quest of food. All their habits are like those of the poultry kind, and they agree in every other

respect, except that the male and female are so much alike that they can hardly be distinguished asunder. The only difference lies in the wattles described above, which in the cock are of a bluish cast, in the hen they are more inclining to a red. Their eggs, like their bodies, are speckled; in our climate they lay but five or six in a season; but they are far more prolific in their sultry regions at home. They are kept among us rather for show than use, as their flesh is not much esteemed, and they give a good deal of trouble in the rearing.

CHAP. VII.

THE BUSTARD.

The bustard is the largest land-bird that is a native of Britain. It was once much more numerous than it is at present; but the increased cultivation of the country and the extreme delicacy of its flesh have greatly thinned the species; so that a time may come when it may be doubted whether even so large a bird was bred among us. It is probable that long before this the bustard would have been extirpated but for its peculiar manner of feeding. Had it continued to seek shelter among our woods, in proportion as they were cut down it must have been destroyed. If in the forest, the fowler might approach it without being seen; and the bird, from its size, would be too great a mark to be easily missed. But it inhabits only the open and extensive plain, where its food lies in abundance, and where every invader may be seen at a distance.

The bustard is much larger than the turkey, the male generally weighing from twenty-five to twenty-seven pounds. The neck is a foot long, and the legs a foot and a half. The wings are not proportionate to the rest of the body, being but four feet from the tip of the one to the other; for which reason the bird flies with great difficulty. The head and neck of the male are ash-coloured; the back is barred transversely with black, bright, and rust colour. The greater quill feathers are black, the belly white, and the tail, which consists of twenty feathers, is marked with broad black bars.

It would seem odd, as was hinted before, how so large a land-bird as this could find shelter in so cultivated a country as England; but the wonder will cease when we find it only in the most open countries, where scarce anyone approaches without being discovered. They are frequently seen in flocks of fifty or more in the extensive downs of Salisbury Plain, in the heaths of Sussex and Cambridgeshire, the Dorsetshire uplands, and so on as far as East Lothian in Scotland. In those extensive plains, where there are no woods to screen the sportsman nor hedges to creep along, the bustards enjoy an indolent security. Their food is composed of the berries that grow among the heath, and the large earth-worms that appear in great quantities on the downs before sunrise in summer. It is in vain that the fowler creeps forward to approach them; they have always sentinels placed at proper omens, which are ever on the watch, and warn the flock of the smallest appearance of danger. All, therefore, that is left the sportsman is the comfortless view of their distant security. He may wish, but they are in safety.

It sometimes happens that these birds, though they are seldom shot by the gun, are often run down by greyhounds. As they are voracious and greedy, they often sacrifice their safety to their appetite, and feed themselves so very fat that they are unable to fly without great preparation. When the greyhound, therefore, comes within a certain distance, the bustard runs off flapping its wings, and endeavouring to gather air enough under them to rise; in the meantime the enemy approaches nearer and nearer, till it is too late for the bird even to think of ob-

taining safety by flight; for just at the rise there is always time lost, and of this the bird is sensible; it continues, therefore, on the foot until it has got a sufficient way before the dog for flight, or until it is taken.

As there are few places where they can at once find proper food and security, so they generally continue near their old haunts, seldom wandering above twenty or thirty miles from home. As their food is replete with moisture, it enables them to live upon these dry plains (where there are scarcely any springs of water) a long time without drinking. Besides this, Nature has given the males an admirable magazine for their security against thirst. This is a pouch, the entrance of which lies immediately under the tongue, and is capable of holding near seven quarts of water. This is probably filled upon proper occasions, to supply the hen when sitting or the young before they can fly.

Like all other birds of the poultry kind they change their mates at the season of incubation, which is about the latter end of summer. They separate in pairs if there be a sufficiency of females for the males; but when this happens to be otherwise the males fight until one of them falls.

They make their nests upon the ground, only just scraping a hole in the earth, and sometimes lining it with a little long grass or straw. There they lay two eggs only, almost of the size of a goose-egg, of a pale olive brown, marked with spots of a darker colour. They hatch for about five weeks, and the young ones run about as soon as they are out of the shell.

The bustards assemble in flocks in the month of October, and keep together till April. In winter, as their food becomes more scarce, they support themselves indiscriminately by feeding on moles, mice, and even little birds when they can seize them. For want of other food, they are contented to live upon turnip-leaves and such like succulent vegetables. In some parts of Switzerland they are found frozen in the fields in severe weather; but when taken to a warm place they again recover. They usually live fifteen years, and are incapable of being propagated in a domestic state, as they probably want that food which best agrees with their appetite.

CHAP. VIII.

THE GROUSE AND ITS AFFINITIES.

The cock of the wood, the black cock, the grouse, and the ptarmigan—these are all birds of a similar nature, and chiefly found in heathy mountains and piny forests at a distance from mankind. They might once indeed have been common enough all over England, when a great part of the country was covered with heath; but at present their numbers are thinned: the two first of this kind are utterly unknown in the south, and have taken refuge in the northern parts of Scotland, where the extensive heaths afford them security and the forests shelter.

The cock of the wood is sometimes the size of a turkey, and often weighs near fourteen pounds; the black cock, of which the male is all over black, though the female is of the colour of a partridge, is about the size of a hen, and, like the former, is only found with us in the Highlands of Scotland; the grouse is about half as large again as a partridge, and its colour much like that of a woodcock, but redder; the ptarmigan is still somewhat less, and is of a pale brown or ash-colour. They are all distinguishable from other birds of the poultry kind by a naked skin of a scarlet colour above the eyes, in the place and of the figure of eyebrows.

It seems to be something extraordinary that all the larger wild animals of every species choose the darkest and the inmost recesses of the woods for their residence,

while the smaller kinds come into the open and cultivated parts, where there is more food and more danger. It is thus with the birds I am describing: while the cock of the wood is seldom seen except on the inaccessible parts of heathy mountains or in the midst of piny forests, the grouse is found in great numbers in the neighbourhood of corn-fields, where there is heath to afford retreat and shelter. Their food, too, somewhat differs; while the smaller kind live upon heath-blossoms, cranberries, and corn, the larger feed upon the cones of the pine-tree, and will sometimes entirely strip one tree before it offers to touch those of another, though just beside him. In other respects the manners of these birds are the same, being both equally simple in their diet and licentious in their amours.

The cock of the wood—for it is from him we will take our description—is, as was said, chiefly fond of a mountainous and woody situation. In winter he resides in the darkest and inmost parts of the woods; in summer he ventures down from his retreats to make short depredations on the farmer's corn. The delicacy of his flesh in some measure sets a high price upon his head; and as he is greatly sought after, so he continues when he comes down from the hills always on his guard. Upon these occasions he is seldom surprised; and those who would take him must venture up to find him in his native retreats.

The cock of the wood, when in the forest, attaches himself principally to the oak and the pine-tree—the cones of the latter serving for his food, and the thick boughs for a habitation. He even makes a choice of what cones he shall feed upon; for he sometimes will strip one tree bare before he will deign to touch the cones of another. He feeds, also, upon ants'-eggs, which seem a high delicacy to all birds of the poultry kind; cranberries are likewise often found in his crop; and his gizzard, like that of domestic fowls, contains a quantity of gravel, for the purposes of assisting his powers of digestion.

At the earliest return of spring this bird begins to feel the genial influence of the season. During the month of March the approaches of courtship are commenced, and do not cease till the trees have assumed all their leaves and the forest is in full bloom. During this whole season the cock of the wood is seen, at sunrise and setting, extremely active upon one of the largest branches of the pine-tree. With his tail raised and expanded like a fan and the wings drooping, he is seen walking backward and forward, his neck stretched out, his head swollen and red, and making a thousand ridiculous postures; his cry upon that occasion is a kind of loud explosion, which is instantly followed by a noise like the whetting of a scythe, which ceases and commences alternately for about an hour, and is then terminated by the same explosion.

During the time this singular cry continues the bird seems entirely deaf and insensible to every danger; whatever noise may be made near him, or even though fired at, he still continues his call; and this is the time that sportsmen generally take to shoot him. Upon all other occasions he is the most timorous and watchful bird in Nature; but now he seems entirely absorbed by his instincts, and seldom leaves the place where he first begins to feel the accessions of desire. This extraordinary cry, which is accompanied by a clapping of the wings, is no sooner finished than the female, hearing it, replies, approaches, and places herself under the tree, from whence the cock descends to impregnate her. The number of females that on this occasion resort to his call is uncertain, but one male generally suffices for all.

The female is much less than her mate, and entirely unlike him in plumage, so that she might be mistaken for a bird of another species; she seldom lays more than six or seven eggs, which are white and marked with yellow, of the size of a common hen's egg; she generally

lays them in a dry place and a mossy ground, and hatches them without the company of the cock. When she is obliged during the time of incubation to leave her eggs in quest of food, she covers them up so artfully with moss or dry leaves that it is extremely difficult to discover them. On this occasion she is quite tame and tranquil, however wild and timorous in ordinary. She often keeps to her nest, though strangers attempt to draw her away.

As soon as the young ones are hatched they are seen running with extreme agility after the mother, though sometimes not entirely disengaged from the shell. The hen leads them forward for the first time into the woods, shows them ants'-eggs and the wild mountain-berries, which, while young, are their only food. As they grow older their appetites grow stronger, and they then feed upon the tops of heather and the cones of the pine-tree. In this manner they soon come to perfection. They are a hardy bird, and their food lies everywhere before them in great abundance. But their numbers are thinned by rapacious birds and beasts of every kind, and still more by their own falacious contests.

As soon as the clutching is over, which the female performs in the manner of a hen, the whole brood follows the mother for about a month or two; at the end of which the young males entirely forsake her, and keep in great harmony together till the beginning of spring. At this season they begin for the first time to feel the genial access; and then adieu to all their former friendships! They begin to consider each other as rivals; and the rage of concupiscence quite extinguishes the spirit of society. They fight each other like game-cocks, and at that time are so inattentive to their own safety, that it often happens that two or three of them are killed at a shot. It is probable that in these contests the bird which comes off victorious takes possession of the female seraglio, as it is certain they have no faithful attachments.

CHAP. IX.

OF THE PARTRIDGE AND ITS VARIETIES.

The partridge may be particularly considered as belonging to the sportsman. It is a bird which even our laws have taken under protection; and, like a peacock or a hen, may be ranked as private property. The only difference now is that we feed one on our farms, the other in our parks, &c.; that these are contented captives—those, servants that have it in their power to change their master by changing their habitation.

"These birds," says Willoughby, "hold the principal place in the feasts and entertainments of princes, without which their feasts are esteemed ignoble, vulgar, and of no account. The Frenchmen so highly value and are so fond of the partridge, that if they be wanting they utterly slight and despise the best-spread tables, as if there could be no feast without them." But however this might be in the times of our historian, the partridge is now too common in France to be considered as a delicacy; and this, as well as every other simple dish, is exploded for luxuries of a more compound invention.

In England, where the partridge is much scarcer and a great deal dearer, it is still a favourite delicacy at the tables of the rich; and the desire of keeping it to themselves has induced them to make laws for its preservation no way harmonising with the general spirit of the English legislation. What can be more arbitrary than to talk of preserving the game, which, when defined, means no more than that the poor shall abstain from what the rich have taken a fancy to keep to themselves? If these birds could, like a cock or a hen, be legal property—could they be taught to keep within certain dis-

tricts, and only feed on those grounds that belong to the man whose entertainments they improve—it then might with some show of justice be admitted, that as a man fed them so he might claim them. But this is not the case; nor is it in any man's power to lay a restraint upon the liberty of these birds, who when let loose put no limits to their excursions. They feed everywhere, upon every man's ground; and no man can say "these birds are fed only by me." Those birds which are nourished by all belong to all; nor can any one man or any set of men lay claim to them when still continuing in a state of nature.

I never walked about the environs of Paris that I did not consider the immense quantity of game that was running almost tame on every side of me, as a badge of the slavery of the people; and what they wished me to observe as an object of triumph I always regarded with a kind of secret compassion; yet this people have no game-laws for the remoter parts of the kingdom; the game is only preserved in a few places for the king, and is free in most places else. In England the prohibition is general; and the peasant has not a right to what even slaves, as he is taught to call them, are found to possess.

Of partridges there are two kinds—the grey and the red. The red partridge is the largest of the two, and often perches upon trees; the grey, with which we are best acquainted in England, is most prolific, and always keeps on the ground.

The partridge seems to be a bird well known all over the world, as it is found in every country and in every climate, as well in the frozen regions about the pole as the torrid tracts under the equator. It even seems to adapt itself to the nature of the climate where it resides. In Greenland the partridge, which is brown in summer, as soon as the icy winter sets in begins to take a covering suited to the season: it is then clothed with a warm down beneath, and its outward plumage assumes the colour of the snows among which it seeks its food. Thus it is doubly fitted for the place by the warmth and the colour of its plumage—the one to defend it from the cold, the other to prevent its being noticed by the enemy. Those of Barakonda, on the other hand, are longer legged, much swifter of foot, and choose the highest rocks and precipices to reside in.

They all, however, agree in one character—of being immoderately addicted to venery, and, as some writers affirm, often to an unnatural degree. It is certain the male will pursue the hen even to her nest; and will break her eggs rather than not indulge his inclinations. Though the young ones have kept in pairs together in flocks during the winter, when they begin to pair in spring their society disperses, and combats, terrible with respect to each other, ensue. Their manners in other circumstances resemble all those of the poultry in general; but their cunning and instincts seem superior to those of the larger kinds. Perhaps as they live in the very neighbourhood of their enemies, they have more frequent occasions to put their arts into practice, and learn by habit the means of evasion or safety. Whenever, therefore, a dog or other formidable animal approaches their nest, the female uses every means to draw him away. She keeps just before him, pretends to be incapable of flying, just hops up, and then falls down before him, but never goes off so far as to discourage her pursuer. At length, when she has withdrawn him entirely away from her secret treasure, she at once takes wing, and fairly leaves him to gaze after her in despair.

After the danger is over and the dog withdrawn she then calls her young, who assemble at once at her cry, and follow where she leads them. They are generally from ten to fifteen in a covey; and, if unmolested, they live from fifteen to seventeen years.

There are several methods of taking them, as is well known; that by which they are taken in a net with a

setting-dog is the most pleasant, as well as the most secure. The dog, as everybody knows, is trained to this exercise by a long course of education; by blows and caresses he is taught to lie down at the word of command; a partridge is shown him, and he is then ordered to lie down; he is brought into the field, and when the sportsman perceives where the covey lies he orders his dog to crouch: at length the dog, from habit, crouches wherever he approaches a covey; and this is the signal which the sportsman receives for unfolding and covering the birds with his net. A covey thus caught is sometimes fed in a place proper for their reception; but they can never be thoroughly tamed like the rest of our domestic poultry.

CHAP. X.

THE QUAIL.

The last of the poultry kind that I shall mention is the quail—a bird much smaller than any of the former, being not above half the size of a partridge. The feathers of the head are black edged with rusty brown; the breast is of a pale yellowish red spotted with black; the feathers on the back are marked with lines of pale yellow, and the legs are of a pale hue. Except in the colours thus described, and the size, it everyway resembles a partridge in shape, and, except that it is a bird of passage, all others of the poultry kind in its habits and nature.

The quail is by all known to be a bird of passage; and yet if we consider its heavy manner of flying and its dearth of plumage with respect to its corpulence, we shall be surprised how a bird so apparently ill qualified for migration should take such extensive journeys. Nothing, however, is more certain. "When we sailed from Rhodes to Alexandria," says Bellonius, "about autumn, many quails, flying from the north to the south, were taken in our ship; and, sailing at spring-time the contrary way, from the south to the north, I observed them on their return, when many of them were taken in the same manner." This account is confirmed by many others, who aver that they choose a north wind for these adventures, the south wind being very unfavourable, as it retards their flight by moistening their plumage. They then fly two by two, continuing, when the way lies over land, to go faster by night than by day, and to fly very high to avoid being surprised or set upon by birds of prey. However, it still remains a doubt whether quails take such long journeys as Bellonius has made them perform. It is now asserted by some that the quail only migrates from one province of a country to another. For instance, in England they fly from the inland counties to those bordering on the sea, and continue there all the winter. If frost or snow drive them out of the stubble-fields or marshes, they then retreat to the seaside, shelter themselves among the weeds, and live upon what is thrown up from the sea upon shore. Particularly in Essex, the time of their appearance upon the coasts of that county exactly coincides with their disappearance from the more internal parts of the kingdom: so that what has been said of their long flights is probably not so well-founded as is generally supposed.

These birds are much less prolific than the partridge—seldom laying more than six or seven whitish eggs, marked with ragged, rust-coloured spots. But their ardour in courtship yields scarce to any other bird, as they are fierce and cruel at that season to each other, fighting most desperately, and (a punishment they richly deserve) being at that time very easily taken. Quail-fighting was a favourite amusement among the Athenians: they abstained from the flesh of this bird, deeming it unwholesome, supposing that it fed upon the white hellebore

but they reared great numbers of them for the pleasure of seeing them fight, and staked sums of money, as we do with regard to cocks, upon the success of the combat. Fashion, however, has at present changed with regard to this bird; we take no pleasure in its courage, but its flesh is considered as a very great delicacy.

Quails are easily caught by a call: the fowler early in the morning, having spread his net, hides himself under it among the corn; he then imitates the voice of the female with his quail-pipe, which the cock hearing, approaches with the utmost assiduity; when he has got under the net the fowler then discovers himself and terrifies the quail, who, attempting to get away, entangles himself the more in the net, and is easily taken. The quail may thus very well serve to illustrate the old adage, that every passion, carried to an inordinate excess, will at last lead to ruin.

BOOK IV.—CHAP. I.

OF BIRDS OF THE PIE KIND IN GENERAL.

In marshalling our army of the feathered creation, we have placed in the van a race of birds long bred to war, and whose passion is slaughter; in the centre we have placed the slow and heavy laden, that are usually brought into the field to be destroyed; we now come to a kind of light infantry, that partake something of the spirit of the two former and yet belonging to neither. In this class we must be content to marshal a numerous, irregular tribe, variously armed, with different pursuits, appetites, and manners; not formidably formed for war, and yet generally delighting in mischief; not slowly and usefully obedient, and yet without any professed enmity to the rest of their fellow-tenants of the air.

To speak without metaphor, under this class of birds we may arrange all that noisy, restless, chattering, teasing tribe that lies between the hen and the thrush, that, from the size of the raven down to that of the woodpecker, flutter round our habitations, and rather with the spirit of pilferers than of robbers make free with the fruits of human industry.

Of all the other classes this seems to be that which the least contributes to furnish out the pleasures or supply the necessities of man. The falcon hunts for him, the poultry supplies him with luxurious food, and the little sparrow race delight them with the melody of their warblings. The crane kind make a studied variety in his entertainments; and the class of ducks are not only many of them delicate in their flesh, but extremely useful for their feathers. But in the class of the pie kind there are few, except the pigeon, that are anyway useful. They serve rather to tease man than to assist or amuse him. Like faithless servants they are fond of his neighbourhood, because they mostly live by his labour; but their chief study is what they can plunder in his absence, while their deaths make no atonement for their depredations.

But though, with respect to man, this whole class is rather noxious than beneficial—though he may consider them in this light as false, noisy, troublesome neighbours, yet, with respect to each other, no class of birds are so ingenious, so active, or so well fitted for society. Could we suppose a kind of morality among birds, we should find that these are by far the most industrious, the most faithful, the most constant, and the most connubial. The rapacious kinds drive out their young before they are fit to struggle with adversity; but the pie kind cherish their young to the last. The poultry class are faithless and promiscuous in their courtship; but these live in pairs, and their attachments are wholly confined to each other. The sparrow kind frequently overleap the bounds of Nature, and make illicit va-

rieties; but these never. They live in harmony with each other; every species is true to its kind, and transmits an unpolluted race to posterity.

As other kinds build in rooks or upon the ground, the chief place where these build is in trees or bushes; the male takes his share in the labours of building the nest, and often relieves his mate in the duties of incubation. Both take this office by turns; and when the young are excluded, both are equally active in making them an ample provision.

They sometimes live in societies; and in these there are general laws observed, and a kind of republican form of government established among them. They watch not only for the general safety, but for that of every other bird of the grove. How often have we seen a fowler, stealing in upon a flock of ducks or wild geese, disturbed by the alarming note of a crow or a magpie: its single voice gave the whole thoughtless tribe warning, and taught them in good time to look to their safety.

Nor are these birds less remarkable for their instincts than their capacity for instruction. There is an apparent cunning or archness in the look of the whole tribe; and I have seen crows and ravens taught to fetch and carry with the docility of a spaniel. Indeed, it is often an exercise that, without teaching, all this tribe are but too fond of. Every body knows what a passion they have for shining substances, and such toys as some of us put a value upon. A whole family has been alarmed at the loss of a ring; every servant has been accused, and every creature in the house, conscious of their own innocence, suspected each other, when, to the utter surprise of all, it has been found in the nest of a tame magpie or a jackdaw, that nobody had ever thought of.

However, as this class is very numerous it is not to be supposed that the manners are alike in all. Some, such as the pigeon, are gentle and serviceable to man; others are noxious, capricious, and noisy. In a few general characters they all agree—namely, in having hoarse voices, slight, active bodies, and a facility of flight that baffles even the boldest of the rapacious kinds in the pursuit. I will begin with those birds which most properly may be said to belong to this class, and go on till I finish with the pigeon—a harmless bird, that resembles this tribe in little else except its size, and that seems to be the shade uniting the pie and the sparrow kind into one general picture.

It is not to be expected that in this sketch of the great magazine of Nature we can stop singly to contemplate every object. To describe the number that offers would be tedious, and the similitude that one bears another would make the history disgusting. As a historian in relating the actions of some noble people does not stop or give the character of every private man in the army, but only of such as have been distinguished by their conduct, courage, or treachery, so should the historian of Nature only seize upon the striking objects before him, and, having given one common account of the most remarkable, refer the peculiarities of the rest to their general description.

CHAP. II.

OF THE RAVEN, THE CROW, AND THEIR AFFINITIES.

The raven, the carrion-crow, and the rook are birds so well known, that a long description would but obscure our ideas of them. The raven is the largest of the three, and distinguished from the rest not only by his size, but by his bill being somewhat more hooked than that of the rest. As for the carrion-crow and the rook, they so strongly resemble each other, both in make and

size, that they are not easily distinguished asunder. The chief difference to be found between them lies in the bill of the rook, which, by being frequently thrust into the ground to fetch out grubs and earth-worms, is bare of feathers as far as the eyes, and appears of a whitish colour. It differs, also, in the purple splendour or gloss of its feathers, which in the carrion-crow are of a more dirty black. Nor is it amiss to make these distinctions, as the rook has but too frequently suffered for its similitude to the carrion-crow; and thus a harmless bird, that feeds only upon insects and corn, has been destroyed for another that feeds upon carrion, and is often destructive among young poultry.

The manners of the raven and the carrion-crow are exactly similar; they both feed upon carrion—they fly only in pairs, and will destroy other birds if they can take them by surprise. But it is very different with the rook, the daw, and the Cornish chough, which may be all ranked in this order. They are sociable and harmless; they live only upon insects and grain; and wherever they are, instead of injuring other birds they seem centinels for the whole feathered creation. It will be proper, therefore, to describe these two sorts according to their respective appetites, they have nothing in common but the very strong similitude they bear to each other in their colour and formation.

The raven is a bird found in every region of the world; strong and hardy, he is uninfluenced by the changes of the weather; and when other birds seem benumbed with cold or pining with famine, the raven is active and healthy, busily employed in prowling for prey, or sporting in the coldest atmosphere. As the heats at the line do not oppress him, so he bears the cold of the polar countries with equal indifference. He is sometimes, indeed, seen milk white; and this may probably be the effect of the rigorous climates of the north. It is most likely that this change is wrought upon him as upon most other animals in that part of the world, where their robes, particularly in winter, assume the colour of the country where they inhabit. As in old age, when the natural heat decays the hair grows grey and at last white, so among these animals the cold of the climate may produce a similar languishment of colour, and may shut up those pores that conveyed the tincturing fluids to the most extreme parts of the body.

However this may be, white ravens are often shown among us, which, I have heard some say, are rendered thus by art; and this we could readily suppose if they were as easily changed in their colour as they are altered in their habits and dispositions. A raven may be reclaimed to almost every purpose to which birds can be converted. He may be trained for fowling like a hawk—he may be taught to fetch and carry like a spaniel—he may be taught to speak like a parrot; but the most extraordinary of all is, that he can be taught to sing like a man. I have heard a raven sing the "Black joke" with great distinctness, truth, and humour.

Indeed, when the raven is taken as a domestic he has many qualities that render him extremely amusing. Busy, inquisitive, and impudent, he goes everywhere, affronts and drives off the dogs, plays his pranks on the poultry, and is particularly assiduous in cultivating the good-will of the cook-maid, who seems to be the favourite of the family. But then, with the amusing qualities of a favourite he often also has vices and defects. He is a glutton by nature and a thief by habit. He does not confine himself to petty depredations on the pantry or the larder: he soars at more magnificent plunder—at spoils that he can neither exhibit nor enjoy, but which, like a miser, he rests satisfied with having the satisfaction of sometimes visiting and contemplating in secret. A piece of money, a tea-spoon, or a ring, are always tempting baits to his avarice; these he will silyly seize upon, and, if not watched, will carry to his favourite hole.

In his wild state the raven is an active and greedy plunderer. Nothing comes amiss to him; whether his prey be living or long dead it is all the same; he falls to with a voracious appetite, and when he has gorged himself, flies to acquaint his fellows that they may participate of the spoil. If the carcase be already in the possession of some more powerful animal—a wolf, a fox, or a dog—the raven sits at a little distance, content to continue an humble spectator till they have done. If in his flights he perceives no hopes of carrion (and his scent is so exquisite that he can smell it a vast distance) he then contents himself with more unsavoury food—fruits, insects, and the accidental desert of a dunghill.

This bird chiefly builds its nest in trees, and lays five or six eggs of a pale-green colour, marked with small brownish spots. They live sometimes in pairs, and sometimes they frequent in great numbers the neighbourhood of populous cities, where they are useful in devouring those carcases that would otherwise putrefy and infect the air. They build in high trees or old towers in the beginning of March with us in England, and sometimes sooner, as the spring is more or less advanced for the season. But it is not always near towns that they fix their retreats; they often build in unfrequented places, and drive all other birds from their vicinity. They will not even permit their young to keep in the same district, but drive them off when they are sufficiently able to shift for themselves. Martin, in his description of the Western Isles, avers that there are three little islands among the number which are occupied by a pair of ravens each, that drive off all other birds with great cries and impetuosity.

Notwithstanding the injury these birds do in picking out the eyes of sheep and lambs when they find them sick and helpless, a vulgar respect is paid them as being the birds that fed the prophet Elijah in the wilderness. This prepossession of the raven is of very ancient date, as the Romans themselves, who thought the bird omenous, paid it from motives of fear the most profound veneration. One of these that had been kept in the temple of Castor, as Pliny informs us, flew down into the shop of a tailor, who took much delight in the visits of his new acquaintance. He taught the bird several tricks, but particularly to pronounce the name of the Emperor Tiberius and the whole royal family. The tailor was beginning to grow rich by those who came to see this wonderful raven, till an envious neighbour, displeased at the tailor's success, killed the bird, and deprived the tailor of his future hopes of fortune. The Romans, however, took the poor tailor's part; they punished the man who offered the injury, and gave the raven all the honours of a magnificent interment.

Birds in general live longer than quadrupeds; and the raven is said to be one of the most long-lived of the number. Hesiod asserts that a raven will live nine times as long as a man; but though this is fabulous, it is certain that some of them have been known to live near a hundred years. This animal seems possessed of those qualities that generally produce longevity—a good appetite and great exercise. In clear weather the ravens fly in pairs to a great height, making a deep loud noise, different from that of their usual croaking.

The carrion-crow resembles the raven in its appetites, its laying, and manner of bringing up its young. It only differs in being less bold, less docile, and less favoured by mankind.

The rook leads the way in another but a more harmless train—that of having no carnivorous appetites, but only feeding upon insects and corn. The royston crow is about the size of the two former—the breast, belly, back, and upper part of the neck being of a pale ash-colour; the head and wings glossed over with a fine blue. He is a bird of passage, visiting this kingdom in the beginning of winter, and leaving it in the spring. He breeds,

however, in different parts of the British dominions; and his nest is common enough in trees in Ireland. The jackdaw is black, like all the former, but ash-coloured on the breast and belly. He is not above the size of a pigeon. He is docile and loquacious—his head being large for the size of the body, which, as has been remarked, argues him ingenious and crafty. He builds in steeples, old castles, and high rocks, laying five or six eggs in a season. The Cornish chough is like a jackdaw, but bigger, and almost the size of a crow. The feet and legs are long like those of a jackdaw, but of a red colour; and the plumage is black all over. It frequents rocks, old castles, and churches by the sea-side, like the daw, and with the same noisy assiduity. It is only seen along the western coasts of England. These are birds very similar in their manners, feeding on grain and insects, living in society, and often suffering general castigation from the flock for the good of the community.

The rook, as is well known, builds in woods and forests in the neighbourhood of man, and sometimes makes choice of groves in the very midst of cities for the place of its retreat and security. In these it establishes a kind of legal constitution, by which all intruders are excluded from coming to live among them, and none suffered to build but acknowledged natives of the place. I have often amused myself with observing their plan of policy from my window in the Temple, that looks upon a grove where they have made a colony in the midst of the city. At the commencement of spring the rookery, which during the continuance of winter seemed to have been deserted, or only guarded by about five or six, like old soldiers in a garrison, now begins to be once more frequented: and in a short time all the bustle and hurry of business is fairly commenced. Where these numbers resided during the winter it is not easy to guess—perhaps in the trees or hedge-rows, to be nearer their food. In spring, however, they cultivate their native trees; and in the places where they were themselves hatched they prepare to propagate a future progeny.

They keep together in pairs; and when the offices of courtship are over they prepare for making their nests and laying. The old inhabitants of the place are already provided; the nest which served them for years before, with a little trimming and dressing will serve very well again; the difficulty of nestling lies only upon the young ones who have no nest, and must therefore get up one as well as they can. But not only the materials are wanting, but also the place in which to fix it. Every part of a tree will not do for this purpose, as some branches may not be sufficiently forked; others may not be sufficiently strong; and still others may be too much exposed to the rockings of the wind. The male and female upon this occasion are for some days seen examining all the trees of the grove very attentively; and when they have fixed upon a branch that seems fit for their purpose, they observe it very sedulously for two or three days longer. The place being thus determined upon, they begin to gather the materials for their nest, such as sticks and fibrous roots, which they regularly dispose in the most substantial manner. But here a new and unexpected obstacle arises. It often happens that the young couple have made choice of a place too near the mansion of an older pair, who do not choose to be incommoded by such troublesome neighbours. A quarrel, therefore, instantly ensues, in which the old ones are always victorious.

The young couple, thus expelled, are obliged again to go through the fatigues of deliberating, examining, and choosing; and having taken care to keep their due distance, the nest begins again, and their industry deserves commendation. But their alacrity is often too great in the beginning; they soon grow weary of bringing the materials of their nest from distant places; and they very easily perceive that sticks may be provided nearer

home—with less honesty, indeed, but some degree of address. Away they go, therefore, to pilfer as fast as they can; and wherever they see a nest unguarded they take care to rob it of the very choicest sticks of which it is composed. But these thefts never go unpunished; and probably upon complaint being made there is a general punishment inflicted. I have seen eight or ten rooks come upon such occasions, and, setting upon the new nest of the young couple all at once, tear it in pieces in a moment.

At length, therefore, the young pair find the necessity of going more regularly and honestly to work. While one flies to fetch the materials the other sits upon the tree to guard it; and thus in the space of three or four days, with an intermediate skirmish now and then, the pair have fitted up a commodious nest composed of sticks without, and of fibrous roots and long grass within. From the instant the female begins to lay all hostilities are at an end; not one of the whole grove, that a little before treated her so rudely, will now venture to molest her; so that she brings forth her brood with patient tranquillity. Such is the severity with which even native rooks are treated by each other; but if a foreign rook should attempt to make himself a denizen of their society he would meet with no favour; the whole grove would at once be up in arms against him, and expel him without mercy.

In some countries these birds are considered as a benefit, in others as a nuisance: their chief food is the worm of the dorbeetle, and corn; thus they may be said to do as much service by destroying that noxious insect as they do injury by consuming the produce of the husbandman's industry.

To this tribe of the crow kind some foreign sorts might be added: I will take notice only of one, which, from the extraordinary size and fashion of its bill, must not be passed in silence. This is the "calao," or "horned Indian raven," which exceeds the common raven in size and habits of depredation. But what he differs in from all other birds is the beak, which, by its length and curvature at the end, appears designed for rapine; but then it has a kind of horn standing out from the top, which looks somewhat like a second bill, and gives this bird, otherwise fierce and ugly, a very formidable appearance. The horn springs out of the forehead, and grows to the upper part of the bill, being of great bulk; so that near the forehead it is four inches broad, not unlike the horn of the rhinoceros, but more crooked at the tip. Were the body of the bird answerable in size to the head, the calao would exceed in magnitude even the vulture or the eagle. But the head and beak are out of all proportion, the body being not much larger than that of a hen. Yet even here there are varieties; for in such of those birds as come from different parts of Africa the body is proportionable to the beak; in such as come from the Molucca Islands the beak bears no proportion to the body. Of what use this extraordinary excrescence is to the bird is not easy to determine; it lives, like others of its kind, upon carrion, and seldom has a living enemy to cope with: Nature seems to sport in the production of many animals, as if she were willing to exhibit instances as well of variety as economy in their formation.

CHAP. III.

OF THE MAGPIE AND ITS AFFINITIES.

There is such a variety of birds that may be distributed under this head, that we must not expect very precise ideas of any. To have a straight strong bill, legs formed for hopping, a body of about the size of a magpie, and party-coloured plumage, are the only marks by which I must be contented to distinguish this nume-

rous phantastic tribe, that add to the beauty though not to the harmony of our landscapes. In fact, there chattering everywhere disturbs the melody of the lesser warblers; and their noisy courtship not a little damps the song of the linnet and the nightingale.

However, we have very few of this kind in our woods compared to those in the neighbourhood of the line; they not only paint the scene with the beauty and the variety of their plumage, but stun the ear with vociferation. In those luxurious forests the singing birds are scarce ever heard, but a hundred varieties of the pie, the jay, the roller, the chatterer, and the toucan are continually in motion, and with their illusive mockeries disturb or divert the spectator as he may be disposed.

The magpie is the chief of this kind with us, and is too well known to need a description. Indeed, were its other accomplishments equal to its beauty, few birds could be put in competition. Its black, its white, its green, and purple, with rich and gilded combination of the glosses on its tail, are as fine as any that adorn the most beautiful of the feathered tribe. But it has too many of the qualities of a beau not to depreciate these natural perfections: vain, restless, loud, and quarrelsome, it is an unwelcome intruder everywhere, and never missing an opportunity when it finds one of doing mischief.

The magpie bears a great resemblance to the butcher-bird in its bill, which has a sharp process near the end of the upper chap, as well as in the shortness of its wings and the form of the tail, each feather shortening from the two middlemost. But it agrees still more in its food, living not only upon worms and insects, but also upon small birds when they can be seized. A wounded lark, or a young chicken separated from the hen, are sure plunder; and the magpie will even sometimes set upon and strike a blackbird.

The same insolence prompts it to seize the largest animals when its insults can be offered with security. They often are seen perched upon the back of an ox or a sheep, pecking up the insects to be found there, chattering and tormenting the poor animal at the same time, and stretching out their necks for combat, if the beast turns its head backward to reprehend them. They also seek out the nests of birds; and, if the parent escapes, the eggs make up for the deficiency: the thrush and the blackbird are but too frequently robbed by this assassin, and this in some measure causes their scarcity.

No food seems to come amiss to this bird; it shares with ravens in their carrion, with rooks in their grain, and with the cuckoo in birds' eggs: but it seems possessed of a providence seldom usual with gluttons; for when it is satisfied with the present it lays up the remainder of the feast for another occasion. It will even in a tame state hide its food when it has done eating, and after a time return to the secret hoard with renewed appetite and vociferation.

In all its habits it discovers a degree of instinct unusual to other birds. Its nest is not less remarkable for the manner in which it is composed than for the place it takes to build it in. The nest is usually placed conspicuously enough, either in the middle of some hawthorn bush or on the top of some high tree. The place, however, is always found difficult of access; for the tree pitched upon usually grows in some thick hedge-row fenced by brambles at the foot; or sometimes one of the higher bushes is fixed upon for the purpose. When the place is thus chosen as inaccessible as possible to men, the next care is to fence the nest above so as to defend it from all the various enemies of the air. The kite, the crow, and the sparrow-hawk are to be guarded against; as their nests have been sometimes plundered by the magpie, so it is reasonably feared that they will take the first opportunity to retaliate. To prevent this the magpie's nest is built with surprising labour and ingenuity.

The body of the nest is composed of hawthorn branches, the thorns sticking outward, but well united together by their mutual insertions. Within it is lined with fibrous roots, wool, and long grass, and then nicely plastered all round with mud and clay. The body of the nest being thus made firm and commodious, the next work is to make the canopy which is to defend it above. This is composed of the sharpest thorns, wove together in such a manner as to deny all entrance except at the door, which is just large enough to permit egress to the owners. In this fortress the male and female hatch and bring up their brood with security, sheltered from all attacks but those of the climbing school-boy, who often finds his torn and bloody hands too dear a price for the eggs or the young ones. The magpie lays six or seven eggs, of a pale-green colour spotted with brown.

This bird in its domestic state preserves its natural character with strict propriety. The same noisy, mischievous habits attend it to the cage that marked it in the woods; and being more cunning, so it is also a more docile bird than any other taken into keeping. Those who are desirous of teaching it to speak have a foolish custom of cutting its tongue, which only puts the poor animal to pain without improving its speech in the smallest degree. Its speaking is sometimes very distinct; but its sounds are too thin and sharp to be an exact imitation of the human voice, which the hoarse raven and parrot can counterfeit more exactly.

To this tribe we may refer the jay, which is one of the most beautiful of the British birds. The forehead is white streaked with black; the head is covered with very long feathers, which it can erect into a crest at pleasure; the whole neck, back, breast, and belly are of a faint purple, dashed with grey; the wings are most beautifully barred with a lovely blue, black, and white; the tail is black, and the feet of a pale brown. Like the magpie, it feeds upon fruits, will kill small birds, and is extremely docile.

The chatterer, also, which is a native of Germany, may be placed in this rank, and is somewhat less than the former. It is variegated with a beautiful mixture of colours—red, ash-colour, chestnut, and yellow; but what distinguishes it from all other birds are the horny appendages from the tips of seven of the lesser quill feathers, which stand bare of beards, and have the colour and gloss of the best red sealing-wax.

The roller is not less beautiful than any of the former. The breast and belly are blue, the head green, and the wings variegated with blue, black, and white. But it may be distinguished from all others by a sort of naked tubercles or warts near the eyes, which still farther contribute to increase its beauty.

To this class may be added a numerous list from all the tropical forests of the east and west, where the birds are remarkable for discordant voices and brilliant plumage. I will fix only upon one, which is the most singular of all the feathered creation. This is the toucan, a bird of the pie kind, whose bill is nearly as large as the rest of its whole body.

Of this extraordinary bird there are four or five varieties. I will only describe the red-beaked toucan; and as the figure of this bird makes the principal parts of its history, I will follow Edwards through all the minutiae of its singular conformation. It is about the size of and shaped like a jackdaw, with a large head to support its monstrous bill; this bill, from the angles of the mouth to its point, is six inches and a half; and its breadth in the thickest part is a little more than two. Its thickness near the head is one inch and a quarter; and it is a little rounded along the top of the upper chap, the under side being round also; the whole of the bill extremely alight, and a little thicker than parchment. The upper chap is of a bright yellow, except on each side, which is of a fine scarlet colour; as is also the

lower snap, except at the base, which is purple. Between the head and the bill there is a black line of separation all round the base of the bill, in the upper part of which the nostrils are placed, and are almost covered with feathers, which has occasioned some writers to say that the toucan has no nostrils. Round the eyes, on each side of the head, is a space of bluish skin, void of feathers, above which the head is black, except a white spot on each side joining to the base of the upper chap. The hinder part of the neck, the back, wings, tail, belly, and thighs are black. The under side of the head, throat, and the beginning of the breast are white. Between the white on the breast and the black on the belly is a space of red feathers, in the form of a new moon with its horns upwards. The legs, feet, and claws are of an ash-colour; and the toes stand like those of the parrot, two before and two behind.

It is reported by travellers that this bird, though furnished with so formidable a beak, is harmless and gentle, being so easily made tame as to sit and hatch its young in houses. It feeds chiefly upon pepper, which it devours very greedily, gorging itself in such a manner that it voids it crude and uncooked. This, however, is no objection to the natives from using it again; they even prefer it before that pepper which is fresh gathered from the tree; and seem persuaded that the strength and heat of the pepper is qualified by the bird, and that all its noxious qualities are thus exhausted.

Whatever be the truth of this report, nothing is more certain than that the toucan lives only upon a vegetable diet; and in a domestic state, to which it is frequently brought in the warm countries where it is bred, it is seen to prefer such food to all other. Pozzo, who bred one tame, asserts that it leaped up and down, wagged the tail, and cried with a voice resembling that of a magpie. It fed upon the same things that parrots do: but was most greedy of grapes, which, being plucked off one by one and thrown into the air, it would most dexterously catch before it fell to the ground. Its bill, he adds, was hollow, and upon that account very light, so that it had but little strength in so apparently formidable a weapon; nor could it peck or strike smartly therewith. But its tongue seemed to assist the efforts of this unwieldy machine: it was long, thin, and flat, not unlike one of the feathers on the neck of a dunghill cock; this it moved up and down, and often extended five or six inches from the bill. It was of a flesh-colour, and remarkably fringed on each side with very small filaments exactly resembling a feather.

It is probable that this long tongue has greater strength than the thin hollow beak that contains it. It is likely that the beak is only a kind of sheath for this peculiar instrument, used by the toucan not only in making itself a nest but also in obtaining its provision. Nothing is more certain than that this bird builds its nest in holes of trees, which have been previously scooped out for this purpose; and it is not very likely that so feeble a bill could be very serviceable in working upon such hard materials.

Be this as it will, there is no bird that secures its young better from external injury than the toucan. It has not only birds, men, and serpents to guard against, but a numerous tribe of monkeys, still more prying, mischievous, and hungry than all the rest. The toucan, however, scoops out its nest in the hollow of some tree, leaving only a hole large enough to go in and out at. There it sits, with its great beak, guarding the entrance, and if the monkey ventures to offer a visit of curiosity, the toucan gives him such a welcome that he presently thinks proper to pack off, and is glad to escape with safety.

This bird is only found in the warm climates of South America, where it is in great request, both for the delicacy of its flesh, which is tender and nourishing, and for the beauty of its plumage, particularly the feathers of the

breast. The skin of this part the Indians pluck off, and, when dry, glue to their cheeks; and this they consider as an irresistible addition to their beauty.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE WOODPECKER AND ITS AFFINITIES.

We now come to the numerous tribe of woodpeckers—a class easily distinguishable from all others, both for their peculiar formation, their method of procuring food, and their manner of providing a place of safety for their young. Indeed, no other class of birds seems more immediately formed for the method of life they pursue, being fitted by Nature at all points for the peculiarity of their condition. They chiefly live upon the insects contained in the body of trees; and for this purpose are furnished with a straight, hard, strong, angular, and sharp bill, made for piercing and boring. They have a tongue of a very great length—round, ending in a sharp, stiff, bony thorn, dentated on each side, to strike ants and insects when dislodged from their cells. Their legs are short and strong, for the purposes of climbing. Their toes stand two forward and two backward, which is particularly serviceable in holding by the branches of trees. They have hard stiff tails to lean upon when climbing. They feed only upon insects. And want that intestine which anatomists call the "cæcum"—a circumstance peculiar to this tribe only.

Of this bird there are many kinds, and many varieties in each kind. They form large colonies in the forests of every part of the world. They differ in size, colour, and appearance; and agree only in the marks above-mentioned, or in those habits which result from so peculiar a conformation. Instead, therefore, of descending into a minute discrimination of every species, let us take one for a pattern, to which all the rest will be found to bear the strongest affinity. Words can but feebly describe the plumage of a bird, but it is the province of history to enter into a detail of every animal's pursuits and occupations.

The green woodspite, or woodpecker, is called the "rain-fowl" in some parts of the country, because when it makes a greater noise than ordinary it is supposed to foretell rain. It is about the size of a jay; the throat, breast, and belly are of a pale greenish colour; and the back, neck, and covert feathers of the wings are green. But the tongue of this little animal makes its most distinguished characteristic, as it serves for its support and defence. As was said above, the woodpecker feeds on insects, and particularly on those which are lodged in the body of hollow or of rotting trees. The tongue is its instrument for killing and procuring this food, which cannot be found in great plenty. This is round, ending in a stiff, sharp, bony tip, dentated on both sides, like the beard of an arrow; and this it can dart out three or four inches from the bill, and draw in again at pleasure. Its prey is thus transfixed and drawn into the bill, which, when swallowed, the dart is then launched again at fresh game. Nothing has employed the attention of the curious in this part of anatomy more than the contrivance by which the tongue of this bird performs its functions with such great celerity. The tongue is drawn back into the bill by the help of two small round cartilages, fastened into the fore-mentioned bony tip, and running along the length of the tongue. These cartilages, from the root of the tongue, take a circuit beyond the ear, and, being reflected backwards to the crown of the head, make a large bow. The muscular spongy flesh of the tongue encloses these cartilages like a sheath, and is so made that it may be extended or contracted like a worm. The cartilages, indeed, have muscles accompanying them along their whole length backwards

But there is still another contrivance; there is a broad muscle joining the cartilages to the bones of the skull, which, by contracting or dilating, forces the cartilages forward through the tongue, and then forces the tongue and all through the bill, to be employed for the animal's preservation in piercing its prey.

Such is the instrument with which this bird is provided, and this the manner in which this instrument is employed. When a woodpecker, by its natural sagacity, finds out a rotten hollow tree where there are worms, ants' eggs, or insects, it immediately prepares for its operations. Resting by its strong claws, and leaning on the thick feathers of its tail, it begins to bore with its sharp strong beak, until it discloses the whole internal habitation. Upon this, either through pleasure at the sight of its prey or with a desire to alarm the insect colony, it sends forth a loud cry, which throws terror and confusion into the whole insect tribe. They creep hither and thither, seeking for safety; while the bird luxuriously feasts upon them at leisure, darting its tongue with unerring certainty, and devouring the whole brood.

The woodpecker, however, does not confine his depredations solely to trees, but sometimes lights upon the ground to try its fortune at an ant-hill. It is not so secure of prey there as in the former case, although the numbers are much greater. They lie generally too deep for the bird to come at them; and it is obliged to make up by stratagem the defects of power. The woodpecker first goes to their hills, while it pecks in order to call them abroad; it then thrusts out its long red tongue, which being like a worm, and resembling their usual prey, the ants come out to settle upon it in great numbers; however, the bird, watching the proper opportunity, withdraws its tongue at a jerk and devours the devourers. This stratagem it continues till it has alarmed their fears; or till it is quite satisfied.

As the woodpecker is obliged to make holes in trees to procure food, so is it also to make cavities still larger to form its nest to lay in. This is performed, as usual, with the bill; although some have affirmed that the animal uses its tongue as a gimlet to bore with. But this is a mistake; and those who are curious may often hear the noise of the bill making its way in large woods and forests. The woodpecker chooses, however, for this purpose trees that are decayed or wood that is soft, like beech, elm, and poplar. In these with but little trouble it can make holes as exactly round as a mathematician could with compasses. One of these holes the bird generally chooses for its own use, to nestle and bring up its young in; but as they are easily made it is delicate in its choice, and often makes twenty before one is found to give entire satisfaction. Of those which it had previously made other birds, not so good borers and less delicate in their choice, take possession. The jay and the starling lay their eggs in these holes; and bats are now and then found in peaceable possession. Boys sometimes have thrust in their hands with the certainty of pulling out a bird's egg, but to their mortification have had their fingers bitten by a bat at the bottom.

The woodpecker takes no care to line its nest with feathers or straw; its eggs are deposited in the hole without anything to keep them warm except the heat of the parent's body. Their number is generally five or six—always white, oblong, and of a middle size. When the young are excluded, and before they leave the nest, they are adorned with a scarlet plumage under the throat, which adds to their beauty.

In our climate, this bird is contented with such a wainscot habitation as has been described for its young; but in the warmer regions of Guinea and Brazil they take a very different method to protect and hatch their nascent progeny. A traveller who walks into the forests of those countries, among the first strange objects that excite curiosity he is struck with the multitude of bird-

nests hanging at the extremity of almost every branch. Many other kinds of birds build in this manner, but the chief of them are of the woodpecker kind; and, indeed, there is not in the whole history of Nature a more singular instance of the sagacity of these little animals in protecting themselves against such enemies as they have most occasion to fear. In cultivated countries a great part of the caution of the feathered tribe is to hide or defend their nests from the invasions of man, as he is their most dreaded enemy. But in the depth of those remote and solitary forests, where man is but seldom seen, the little bird has nothing to apprehend from him. The parent is careless how much the nest is exposed to general notice, being satisfied if it be out of the reach of those rapacious creatures that live by robbery and surprise. If the monkey or the snake can be guarded against the bird has no other enemies to fear; for this purpose its nest is built upon the depending points of the most outward branches of a tall tree, such as the banana or the plantain. On one of these immense trees is seen the most various and the most inimical assemblage of creatures that can be imagined. The top is inhabited by monkeys of a particular tribe, that drive off all others; lower down twine about the great trunk numbers of the larger snakes, patiently waiting till some unwary animal comes within the sphere of their activity; and at the edges of the tree hang these artificial nests, in great abundance, inhabited by birds of the most delightful plumage.

The nest is usually formed in this manner:—When the time of incubation approaches, they fly about in quest of a kind of moss, called by the English inhabitants of those countries "old man's beard." It is a fibrous substance, and not very unlike hair, which bears being moulded into any form, and suffers being glued together. This, therefore, the little woodpecker (called by the natives of Brazil the "guiratemga") first glues by some viscous substance gathered in the forest to the extremest branch of a tree; then building downward, and still adding fresh materials to those already procured, a nest is formed, that depends, like a pouch, from the point of the branch: the hole to enter at is on the side; and all the interior parts are lined with the finer fibres of the same substance which compose the whole.

Such is the general contrivance of these hanging nests, which are made by some other birds with still superior art. A little bird of the Grosbeak kind in the Philippine Islands makes its nest in such a manner that there is no opening but from the bottom. At the bottom the bird enters, and goes up through a funnel, like a chimney, till it comes to the real door of the nest, which lies on one side, and only opens into this funnel.

Some birds glue their nest to the leaf of the banana-tree, which makes two sides of their little habitation, while the other two are artificially composed by their own industry. But these and all of the kind are built with the same precautions to guard the young against the depredations of monkeys and serpents, which abound in every tree. The nest hangs there before the spoilers a tempting object, which they can only gaze upon, while the bird flies in and out without danger or molestation from so formidable a vicinity.

CHAP. V.

OF THE BIRD OF PARADISE AND ITS VARIETIES.

There are few birds that have more deceived and puzzled the learned than this. Some have described it as an inhabitant of the air, living only upon the dew of heaven, and never resting below; others have as-

quiesced in the latter part of its history, but have given it flying insects to feed on. Some have asserted that it was without feet, and others have ranked it among the birds of prey.

The great beauty of this bird's plumage and the deformity of its legs seem to have given rise to most of these erroneous reports. The native savages of the Molucca Islands, of which it is an inhabitant, were very little studious of natural history; and, perceiving the particular desire the Europeans had for this beautiful bird, carefully cut off its legs before they brought it to market; thus concealing its greatest deformity, they considered themselves entitled to rise in their demands when they offered it for sale. One deceit led on another; the buyer finding the birds without legs naturally inquired after them, and the seller as naturally began to assert that it had none. Thus far the European was imposed upon by others: in all the rest he imposed upon himself. Seeing so beautiful a bird without legs he concluded that it could live only in air, where legs were unnecessary. The extraordinary splendour of its plumage assisted this deception; and, as it had heavenly beauty, so it was asserted to have a heavenly residence. From thence its name, and all the false reports that have been propagated concerning it.

Error, however, is short-lived; and time has discovered that this bird not only has legs, but very large strong ones for its size. Credulity when undeceived runs into the opposite extreme; and soon after this harmless bird was branded with the character of being rapacious, of destroying all those of smaller size, and, from the amazing rapidity of its flight, as qualified peculiarly for extensive rapine. The real history of this pretty animal is at present tolerably well known, and it is found to be as harmless as it is beautiful.

There are two kinds of the bird of paradise—one about the size of a pigeon, which is more common; the other not much larger than a lark, which has been described more imperfectly. They are both sufficiently distinguished from all other birds, not only by the superior vivacity of their tints, but by the feathers of the tail, there being two long slender filaments growing from the upper part of the rump; these are longer than the bird's body, and bearded only at the end. By this mark the bird of paradise may be easily known, but still more easily by its gaudy livery, which being so very brilliant demands to be minutely described.

This bird appears to the eye as large as a pigeon, though in reality the body is not much greater than that of a thrush. The tail, which is about six inches, is as long as the body; the wings are large compared with the bird's other dimensions. The head, the throat, and the neck are of a pale gold-colour. The base of the bill is surrounded by black feathers, as also the side of the head and throat, as soft as velvet, and changeable like those on the neck of a mallard. The hinder part of the head is of a shining green mixed with gold. The body and wings are in general covered with beautiful brown, purple, and gold feathers. The uppermost part of the tail feathers are of a pale yellow, and those under them white, and longer than the former, for which reason the hinder part of the tail appears to be all white. But what chiefly excite curiosity are the two long naked feathers above-mentioned, which spring from the upper part of the rump above the tail, and which are usually about three feet long. These are bearded only at the beginning and the end—the whole shaft for above two feet nine inches being of a deep black, while the feathered extremity is of a changeable colour, like the mallard's neck.

This bird, which for beauty exceeds all others of the pie kind, is a native of the Molucca Islands, but found in greatest numbers in that of Aro. There, in the delightful and spicy woods of the country, do these beautiful creatures fly in large flocks; so that the groves

which produce the richest spices produce the finest birds also. The inhabitants themselves are not insensible of the pleasure these afford, and give them the name of God's birds, as being superior to all others that He has made. They live in large flocks, and at night generally perch upon the same tree. They are called by some the "swallows of Ternate," from their rapid flight, and from their being continually on the wing in pursuit of insects—their usual prey.

As the country where they are bred has its tempestuous season, when rains and thunders continually disturb the atmosphere, these birds are then but seldom seen. It is thought that they then fly to other countries where their food appears in greater abundance; for, like swallows, they have their stated times of return. In the beginning of the month of August they are seen in great numbers flying together, and, as the inhabitants would have us believe, following their king, who is distinguished from the rest by the lustre of his plumage, and that respect and veneration which is paid him. In the evening they perch upon the highest trees of the forest, particularly one which bears a red berry, upon which they sometimes feed when other food fails them. In what manner they breed, or what may be the number of their young, as yet remains for discovery.

The natives, who make a trade of killing and selling these birds to the Europeans, generally conceal themselves in the trees where they resort, and having covered themselves up from sight in a bower made of the branches, they shoot at the birds with reedy arrows; and, as they assert, if they happen to kill the king, they then have a good chance of killing the greatest part of the flock. The chief mark by which they know the king is by the ends of the feathers in his tail, which have eyes like those of a peacock. When they have taken a number of these birds, their usual method is to gut them and cut off their legs; they then run a hot iron into the body, which dries up the internal moisture; and, filling the cavity with salts and spices, they sell them to the Europeans for a perfect trifle.

CHAP. VI.

THE CUCKOO AND ITS VARIETIES.

From a bird of which many fables have been reported, we pass to another that has not given less scope to fabulous invention. The note of the cuckoo is known to all the world; the history and nature of the bird itself still remains in great obscurity. That it devours its parent, that it changes its nature with the season, and becomes a sparrow-hawk, were fables invented of this bird, and are now sufficiently refuted. But where it resides in winter, or how it provides for its supply during that season, still continues undiscovered.

This singular bird, which is somewhat less than a pigeon, shaped like a magpie, and of a greyish colour, is distinguished from all other birds by its round prominent nostrils. Having disappeared all the winter, it discovers itself in our country early in the spring by its well-known call. Its note is heard earlier or later as the season seems to be more or less forward and the weather more or less inviting. From the cheerful voice of this bird the farmer may be instructed in the real advancement of the year. The fallibility of human calendars is but too well known; but from this bird's note the husbandman may be taught when to sow his most useful seeds, and do such work as depends upon a certain temperature of the air. These feathered guides come to us heaven-taught, and point out the true commencement of the season.

The cuckoo, which is silent some time after its appearance, begins at first feebly and at very distant intervals

to give its call, which as the summer advances improves both in its frequency and loudness. This is an invitation to courtship, and used only by the male, who sits generally perched upon some dead tree or bare bough, and repeats his song, which he loses as soon as the genial season is over. His note is pleasant though uniform; and, from an association of ideas, seldom occurs to the memory without reminding us of the sweets of summer. Custom, too, has fixed a more ludicrous association to this note; which, however, we that are bachelors need be in no pain about. This reproach seems to arise from this bird's making use of the bed or nest of another to deposit its own brood in.

However this may be, nothing is more certain than that the female makes no nest of her own. She repairs for that purpose to the nest of some other bird, generally the water-wagtail or the hedge-sparrow, and, having devoured the eggs of the owner, lays her own in their place. She usually lays but one, which is speckled, and of the size of a blackbird's. This the fond foolish bird hatches with great assiduity, and when excluded finds no difference in the great ill-looking changeling from her own. To supply this voracious creature the credulous nurse toils with unusual labour, no way sensible that she is feeding up an enemy to her race, and one of the most destructive robbers of her future progeny.

It was once doubted whether these birds were carnivorous; but Reaumur was at the pains of breeding up several, and found that they would not feed upon bread or corn, but flesh and insects were their favourite nourishment. He found it a very difficult matter to teach them to peck; for he was obliged to feed them for a full month after they were grown as big as the mother. Insects, however, seemed to be their peculiar food when young; for they devoured flesh by a kind of constraint, as it was always put into their mouths, but meal-worm insects they flew to, and swallowed of their own accord most greedily. Indeed, their gluttony is not to be wondered at, when we consider the capacity of their stomach, which is enormous, and reaches from the breast-bone to the vent. It is partly membranaceous, partly muscular, and of a prodigious capacity; yet still they are not to be supposed as birds of prey, for they have neither the strength nor the courage. On the contrary, they are naturally weak and fearful, as appears by their flying from small birds, which everywhere pursue them. The young birds are brown mixed with black; and in that state they have been described by some authors as old ones.

The cuckoo, when fledged and fitted for flight, follows its supposed parent but for a little time; its appetites for insect food increasing, as it finds no great chance for a supply in imitating its little conductor, it parts good friends, the step-child seldom offering any violence to its nurse. Nevertheless, all the little birds of the grove seem to consider the young cuckoo as an enemy, and revenge the cause of their kind by their repeated insults. They pursue it wherever it flies, and oblige it to take shelter in the thickest branches of some neighbouring tree. All the smaller birds form the train of its pursuers; but the wry-neck in particular is found the most active in the chase; and from thence it has been called by many the cuckoo's attendant and provider. But it is very far from following with a friendly intention; it only pursues as an insulter or a spy, to warn all its little companions of the cuckoo's depredations.

Such are the manners of this bird while it continues to reside or to be seen amongst us. But early on the approach of winter it totally disappears, and its passage can be traced to no other country. Some suppose that it lies hid in hollow trees; and others that it passes into warmer climates. Which of these opinions is true is very uncertain, as there are no facts related on either side that can be totally relied on. To support the opinion that they remain torpid during the winter

at home, Willoughby introduces the following story, which he delivers upon the credit of another. "The servants of a gentleman in the country, having stocked up in one of their meadows some old dry rotten willows, thought proper on a certain occasion to carry them home. In heating a stove, two logs of this timber were put into the furnace beneath, and fire applied as usual. But soon, to the great surprise of the family, was heard the voice of a cuckoo, singing three times from under the stove. Wondering at so extraordinary a cry in winter time, the servants ran and drew the willow logs from the furnace, and in the midst of one of them saw something move; wherefore, taking an axe, they opened the hole, and, thrusting in their hands, first they plucked out nothing but feathers; afterwards they got hold of a living animal—and this was the cuckoo that had waked so very opportunely for its own safety. It was indeed," continues our historian, "brisk and lively, but wholly naked and bare of feathers, and without any winter provision in its hole. This cuckoo the boys kept two years afterwards alive in the stove; but whether it repaid them with a second song the author of the tale has not thought fit to inform us."

The most probable opinion on this subject is, that as quails and woodcock shift their habitations in winter, so also does the cuckoo; but to what country it retires, or whether it has been ever seen on its journey, are questions that I am wholly incapable of resolving.

Of this bird there are many kinds in various parts of the world, not only differing in their colours but their size. Brisson makes not less than twenty-eight sorts of them; but what analogy they bear to the English cuckoo I will not take upon me to determine. He talks of one particularly, of Brazil, as making a most horrible noise in the forests—which, as it would seem, must be a very different note from that by which our bird is distinguished at home.

CHAP. VII.

OF THE PARROT AND ITS AFFINITIES.

The parrot is the best known among us of all foreign birds, as it unites the greatest beauty with the greatest docility. Its voice, also, is more like a man's than that of any other; the raven is too hoarse, and the jay and magpie too shrill to resemble the truth; the parrot's note is of the true pitch, and capable of a number of modulations that even some of our orators might wish in vain to imitate.

The ease with which this bird is taught to speak, and the great number of words which it is capable of repeating, are no less surprising. We are assured by a grave writer that one of these was told to repeat a whole sonnet from Petrarch; and that I may not be wanting in my instance, I have seen a parrot belonging to a distiller, who had suffered pretty largely in his circumstances from an informer who lived opposite him, very ridiculously employed. This bird was taught to pronounce the ninth commandment, "Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbour," with a very clear, loud, articulate voice. The bird was generally placed in its cage over against the informer's house, and delighted the whole neighbourhood with its persevering exhortations.

Willoughby tells a story of a parrot, which is not so dull as those usually brought up when the bird's facility of talking happens to be the subject. "A parrot belonging to King Henry the Seventh, who then resided at Westminster, in his palace by the river Thames, had learned to talk many words from the passengers as they happened to take water. One day, sporting on its perch, the poor bird fell into the water, at the same time crying

out as loud as he could, 'A boat! twenty pounds for a boat!' A waterman who happened to be near, hearing the cry, made to the place where the parrot was floating, and taking him up restored him to the king. As it seems the bird was a favourite, the man insisted that he ought to have a reward rather equal to his services than his trouble; and, as the parrot had cried twenty pounds, he said the king was bound in honour to grant it. The king at last agreed to leave it to the parrot's own determination, which, on the bird hearing, cried out, 'Give the knave a groat.'

The parrot, which is so common as a foreign bird with us, is equally so as an indigenous bird in the climates where it is produced. The forests swarm with them; and the rook is no better known with us than the parrot in almost every part of the East and West Indies. It is in vain that our naturalists have attempted to arrange the various species of this bird; new varieties daily offer to puzzle the system-maker, or to demonstrate the narrowness of his catalogues. Linnæus makes the number of its varieties amount to forty seven; while Brisson doubles the number, and extends his catalogue to ninety-five. Perhaps even this list might be increased, were every accidental change of colour to be considered as constituting a new species. But, in fact, natural history gains little by these discoveries; and as its dominions are extended it becomes more barren. It is asserted by sensible travellers that the natives of Brazil can change the colour of a parrot's plumage by art. If this be true—and I am apt to believe the information—they can make new species at pleasure, and thus out-out endless work for our nomenclators at home.

Those who usually bring these birds over are content to make three or four distinctions, to which they give names; and with these distinctions I must content myself also. The large kind, which are of the size of a raven, are called "mackaws;" the next size are simply called "parrots;" those which are entirely white are called "lories;" and the lesser kind of all are called "paroquets." The difference between even these is rather in the size than in any other peculiar conformation, as they are all formed alike, having toes, two before and two behind, for climbing and holding; strong hooked bills for breaking open nuts and other hard substances on which they feed; and loud, harsh voices, by which they fill their native woods with clamour.

But there are further peculiarities in the conformation; and first, their toes are contrived in a singular manner, which appears when they walk or climb and when they are eating. For the first purpose they stretch two of their toes forward and two backward; but when they take their meat, and bring it to their mouths with their foot, they dexterously and nimbly turn the greater hind-toe forward, so as to take a firmer grasp of the nut or the fruit they are going to feed on, standing all the while upon the other leg. Nor even do they present their food in the usual manner; for other animals turn their meat inwards to the mouth; but these, in a seemingly awkward position, turn their meat outwards, and thus hold the hardest nuts as if in one hand, till with their bills they break the shell and extract the kernel.

The bill is fashioned with still greater peculiarities; for the upper chap as well as the lower are both moveable. In most other birds the upper chap is connected, and makes but one piece with the skull; but in these, and in one or two species of the feathered tribe more, the upper chap is connected to the bone of the head by a strong membrane placed on each side, which lifts and depresses it at pleasure. By this contrivance they can open their bills the wider—which is not a little useful, as the upper chap is so hooked and so over-hanging that, if the lower chap only had motion, they could

scarce gape sufficiently to take anything in for their nourishment.

Such are the uses of the beak and the toes when used separately, but they are often employed together when the bird is exercised in climbing. As these birds cannot readily hop from bough to bough, their legs not being adapted for that purpose, they use both the beak and the feet—first catching hold with the beak as if with a hook, and drawing up the legs and fastening them, then advancing the head and beak again, and so putting forward the body and the feet alternately till they attain the height to which they aspire.

The tongue of this bird somewhat resembles that of a man, from which reason some pretend that it is well qualified to imitate the human speech; but the organs by which these sounds are articulated lie farther down in the throat, being performed by the great motion which the "os hyoides" has in these birds above others.

The parrot, though common enough in Europe, will not, however, breed here. The climate is too cold for its warm constitution; and though it bears our winter when arrived at maturity, yet it always seems sensible of its rigour, and loses both its spirit and appetite during the colder part of the season. It then becomes torpid and inactive, and seems quite changed from that bustling, loquacious animal which it appeared in its native forests, where it is almost ever upon the wing. Notwithstanding, the parrot lives even with us a considerable time if it be properly attended to; and, indeed, it must be owned that it employs but too great a part of some people's attention.

The extreme sagacity and docility of the bird may plead as the best excuse for those who spend whole hours in teaching their parrots to speak; indeed, the bird on those occasions seems the wisest animal of the two. It at first obstinately resists all instruction, but seems to be won by perseverance, makes a few attempts to imitate the first sounds, and when it has got one word distinct all the succeeding come with greater facility. The bird generally learns most in those families where the master or mistress have the least to do; and becomes more expert in proportion as its instructors are idly assiduous. In going through the towns of France some time since, I could not help observing how much plainer their parrots spoke than ours, and how very distinctly I understood their parrots speak French when I could not understand our own, though they spoke my native language. I was at first for ascribing it to the different qualities of the two languages, and was for entering into an elaborate discussion on the vowels and consonants; but a friend who was with me solved the difficulty at once, by assuring me that the French women scarce did anything else the whole day than sit and instruct their feathered pupils, and that the birds were thus distinct in their lessons in consequence of continual schooling.

The parrots of France are certainly very expert, but nothing to those of the Brazil, where the education of a parrot is considered as a very serious affair. The "History of Prince Maurice's Parrot," given us by Mr. Locke, is too well known to be repeated here; but Clusius assures us that the parrots of that country are the most sensible and cunning of all animals not endued with reason. The great parrot called the "sacurus"—the head of which is adorned with yellow, red, and violet, the body green, the end of the wings red, the feathers of the tail long and yellow—this bird, he asserts, which is seldom brought into Europe, is a prodigy of understanding. "A certain Brazilian woman, who lived in a village two miles distant from the island on which we resided, had a parrot of this kind which was the wonder of the place. It seemed endued with such understanding as to discern and comprehend whatever she said to it. As we sometimes used to pass by the woman's house she used to call upon us to stop, promising, if we

gave her a comb or a looking-glass, that she would make her parrot sing and dance to entertain us. If we agreed to her request, as soon as she had pronounced some words to the bird it began not only to leap and skip on the perch on which it stood, but also to talk and to whistle, and imitate the shoutings and exclamations of the Brazilians when they prepare for battle. In brief, when it came into the woman's head to bid it sing, it sang—to dance, it danced. But if, contrary to our promise, we refused to give the woman the little present agreed on, the parrot seemed to sympathise in her resentment, and was silent and immovable; neither could we by any means provoke it to move either foot or tongue."

This sagacity, which parrots show in a domestic state, seems also natural to them in their native residence among the woods. They live together in flocks, and mutually assist each other against other animals, either by their courage or their notes of warning. They generally breed in hollow trees, where they make a round hole, and do not line their nest within. If they find any part of a tree beginning to rot from the breaking off of a branch or any such accident, this they take care to scoop, and to make the whole sufficiently wide and convenient; but it sometimes happens that they are content with the hole which a woodpecker has wrought out with greater ease before them, and in this they prepare to hatch and bring up their young.

They lay two or three eggs; probably the smaller kind may lay more; for it is a rule that universally holds through Nature, that the smallest animals are always the most prolific; for, being, from their natural weakness, more subject to devastation, Nature finds it necessary to replenish the species by superior fecundity. In general, however, the number of their eggs is stinted to two, like those of the pigeon, and they are about the same size. They are always marked with little specks like those of a partridge; and some travellers assure us that they are always found in the trunks of the tallest, straightest, and largest trees. The natives of these countries, who have little else to do, are very assiduous in spying out the places where the parrot is seen to nestle, and generally come with great joy to inform the Europeans, if there be any, of the discovery. As those birds have always the greatest docility that are taken young, such a nest is often considered as worth taking some trouble to be possessed of; and for this purpose the usual method of coming at the young is by cutting down the tree. In the fall of the tree it often happens that the young parrots are killed; but if one of them survives the shock it is considered as a sufficient recompense.

Such is the avidity with which these birds are sought when young; for it is known they always speak best when their ear has not been anticipated by the harsh notes of the wild ones. But as the natives are not able upon all occasions to supply the demand for young ones, they are contented to take the old, and for that purpose shoot them in the woods with heavy arrows headed with cotton, which knock down the bird without killing it. The parrots thus stunned are carried home; some die, but others recover, and, by kind usage and plentiful food, become talkative and noisy.

But it is not for the sake of their conversation alone that the parrot is sought after among the savages; for though some of them are but tough and ill-tasted, yet there are other sorts, particularly of the small paroquet tribe, that are very delicate food. In general it obtains, that whatever fruit or grain these birds mostly feed upon their flesh partakes of the flavour, and becomes good or ill tasted according to the quality of their particular diet. When the guava is ripe they are at that season fat and tender; if they feed upon the seed of the acajou their flesh contracts an agreeable flavour of garlic; if they feed upon the seed of the spice trees their flesh then

tastes of cloves and cinnamon; while, on the contrary, it is insupportably bitter if the berries they feed on are of that quality. The seed of the cotton-tree intoxicates them in the same manner that wine does man; and even wine itself is drunk by parrots, as Aristotle assures us, by which they are thus rendered more talkative and amusing. But of all food they are fond of the carthamus, or bastard saffron; which, though strongly purgative to man, agrees perfectly with their constitution, and fattens them in a very short time.

Of the paroquet kind in Brazil, Labat assures us that they are the most beautiful in their plumage and the most talkative birds in Nature. They are very tame, and appear fond of mankind; they seem pleased at holding parley with him; they never have done, but while he continues to talk answer him, and appear resolved to have the last word; but they are possessed of another quality which is sufficient to put an end to this association—their flesh is the most delicate imaginable, and highly esteemed by those who are fonder of indulging their appetites than their ears. The fowler walks into the woods, where they keep in abundance; but as they are green, and exactly the colour of the leaves among which they sit, he only hears their prattle without being able to see a single bird; he looks round him, sensible that his game is within gun-shot in abundance, but is mortified to the last degree that it is impossible to see them. Unfortunately for these little animals, they are restless and ever on the wing, so that in flying from one tree to another he has but too frequent opportunities of destroying them; for as soon as they have stripped the tree on which they sat of all its berries, some one of them flies off to another; and if that be found fit for the purpose, it gives a loud call, which all the rest resort to. That is the opportunity the fowler has long been waiting for; he fires in among the flock while they are yet on the wing; and he seldom fails of bringing down a part of them. But it is singular enough to see them when they find their companions fallen. They set up a loud outcry, as if they were chiding their destroyer, and do not cease until they see him preparing for a second charge.

But though there are so many motives for destroying these beautiful birds, they are in very great plenty; and in some countries on the coast of Guinea they are considered by the Negroes as their greatest tormentors. The flocks of parrots persecute them with their unceasing screaming, and devour whatever fruits they attempt to produce by art in their little gardens. In other places they are not so destructive, but sufficiently common; and, indeed, there is scarce a country of the tropical climates that has not many of the common kinds as well as some peculiarly its own. Travellers have counted more than a hundred kinds on the continent of Africa only; there is one country in particular, north of the Cape of Good Hope, which takes its name from the multitude of parrots which are seen in its woods. There are white parrots seen in the burning regions of Ethiopia; in the East Indies they are of the largest size; in South America they are docile and talkative; in all the islands of the Pacific Sea and the Indian Ocean they swarm in great variety and abundance, and add to the splendour of those woods which Nature has dressed in eternal green.

So generally are these birds known at present, and so great is their variety, that nothing seems more extraordinary than that there was but one sort of them known among the ancients, and that at a time when they pretended to be masters of the world. If nothing else could serve to show the vanity of a Roman's boast, the parrot tribe might be an instance, of which there are a hundred kinds now known, not one of which naturally breeds in the countries that acknowledged the Roman power. The green paroquet, with red neck, was the first of this kind that was brought into Europe, and the only

one that was known to the ancients from the time of Alexander the Great to the age of Nero. This was brought from India; and when afterwards the Romans began to seek and rummage through all their dominions for new and unheard of luxuries, they at last found out others in Gaganda, an island of Ethiopia, which they considered as an extraordinary discovery.

Parrots have usually the same disorders as other birds; and they have one or two peculiar to their kind. They are sometimes struck by a kind of apoplectic blow, by which they fall from their perches, and for a while seem ready to expire. The other is the growing of the beak, which becomes so very much hooked as to deprive them of the power of eating. These infirmities, however, do not hinder them from being long-lived; for a parrot, well kept, will live five or six and twenty years.

CHAP. VIII.

THE PIGEON AND ITS VARIETIES

This is one of the birds which, from its great fecundity, we have in some measure reclaimed from a state of Nature, and taught to live in habits of dependence. Indeed, its fecundity seems to be increased by human cultivation; since those pigeons that live in a wild state in the woods are by no means so fruitful as those in our pigeon-houses nearer home. The power of increase in most birds depends upon the quantity of their food; and it is seen in more than one instance that man, by supplying food in plenty and allowing the animal at the same time a proper share of freedom, has brought some of those kinds which are known to lay but once a year to become much more prolific.

The tame pigeon and all its beautiful varieties derive their origin from one species only—the stock-dove; the English name implying its being the stock or stem from whence the other domestic kinds have been propagated. This bird in its natural state is of a deep blueish ash-colour; the breast dashed with a fine changeable green and purple; its wings marked with two black bars; the back white, and the tail barred near the end with black. These are the colours of a pigeon in a state of Nature; and from these simple tints has man by art propagated a variety that words cannot describe, nor even fancy suggest. However, Nature still perseveres in her great outline; and though the form, colour, and even the fecundity of these birds may be altered by art, yet their natural manners and inclinations continue still the same.

The stock-dove in its native woods differs from the ring-dove (a bird that has never been reclaimed) by its breeding in the holes of rocks and the hollow of trees. All other birds of the pigeon kind build, like rooks, in the topmost branches of the forest, and choose their habitation as remote as possible from man. But this species soon takes to build in artificial cavities; and, from the temptation of a ready provision and numerous society, easily submits to the tyranny of man. Still, however, it preserves its native colour for several generations, and becomes more variegated only in proportion as it removes from the original simplicity of its colouring in the woods.

The dove-house pigeon, as is well known, breeds every month; but then it is necessary to supply it with food whenever the weather is severe, or the fields are covered with snow. Upon other occasions it may be left to provide for itself, and it generally repays the owner for its protection. The pigeon lays two white eggs, which most usually produce young ones of different sexes. For the laying of each egg it is necessary to have a particular congress with the male; and the egg

is usually deposited in the afternoon. When the eggs are thus laid, the female, in the space of fifteen days, not including the three days during which she is employed in laying, continues to hatch, relieved at intervals by the male. The turns are usually regulated with great exactness. From three or four o'clock in the evening till nine the next day the female continues to sit; she is then relieved by the male, who takes his place from ten till three, while his mate is feeding abroad. In this manner they sit alternately till the young are excluded. If during this term the female delays to return at the expected time, the male follows and drives her to the nest; and, should he in his turn be dilatory, she retaliates with equal severity.

The young ones when hatched require no food for the three first days, only wanting to be kept warm, which is an employment the female takes entirely upon herself. During this period she never stirs out, except for a few minutes to take a little food. From this they are fed for eight or ten days with corn or grain of different kinds, which the old ones gather in the fields and keep treasured up in their crops, from whence they throw it up again into the mouths of their young ones, who very greedily demand it.

As this method of feeding the young from the crop is different in birds of the pigeon kind from all others, it demands a more detailed explanation. Of all birds, for its size, the pigeon has the largest crop, which is also made in a manner quite peculiar to the kind. In two of those that were dissected by a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, it was found that if the anatomist blew air into the wind-pipe it distended the crop or gullet to a prodigious size. This was the more extraordinary, as there seemed to be no communication whatever between these two receptacles—as the conduit by which we breathe, as everyone knows, leads to a very different receptacle from that where we put our food. By what apertures the air blown into lungs of the pigeon makes its way into the crop is unknown; but nothing is more certain than that these birds have a power of filling the crop with air; and some of them, which are called “croppers,” distend it in such a manner that the bird's breast seems much bigger than its body. The peculiar mechanism of this part is not well known; but the necessity for it in these animals is pretty obvious. The pigeon, as we all know, lives entirely upon grain and water; these are mixed together in the crop, and in the ordinary way are digested in proportion as the bird lays in its provision. But to feed its young, which are very voracious, it is necessary to lay in a store greater than ordinary, and to give the food a kind of half maceration to suit their tender appetites. The heat of the bird's body, assisted by air and numerous glands separating a milky fluid, are the most necessary instruments for this operation; but in proportion as the food macerates it begins to swell also, and the crop must of consequence be considerably dilated. Still, however, the air which is contained in it gives the bird a power of contracting it at pleasure; for if it were filled with more solid substances the bird could have no power to compress it. But this is not the case; the bird can compress its crop at pleasure, and, driving out the air, can thus drive out the food also, which is forced up the gullet like a pellet from a pop-gun. The young ones, open-mouthed, receive this tribute of affection, and are thus fed three times a-day. In feeding the male usually supplies the young female, while the old female supplies the young of the opposite sex. The food with which they are supplied is more macerated in the beginning; but as they grow older the parents give it less preparation, and at last drive them out to shift for themselves. When well fed, however, the old ones do not wait for the total dismissal of their young; but in the same nest are to be found young ones almost fit for flight and eggs hatching at the same time

The fidelity of the turtle-dove is proverbial, and makes the usual comparison of such poets as are content to repeat what others have said before them; but the pigeon of the dove-house is not so faithful, and, having been subjected to man, it puts on licentiousness among its other domestic habits. Two males are often seen quarrelling for the same mistress; and when the female admits the addresses of a new gallant, her old companion seems to bear the contempt with some marks of displeasure, abstains from her company, or if he approaches it is only to chastise her. There have been instances when two males, being displeased with their respective mates, have thought proper to make an exchange, and have lived in great harmony with their new respective mates.

So great is the produce of this bird in its domestic state, that near fifteen thousand may in the space of four years be produced from a single pair. But the stock-dove seldom breeds above twice a year; for when the winter months come, the whole employment of the fond couple is rather for self-preservation than transmitting a posterity. They seem, however, to have a stronger attachment to their young than those who are found to breed so often; whether it be that instinct acts more powerfully upon them in their state of nature, or that their affections are divided by the multiplicity of claims, it is not for me to say.

It is from a species of these, therefore, that those pigeons that are called carriers, and are used to convey letters, are produced. These are easily distinguished from all others by their eyes, which are compassed about with a broad circle of naked white skin, and being of a dark-blue or blackish colour. It is from their attachment to their native place, and particularly where they have brought up their young, that these birds are employed in several countries as the most expeditious carriers. They are first brought from the place where they were bred, and whither it is intended to send them back with information. The letter is tied under the bird's wing, and it is then let loose to return. The little animal no sooner finds itself at liberty than its passion for its native spot directs all its motions. It is seen upon these occasions flying directly into the clouds to an amazing height; and then, with the greatest certainty and exactness, directing itself by some surprising instinct towards home, which lies sometimes at many miles' distance, bringing its message to those to whom it is directed. By what marks they discover the place, by what chart they are guided in the right way, is to us utterly unknown; certain it is, that in the space of an hour and a half they perform a journey of forty miles; which is a degree of despatch three times greater than the fleetest quadruped can perform. These birds are not brought up at present with as much care as formerly, when they were sent from governors in a besieged city to generals that were coming to relieve it without—when they were sent from princes to their subjects with tidings of some fortunate event, or from lovers to their mistresses with expressions of their passion.

The varieties of the tame pigeon are so numerous that it would be a vain attempt to mention them; so much is the figure and colour of this bird under human control, that pigeon-fanciers, by coupling a male and female of different sorts, can breed them, as they express it, to a feather. From hence we have the various names of "croppers," "carriers," "jacobins," "powders," "runts," and "turbits"—all birds that at first might have accidentally varied from the stock-dove; and then, by having these varieties still heightened by food, climate, and pairing, different species have been produced. But there are many species of the wild pigeon, which, though bearing a strong affinity to the stock-dove, are nevertheless sufficiently different from it to deserve a distinct description. The "ring-dove" is of this number—a good deal larger than the former, and building its nest with a few dry sticks in the boughs of trees.

This seems a bird much fonder of its native freedom than the former; and attempts have been frequently made to render it domestic; but they have hitherto proved fruitless, for though their eggs have been hatched by the tame pigeon in the dove-house, yet as soon as they could fly they always betook themselves to the woods where they were first produced. In the beginning of winter these assemble in great flocks in the woods, and leave off cooing; nor do they resume this note of courtship till the beginning of March, when the genial season, by supplying them with food, renews their desires.

The turtle-dove is smaller but a much shier bird than any of the former. It may easily be distinguished from the rest by the iris of the eye, which is of a fine yellow, and by a beautiful crimson circle that encompasses the eye-lids. The fidelity of these birds is noted; and a pair put in a cage, if one dies the other will not survive it. The turtle-dove is a bird of passage, and few or none remain in our northern climates in winter. They fly in flocks when they come to breed here in summer, and delight in open, mountainous, sandy countries. But they build their nests in the midst of woods, and choose the most retired situations for incubation. They feed upon all sorts of grain, but are fondest of millet-seed.

To this short list might be added a long catalogue of foreign pigeons, of which we know little more than the plumage and the names. Indeed, the variety of their plumage is as beautiful as the names by which they are known are harsh and dissonant. The "ocotzimtzcan," for instance, is one of the most splendid tenants of the Mexican forests; but few, I believe, would desire to learn the name only to be informed that it is covered with purple, green, and yellow plumage. To describe such birds the historian's pen is not half such an useful implement as the painter's pencil.

BOOK V.—CHAP. I.

OF BIRDS OF THE SPARROW KIND IN GENERAL.

Still descending from the larger to the smaller, we come to birds of the sparrow kind; or that class of beautiful little animals that, being less than the pigeon, go on diminishing till we arrive at the humming-bird, the smallest of the feathered creation.

The birds which compose this class chiefly live in the neighbourhood of man, and are his greatest favourites. The falcon may be more esteemed, and the turkey more useful; but those he considers as servants, not as friends—as animals reclaimed merely to supply him with some of the conveniences of life; but these little painted songsters have his affections, as well from their beauty as their melody; it is this delightful class that fill his groves with harmony, and lifts his heart to sympathise with their raptures. All the other classes are either mute or screaming; it is this diminutive tribe only that have voices equal to the beauty of their figures—equally adapted to rejoice man and delight each other.

As they are the favourites of man, so they are chiefly seen near him. All the great birds dread his vicinity, and keep to the thickest part of the forest or the brow of the most craggy precipice: but these seldom resort to the thicker parts of the wood; they keep near its edges, in the neighbourhood of cultivated fields, in the hedge-rows of farm-grounds, and even in the yard mixing with the poultry.

It must be owned, indeed, that their living near man is not a society of affection on their part, as they approach inhabited grounds merely because their chief provision is to be found there. In the depth of the desert or the

gloom of the forest there is no grain to be picked up—none of those tender buds that are so grateful to their appetites; insects themselves, that make so great a part of their food, are not found there in abundance, their natures being unsuited to the moisture of the place. As we enter, therefore, deeper into uncultivated woods the silence becomes more profound; everything carries the look of awful stillness; there are none of those warblings, none of those murmurs that awaken attention as when near the habitations of men; there is nothing of that confused buzz, formed by the united though distant voices of quadrupeds and birds; but all is profoundly dead and solemn. Now and then, indeed, the traveller may be roused from this lethargy of life by the voice of the heron or the scream of an eagle; but his sweet little friends and warblers have totally forsaken him.

There is still another reason for these little birds avoiding the depth of the forest; which is, that their most formidable enemies usually reside there. The greater birds, like robbers, choose the most dreary solitudes for their retreats; and if they do not find, they make a desert all around them. The small birds fly from their tyranny, and take protection in the vicinity of man, where they know their more unmerciful foes will not venture to pursue them.

All birds, even those of passage, seem content with a certain district to provide food and shelter in. The red-breast or the wren seldom leaves the field where it has been brought up, or where its young have been excluded; even though hunted it flies along the hedge, and seems fond of the place with an imprudent perseverance. The fact is, all these small birds mark out a territory to themselves, which they will permit none of their own species to remain in; they guard their dominions with the most watchful resentment; and we seldom find two male tenants in the same hedge together.

Thus, though fitted by Nature for the most wandering life, these little animals do not make such distant excursions during the season of their stay as the stag or the leveret. Food seems to be the only object that puts them in motion, and when that is provided for them in sufficient plenty they never wander. But as that is seldom permanent through the year, almost every bird is then obliged to change its abode. Some are called "birds of passage" because they are obliged to take long journeys for this purpose; but, strictly speaking, almost every other kind are birds of passage, though their migration may not be to places so remote. At some particular season of the year all small kinds migrate either from one country to another, or from the more inland provinces towards the shore.

There are several persons who get a livelihood by watching the seasons when our little birds begin to migrate from one country to another, and by taking them with nets in their passage. The birds are found to "fly," as the bird-catchers term it, chiefly during the month of October, and part of September and November. There is also another flight in March, which is much less considerable than that in autumn. Nor is it less remarkable, that several of these species of flight-birds make their appearance in regular succession. The pipit, for instance, begins its flight every year about Michaelmas, when they are caught in greatest numbers. To this the wood-lark succeeds, and continues its flight till towards the middle of October; other birds follow, but are not so punctually periodical; the greenfinch does not begin till the frost obliges it to seek for a change. These birds during those months fly from day-break till twelve at noon; and there is afterwards a small flight from two till night. Such are the seasons of the migration of the birds that have been usually considered as stationary, and on these occasions they are caught in great abundance as they are on the journey. But the same arts need to allure them upon other occasions would be utterly fruitless, as they avoid the nets with the most prudent

circumspection. The autumnal flight probably consists of the parents conducting their new-fledged young to those places where there is sufficient provision, and a proper temperament of the air during the winter season; and their return in spring is obviously from an attachment to the place which was found so convenient before for the purposes of nestling and incubation.

Autumn is the principal season when the bird-catcher employs his art to catch these wanderers. His nets are a most ingenious piece of mechanism, being generally twelve yards and a half long and two yards and a half wide, and so contrived as from a flat position to rise on each side, and clap over the birds that are decoyed to come between them. The birds in their passage are always observed to fly against the wind; hence there is a great contention among the bird-catchers which shall gain the wind; for example, if it is westerly, the bird-catcher who lays his nets most to the east is sure of the most plentiful sport if his call-birds are good. For this purpose he generally carries five or six linnets, two goldfinches, two greenfinches, one wood-lark, one red poll, and perhaps a bullfinch, a yellow-hammer, a tit-lark, and an aberdavine: these are placed at small distances from the nets in little cages. He has besides what he calls his "flur-birds," which are placed upon a moveable perch, which the bird-catcher can raise at pleasure by means of a string; and these he always lifts gently up and down as the wild bird approaches. But this is not enough to allure the wild bird down; it must be called by one of the call-birds in the cages; and these, by being made to moult prematurely in a warm cage, call louder and better than those that are wild and at freedom. There even appears a malicious joy in these call-birds to bring the wild ones into the same state of captivity, while at the same time their call is louder and their plumage brighter than in a state of nature. Nor is their sight or hearing less exquisite, far exceeding that of the bird-catcher; for the instant the wild birds are perceived notice is given by one to the rest of the call-birds, who all unite in the same tumultuous ecstasy of pleasure. The call-birds do not sing upon those occasions as a bird does in a chamber, but incite the wild ones by short jerks, which, when the birds are good, may be heard at a great distance. The allurements of this call is so great, that the wild bird hearing it is stopped in its most rapid flight; and, if not already acquainted with the nets, lights boldly within twenty yards, perhaps, of the bird-catcher, and on a spot which it would on any other occasion have quite disregarded. This is the opportunity wished for, and the bird-catcher pulling a string, the nets on each side rise in an instant, and clap directly down on the poor little unsuspecting visitant. Nay, it frequently happens that if half a flock only are caught, the remaining half will immediately afterwards light between the nets and share the fate of their companions. Should only one bird escape, this unhappy survivor will also venture into danger till it is caught—such a fascinating power have the call-birds.

Indeed, it is not easy to account for the nature of this call—whether it be a challenge to combat, an invitation to food, or a prelude to courtship. As the call-birds are all males, and as the wild birds that attend to their voice are most frequently males also, it does not seem that love can have any influence in their assiduity. Perhaps the wild females in these flights attend to and obey the call below, and their male companions of their flight come down to bear them company. If this be the case, and that the females have unfaithfully led their mates into the nets, they are the first that are punished for their infidelity; the males are only made captives for their singing, while the females are indiscriminately killed, and sold to be served up to the tables of the delicate.

Whatever be the motives that thus arrest a flock of birds in their flight, whether they be of gallantry or

of war, it is certain that the small birds are equally remarkable for both. It is, perhaps, the genial desire that inspires the courage of most animals; and that being greatest in the males, gives them a greater degree of valour than the females. Small birds, being extremely amorous, are remarkably brave. However contemptible these little warriors are to larger creatures, they are often but too formidable to each other, and sometimes fight till one of them yields up his life with the victory. But their contentions are sometimes of a gentler nature. Two male birds shall strive in song, till, after a long struggle, the loudest shall entirely silence the other. During these contentions the female sits an attentive, silent auditor, and often rewards the loudest songster with her company during the season.

Singing among birds is almost universally the prerogative of the male. With them it is the reverse of what occurs in the human kind. Among the feathered tribe the heaviest cares of life fall to the lot of the female. Hers is the fatigue of incubation, and to her devolves the principal fatigue of nursing the helpless brood. To alleviate these fatigues, and to support her under them, Nature has given the song to the male. This serves as a note of blandishment at first to attract her affections; it serves as a note to delight her during the time of her incubation; but it serves still farther as a note of security that no danger threatens to molest her. The male while his mate is hatching sits upon some neighbouring tree, continuing at once to watch and to sing. While his voice is heard the female rests in confident security, and, as the poet expresses it, appears "most blessed when most unseen;" but if any appearance of danger offers to intrude, the male, that a moment before was so loud and sportive, stops all of a sudden; and this is a most certain signal to his mate to provide for her own security.

The nest of little birds seems to be of a more delicate contrivance than that of the larger kinds. As the volume of their bodies is smaller, the materials of which their nests are composed are generally warmer. It is easy to conceive that small things keep heat a shorter time than those that are at large. The eggs, therefore, of smaller birds require a place of more constant warmth than those of great ones, as being liable to cool more quickly; and accordingly their nests are built warmer and deeper, lined on the inside with softer substances, and guarded above with a better covering. But it sometimes happens that the little architects are disturbed in their operations, and then they are obliged to make a nest, not such as they wish, but such as they can. The bird whose nest has been robbed several times builds up her last in a very slovenly manner, conscious that, from the near approach of winter, she must take time to give her habitation every possible advantage it is capable of receiving. When the nest is finished, nothing can exceed the cunning which the male and female employ to conceal it. If it is built in bushes, the pliant branches are so disposed as to hide it entirely from the view; if it be built among moss, nothing outwardly appears to show that there is a habitation within. It is always built near those places where food is found in greatest abundance; and they take care neither to go in nor out while there is any one in sight. The greater birds continue from their nest for some time, as their eggs take no damage in their absence; but the little birds are assiduous while they sit, and the nest is always occupied by the male when the female is obliged to seek for sustenance.

The first food of all birds of the sparrow kind is worms and insects. Even the sparrow and the goldfinch, that when adult feed only upon grain, have both been fed upon insects while in the nest. The young ones for some time after their exclusion from the shell require no food; but the parent soon finds by their chirping and gaping that they begin to feel the approaches

of hunger, and flies to provide them a plentiful supply. In her absence they continue to lie close together, and cherish each other by their mutual warmth. During this interval, also, they preserve a perfect silence, uttering not the slightest note till the parent returns. Her arrival is always announced by a chirrup, which they perfectly understand, and which they answer altogether, each petitioning for his portion. The parents distribute a supply to each by turns, cautiously avoiding to gorge them, but to give them often, though little at a time. The wren will in this manner feed seventeen or eighteen young ones without passing over one of them.

Such is the manner in which these birds bring forth and hatch their young; but it yet remains to usher them from the nest into life, and this they very assiduously perform. When they are fully fledged and fitted for short flights, the old ones, if the weather be fair, lead them a few yards from the nest, and then compel them to return. For two or three succeeding days they are led out in the same manner, but each day to seek more distant adventures. When it is perceived that they can fly and shift for themselves, then the parents forsake them for ever, and pay them no more attention than they do to other birds in the same flock. Indeed, it would seem among these little animals that from the moment their young are set out all future connexion ceases between the male and the female; they go separate ways, each to provide for itself during the rigours of winter, and at the approach of spring each seeks for a new associate.

In general, birds, when they come to pair in spring, associate with those of their own age and place of abode. Their strength or courage is generally in proportion to their age; the oldest females first feel the access of desire, and the oldest males are the boldest to drive off all younger pretenders. Those next in courage and desire become pretenders, till they are almost all provided in turn. The youngest come last—as, in fact, they are the latest in their inclinations. But still there are several, both males and females, that remain unprovided for—either not happening to meet with each other, or at least not during the genial interval. Whether these mix with small birds of a different species is a doubt which naturalists have not been able thoroughly to resolve. Addison, in some beautiful Latin lines inserted in the "Spectator," is entirely of opinion that birds observe a strict chastity of manners, and never admit caresses of a different tribe.

Chaste are their instincts, faithful is their fire,
No foreign beauty tempts to false desire;
The snow-white vesture and the glittering crown,
The simple plumage, or the glossy down
Prompt not their love. The patriot pursues
His well-acquainted tint and kindred hues.
Hence thro' their tribe no mix'd, polluted flame,
No monster-breed to mark the grove with shame;
But the chaste blackbird, to its partner true,
Thinks black alone is beauty's favorite hue.
The nightingale, with mutual passion blest,
Sings to its mate, and nightly charms the nest.
While the dark owl to court his partner flies,
And owns his offspring in their yellow eyes.

But whatever may be the poet's opinion, the probability is against this fidelity among the smaller tenants of the grove. The great birds are much more true to their species than these; and, of consequence, the varieties among them are the more few. Of the ostrich, the cassowary, and the eagle there are but few species; and no arts that man can use could probably induce them to mix with each other.

But it is otherwise with the small birds we are describing; it requires very little trouble to make a species between a goldfinch and a canary-bird—between a linnet and a lark. They breed frequently together, and produce a race not, like the mules among quadrupeds, incapable of breeding again; for this motley mixture are as

fruitful as their parents. What is so easily done by art very probably often happens in a state of Nature; and when the male cannot find a mate of his own species he flies to one of another, that, like him, has been left out in pairing. This some historians think may have given rise to the great variety of small birds that are seen among us; some uncommon mixture might first have formed a new species, and this might have been continued down by birds of this species choosing to breed together.

Whether the great variety of our small birds may have arisen from this source cannot now be ascertained; but certain it is that they resemble each other very strongly, not only in their form and plumage, but also in their appetites and manner of living. The goldfinch, the linnnet, and the yellow-hammer, though obviously of different species, yet lead a very similar life, being equally an active, lively, falacious tribe, that subsist by petty thefts upon the labours of mankind, and repay them with a song. Their nests bear a similitude, and they are about the same time in hatching their young, which is usually fifteen days. Were I therefore to describe the manners of these with the same minuteness that I have done the greater birds, I should only present the reader with a repetition of the same accounts, animated neither by novelty nor information. Instead, therefore, of specifying each sort I will throw them into groups, uniting those together that practise the same manners, or that are remarkable for similar qualifications.

Willoughby has divided all the smaller birds into those that have slender bills, and those that have short and thick bills. Those with slender bills chiefly live upon insects; those with short, strong bills live mostly upon fruits and grain. Among slender-billed birds he enumerates the thrush, the blackbird, the fieldfare, the starling, the lark, the titmouse, the water-wagtail, the nightingale, the red-start, the robin-red-breast, the becasigo, the stone-chatter, the winchat, the goldfinch, the white-throat, the hedge-sparrow, the pettichaps, the golden-crowned wren, the wren, the humming-bird, and several other small kinds of the sparrow kind unknown in this part of the world.

All these, as was said, live for the most part upon insects; and are consequently of particular benefit to man. By these are his grounds cleared of the pernicious swarms of vermin that devour the budding leaves and flowers, and that even attack the root itself before ever the vegetable can come to maturity. These seek for and destroy the eggs of insects that would otherwise propagate in numbers beyond the arts of man to extirpate; they know better than man where to seek for them, and thus at once satisfy their own appetites and render him the most essential services.

But this is not the only merit of this tribe: in it we have the sweetest songsters of the grove; their notes are softer, and their manner more musically soothing than those of hard-billed birds. The foremost in musical fame are the nightingale, the thrush, the blackbird, the lark, the red-breast, the black-cap, and the wren.

Birds of the sparrow kind, with thick and short bills, are the grosbeak, the greenfinch, the bullfinch, the crossbill, the house-sparrow, the chaffinch, the brambling, the goldfinch, the linnnet, the siskin, the bunting, the yellow-hammer, the ortolan, the wheat-ear, and several other foreign birds, of which we know rather the names than the history. These chiefly feed upon fruits, grain, and corn. They are often troublesome to man, as they are a numerous tribe; the harvest often suffers from their depredations; and while they are driven off from one end of the field, they fly round and come in at the other. But these, also, have their uses; they are frequently the distributors of seed into different districts: those grains which they swallow are sometimes not wholly digested; and these laid upon a soil congenial to them, embellish the face of Nature with that agreeable

variety which art but vainly attempts to imitate. The misaletoe plant, which we often see growing on the tops of elm and other trees, has been thought to have been propagated in this manner; yet, as it is often seen growing on the under side of the branch, and sometimes on a perpendicular shoot, it seems extraordinary how a seed could be deposited in that situation. However this be, there are many plants propagated from the depositions of birds: and some seeds are thought to thrive the better for first having undergone a kind of maceration in the stomach of the little animal before it is voided on the ground.

There are some agreeable songsters in this tribe also; and those who like a loud piercing pipe, endued with great variety and perseverance, will be pleased most with their singing. The songsters of this class are the Canary-bird, the linnnet, the chaffinch, the goldfinch, the greenfinch, the bullfinch, the brambling, the siskin, and the yellow-hammer. The note of these is not so generally pleasing as that of the soft-billed birds, but it usually holds longer; and in a cage those birds are more easily fed and hardy.

This class of small birds, like all the greater, has its wanderers that leave us for a season, and then return to propagate, to sing, or to embellish the landscape here. Some of this smaller kind, indeed, are called "birds of passage" that do not properly come under the denomination; for though they disappear in one place they never leave the kingdom, but are seen somewhere else. But there are many among them that take longer flights, and go to a region colder or warmer as it suits their constitutions. The fieldfare and the red-wing breed pass their summers in Norway and other cold countries, and are tempted hither to our mild winters, and to those various berries which then abound with us and make their principal food. The hawfinch and the crossbill are uncertain visitants, and have no stated times of migration. Swallows of every species disappear at the approach of winter. The nightingale, the black-cap, the fly-catcher, the willow-wren, the wheat-ear, the whinchat, the stone-chatterer leave us long before the approach of winter; while the siskin and the linnnet only forsake us when our winters are more than usually severe. All the rest of the smaller tribe never quit this country, but support the greatest rigours of the climate.

Yet it must not be supposed that the manners of our little birds prevails in other countries, and that such kinds as are stationary with us never wander in other parts of Europe: on the contrary, it happens that many of those kinds which are birds of passage in England are seen in other places never to depart, but to make one country their fixed residence the whole year round. It is also frequent that some birds, which with us are faithful residents, in other kingdoms put on the nature of birds of passage, and disappear for a season.

The swallow, that with us is particularly remarked for being a bird of passage, in Upper Egypt and in the island of Java breeds and continues the whole year without ever disappearing. Larks, that remain with us throughout the year, are birds of passage in Sweden, and forsake that climate in winter to return again with the returning spring. The chaffinch, that with us is stationary, appears during the winter in Carolina and Virginia, but disappears totally in summer to breed in the more northern regions. In Sweden, also, these little birds are seen returning at the approach of spring from the warmer climates to propagate, which being accomplished by the latter end of autumn, the males and females separate—the males to continue among their native snows, the females to seek a warmer and gentler winter. On this occasion they are seen in flocks that darken all the air, without a single male among them, making their way into the more southern regions of Denmark, Germany, and Holland. In this Amazon-like retreat thou-

sands fall by the way—some by fatigue, some by want; but the greatest number by the nets of the fowler—the taking them being one of the chief amusements among the gentry where they pass. In short, the change of country with all this little tribe is rather a pilgrimage than a journey—a migration rather of necessity than of choice.

Having thus given a general idea of the birds of this class, it will be proper to give some account of the most remarkable among them.

CHAP. II.

OF THE THRUSH AND ITS AFFINITIES

With the thrush we may rank the red-wing, the fieldfare, the blackbird, the ring-ouzel, and the water-ouzel.

These are the largest of the sparrow kind, and may be distinguished from all others of this class as well by their size (which is well known) as by their bills, which are a little bending at the point; a small notch near the end of the upper chap, and the outermost toe adhering as far as the first joint of the middle toe. To this tribe may be also added the starling, which, though with a flat bill, too much resembles these birds to be placed anywhere else.

The missel-thrush is distinguished from all of the kind by its superior size, being much larger than any of them. It differs scarcely in any other respect from the thrush, except that the spots on the breast are larger. It builds its nest in bushes, or on the side of some tree, as all of this kind are found to do, and lays four or five eggs in a season. Its song is very fine, which begins in spring, sitting on the summit of a high tree. It is the largest bird of all the feathered tribe that has music in its voice—the note of all greater birds being either screaming, chattering, or croaking. It feeds on insects, holly, and mistletoe-berries; and sometimes sends forth a very disagreeable scream when frightened or disturbed.

The blackbird, which in cold countries, and particularly upon the Alps, is sometimes seen all over white, is a beautiful and a canorous bird, whistling all the spring and summer time with a note the most pleasing of all the grove. It is the deepest toned warbler of the woods; but it is rather unpleasant in a cage, being loud and deafening. It lays four or five blueish eggs, in a nest usually built at the stump of some old hawthorn, well plastered on the inside with clay, straw, and hair.

Pleasing, however, as this bird may be, the blue-bird, described by Bellonius, is in every respect far superior. This beautiful animal entirely resembles a blackbird in all but its blue colour. It lives in the highest parts of the Alps, and even there chooses the most craggy rocks and the most frightful precipices for its residence. As it is rarely caught it is in high estimation even in the countries where it breeds, but still more valuable when carried from home. It not only whistles in the most delightful manner, but speaks with an articulate, distinct voice. It is so docile, and observes all things with such diligence, that though waked at midnight by any of the family it will speak and whistle at the word of command. Its colour about the beginning of winter from blue becomes black, which changes to its original hue on the first approaches of spring. It makes its nest in deep holes in very high and inaccessible solitudes, and removes it not only from the accesses of man, but also hides it with surprising cunning from the chamois and other wild beasts that might annoy its young.

The manner of taking this beautiful bird is said to be this:—The fowlers, either by chance or by lying in wait, having found out the place where it builds, take with

them a strong stilt or stake, such as the climbers of rocks make use of to assist them in their descent. With the assistance of this they mount where an indifferent spectator would think it impossible to ascend, covering their heads at the same time to ward off any danger of the falling of pebbles or stones from above. At length, with extreme toil and danger, having arrived at the nest, they draw it up from the hole in which it is usually buried, and cherish the young with an assiduity equal to the pains they took to obtain them. It produces for the most part five young, and never more; it seldom descends into the plain country, flies swifter than a black-bird, and uses the same food.

The fieldfare and redwing make but a short stay in this country. With us they are insipid, tuneless birds, flying in flocks, and excessively watchful to preserve the general safety. All their season of music and pleasure is employed in the more northern climates, where they sing most delightfully, perched among the forests of maples, with which those countries abound. They build their nests in hedges, and lay six blueish-green eggs spotted with black. In Norway, Sweden, Lapland, and other northern countries, they build in fir-trees and pine trees. They are the latest of our winter visitors; generally arrive about the latter part of November, and depart in the spring. Flocks of them have been known to remain on our sea-coasts as late as June.

The stare, distinguishable from the rest of this tribe by the glossy green of its feathers in some lights, and the purple in others, breeds in hollow trees, caves of houses, towers, ruins, cliffs, and often in high rocks over the sea. It lays four or five eggs of a pale-greenish ash-colour, and makes its nest of straw, small fibres of roots, and such like. Its voice is rougher than the rest of this kind; but what it wants in the melody of its note it compensates by the facility with which it is taught to speak. In winter these birds assemble in vast flocks, and feed upon worms and insects. At the approach of spring they assemble in fields as if in consultation together, and for three or four days seem to take no nourishment. The greater part leave the country; the rest breed here and bring up their young.

To this tribe may be added above a hundred other birds of nearly the thrush size, and living like them upon fruits and berries. Words could not afford variety enough to describe all the beautiful tints that adorn the foreign birds of the thrush kind. The brilliant green of the emerald, the flaming red of the ruby, the purple of the amethyst, or the bright blue of the sapphire, could not by the most artful combinations show anything so truly lively and delightful to the sight as the feathers of the chilcoqui or the tautotol. Passing, therefore, over these beautiful but little-known birds, I will only mention the American mocking-bird, the favourite songster of a region where the birds excel rather in the beauty of their plumage than in the sweetness of their notes.

This valuable bird does not seem to vie with the feathered inhabitants of that country in the beauty of its plumage, content with qualifications that endear it to mankind much more. It is but a plain bird to the eye, about the size of a thrush, of a white and grey colour, and a redish bill. It is possessed not only of its own natural notes, which are musical and solemn, but it can assume the tone of every other animal in the wood, from the wolf to the raven. It seems even to sport itself in leading them astray. It will at one time allure the lesser birds with the call of their males, and then terrify them when they have come near with the screams of the eagle. There is no bird in the forest but it can mimic; and there is none that it has not at times deceived by its call. But, not like such as we usually see famed for mimicking with us, and who have no particular merit of their own, the mocking-bird is ever surest to please when it is most itself. At those times it usually frequents the houses of the American planters; and, sitting all night on the

chimney-top, pours forth the sweetest and most various notes of any bird whatever. It would seem, if accounts be true, that the deficiency of most other song-birds in that country is made up by this bird alone. They often build their nests in the fruit-trees about houses, feed upon berries and other fruits, and are easily rendered domestic.

THE BRITISH THRUSHES.—The thrush genus are divided by Temminck into two sections—viz., those that inhabit the thickets and woods, and such as live in rocks and mountains. The British species belong to the former section.

The "missal-thrush" is not so abundant as the song-thrush and blackbird: it is the largest of its tribe. It possesses a powerful note. In winter it lives chiefly upon the berries of ivy, holly, juniper, hawthorn, and mistletoe, and associates in small families, seldom mixing with other species. It lays four or five eggs of a greenish white speckled and spotted with chestnut-brown. The "song-thrush," or "mavis," is noted for the ingenuity of its nest: it is in the form of a large breakfast-cup, equally as round and almost as smooth. It generally enlivens our groves with its sweet notes throughout the whole of spring and summer. Grahame, in his "Birds of Scotland," gives a very exact account of the localities chosen by the song-thrush:—

In the hazel-bush or sloe is form'd
The habitation of the wedded pair.
Sometimes, below the never-fading leaves
Of ivy-close, that, overtwisting, binds
And richly crowns with cluster'd fruit of spring
Some river, rock, or nodding castle wall;
Sometimes beneath the jutting root of elm
Or oak, among the sprigs that overhang
A pebble-chiding stream—the loam-lined house
Is fix'd, well hid from ken of hovering hawk,
Or lurking beast, or school-boy's prying eye.

The "red-wing" has a clear and melodious song, little inferior to our common thrush. On the appearance of the spring it returns to the northern countries, where it breeds. It builds in birch, maple, and other trees; lays five or six eggs of a blueish-green with blackish-brown spots.

The "ring-ouzel" is not unlike the blackbird; its eggs are also similar, both in size and colour. It arrives in spring, and resorts to the mountainous districts, where it breeds and rears its young. In the autumn it journeys southwards, and leaves in October.

THE AMERICAN THRUSHES.

The "Baltimore bird," or "oriole." This is a bird of passage, arriving in Pennsylvania from the south about the beginning of May, and departing at the end of August. It is seven inches in length; the bill is almost straight, strong, tapering to a sharp point, black, and sometimes lead-coloured above, the lower mandible light blue towards the base. The head, throat, and upper part of the back and wings black, the lower part of the back, rump, and whole under parts a bright orange, deepening into vermilion on the breast; the black on the shoulders is also divided by a band of orange; the exterior edges of the greater wing-coverts, as well as the edges of the secondaries and part of those of the primaries, white: the tail-feathers under the coverts orange; the two middle ones, from thence to the tips, are black; the next five on each side black near the coverts, and orange towards the extremities, so disposed, that when the tail is expanded and the coverts removed the black appears in the form of a pyramid, supported on an arch of orange. The tail is slightly forked, the exterior feather on each side a quarter of an inch shorter than the others; the legs and feet light-blue, or lead-colour; the iris of the eye hazel. The female has the head, throat, and upper part of the neck and back of a dull black, each feather being skirted

with olive-yellow; the lower part of the back, rump, upper tail-coverts, and whole lower parts orange-yellow, but much duller than that of the male; the whole wing-feathers are of a deep dirty brown, except the quills, which are exteriorly edged, and the greater wing-coverts and next superior row, which are broadly tipped with a dull yellowish white; the tail olive-yellow; in some specimens the two middle feathers have been found partly black, in others wholly so; the black on the throat does not descend so far as in the male, is of a lighter tinge, and more irregular; the bill, legs, and claws light-blue. The Baltimore bird, or oriole, is named, as Catesby informs us, from the colours, which are black and orange, being those of the arms or livery of Lord Baltimore, formerly proprietary of Maryland.

The "brown thrush," or "thrasher," and the "French mocking-bird of Virginia, Carolina, and Maryland," are the largest of all our thrushes, and are well-known songsters. Early in May they build their nests and lay their eggs (five), thickly sprinkled with ferruginous grains on a pale blueish ground. Their food is caterpillars, worms, and beetles; the little corn they pilfer is amply made up in destroying the whole race of coleopterous insects. In spring they are welcome visitors.

THE ORCHARD ORIOLE.—This bird is very different to the Baltimore, being less and more slender; the colours differently disposed; the bill is bent and sharper pointed; the tail wedged; its notes are not so mellow, but are much quicker in utterance. The female is six inches and a half in length, eleven in extent; the colour above yellow-olive; on the back a brownish tint. He is a true friend to the farmer, and is an inveterate enemy to caterpillars and the countless multitudes of insects that infest the fruit-trees in spring and summer.

The "water-thrush" possesses strong traits and habits of the water-wagtail, and is generally found near ponds, rivers, and streams searching for insects. It utters a sharp chirp as if terrified; it is six inches long, and nine and a half in extent; the upper part is a dark olive, with a line of white over the eye, and along the neck the lower part is white, tinged with yellow, the sides and breast marked with pointed spots; the bill dark brown; tail nearly even; legs flesh-coloured. There is very little difference between the male and the female.

The "wood-thrush" is a sweet songster, and is an inhabitant of North America. Its solitary haunts are in thick shaded hollows near a stream, and he generally builds his nest in an alder-bush. It is eight inches in length, and thirteen across, measuring when the wings are expanded; the upper part is of a dusky brown, the lower part flesh-coloured; the legs and claws are long; breast and belly a pure white; a streak of white surrounds the eye. When singing it is generally on the top of a tall tree. Where scarce any other birds are in dull weather, the wood-thrush sings from morn till night.

The "mocking-bird" is unrivalled in the variety of its notes: it has the power of imitating all other birds, and is justly styled the prince of the feathered tribe. Its native notes resemble the brown-thrush; both are in many parts of the United States named the "mocking-bird," but are easily distinguished, as the former has a greater variety of notes, which are much sweeter. The female resembles the male. It is nine and a half inches long, and thirteen in breadth; the upper parts—the neck, head, and back—are a dark-brown ash; the wings and tail nearly black, tipped with white; breast and belly a brownish white; bill black; legs and feet black.

The "yellow-throated chat" is another bird noted for its mimicry. It arrives from the South in May, and returns with its young in September; the eggs are four, white, thinly dotted with black. It is five inches and a half long, and nine inches from the extreme points of the expanded wings; the head, sides of the neck, and back are of a fine yellow-olive; the breast, throat, and line

over the eye lemon-yellow; the lining of the wings of a lighter tinge; the belly is a pure silky white; back and rump ash; wings brown, almost black, crossed with two white bars; tail forked, brownish-black edges, tipped with white; legs light blue. The female is very little different.

The "humming-bird." This bird is universally beloved; in flight it is much more rapid than the bee. It ranges and feeds upon above half the flowers of America. It is three inches and a half in length, and four and a quarter in extent; the back, neck, and under the wings a rich golden-green; the tail purple, two middle feathers same as neck, &c.; legs and feet black; bill straight and slender; belly dusky white mixed with green. The chief splendour of this bird is the feathers of his throat.

The "yellow-bird," or "American goldfinch," sings not unlike the European goldfinch. It is four inches and a half in length, and eight inches with extended wings; the upper part of a rich lemon-yellow—rump a lighter shade; the wings and tail black—the former tipped with white; top part of the head black; legs and bill of a redish cinnamon-colour.

The "indigo-bird." This is a richly-plumed bird, extremely active, vigorous, and a good songster. Its song is a repetition of short notes, commencing loud, rapid, and gradating till they seem scarcely articulate, as if exhausted: after a pause it commences again. It is five inches long, and seven inches across with extended wings. The whole body is of a rich sky-blue. The tail and wings vary in particular lights similar to the breast of a peacock; the wings and tail black, edged with blue.

The "white-throated sparrow." This is the handsomest and largest of all our sparrows. It is six inches and a half in length, and nine inches in breadth; it is beautifully marked with black, ash, bay, and light-brown; the breast ash—belly white—tail wedged—legs flesh-coloured. In the female the white stripe on the crown is a light-drab—breast not so dark; the line of yellow before the eye is scarce half as long as that of the male. They have a few sweet and clear notes.

The "black-throated bunting" is a bird like most others of their genus; it has only two notes, which are repeated. It is six inches and a half in length, head of a greenish-yellow; neck, ash; shoulders, wing, breast, line over the eye, and lower part of the bill yellow; between the bill and eye white; throat covered with a patch of black, resembling the heart, bordered with white; back streaked with black; wings dusky, edged with a light-brown; belly white; bill blue; legs and claws brown. The female has no streak of yellow over the eye.

The "white-crowned bunting" is the rarest of its tribe. Its flight is short and silent; when perched it sings melodiously. There is a considerable resemblance between this and the white-throated sparrow. The female may be distinguished from the male by the white on the head being duller, and the breast darker.

The "rice-bunting" is a bird of beautiful plumage, and chants a variety of notes; many of the tones are delightful. Some idea may be formed of his song by striking the higher notes of a piano-forte at random, singly, and quickly making as many contrasts of high and low notes as possible. The female lays five eggs of a blueish-white spotted with blackish-brown. It is seven and a half inches long, and eleven across with expanded wings.

The "scarlet tanager" is not one of the meanest of songsters, although one of the most showy. His colour is the richest scarlet adorned with jetty black; his song at times is not unlike the Baltimore oriole. Of all the birds that inhabit the American woods, there is none strikes the eye with so much brilliancy. He commits no depredations on the property of the husbandman, but

confers a benefit upon him by destroying the insects that ravage his corn.

The "summer red bird." The note of this bird is a strong and sonorous whistle, resembling a loose trill or shake on the notes of a fife, frequently repeated; that of the female is rather a kind of chattering, approaching nearly to the rapid pronunciation of "chicky-tucky-tuck—chick-tucky-tuck." This bird delights in a sandy country interspersed with pine-trees. It is found most numerous on the shores of the Atlantic.

The "cardinal grosbeak," or "Virginia nightingale." Dr. Latham observes that these are fully entitled to the latter name from the clearness and variety of their notes, which are very musical. It is one of our common cage-birds, and is also well known in North America.

The "shore-lark." This bird flies high, and has a single cry. They are numerous, and are frequently sold in the market at Philadelphia: they are considered excellent eating.

The "Maryland yellow-throat." It has a song or twitter, not disagreeable, resembling "whittititee—whittititee—whittititee;" pausing for half a minute, he begins again the same ditty.

The "red-eyed flycatcher," or "whip-tom-kelly"—the latter name is given to it from its note resembling those words. This bird generally raises two broods in a season. The eggs are four or five, of a pure white, except at the great end, where they are marked with small dots of redish dark-brown.

The "white-eyed flycatcher." This is an active, lively, and sociable little bird, possessing a strong voice for its size, and a great variety of notes—singing with little intermission from April to September. The female and young of the first season are scarcely any different in plumage.

The "black-capp'd titmouse." This is a resident bird; it has a great variety of sprightly notes, or often-varied twitter.

The "crested titmouse." This is an associate of the above, possessing a remarkable variety in the tones of its voice, at one time not much louder than the squeaking of a mouse, and in a moment after whistling aloud, and clearly, as if calling a dog—continuing this dog-call though the woods for half an hour together. The female cannot be distinguished from the male, except only by the colours being duller; for both are equally marked with redish-orange on the sides under the wings.

The "blue jay." This elegant bird is peculiar to North America, and is the beau of the poets of the woods. He takes the position of a trumpeter among his fellow-musicians, for his notes bear a great resemblance to the tones of that instrument.

The "golden-crested wren." This diminutive species is an active, unsuspicious creature. Its chirp is feeble. The female lays six or seven eggs of a pure white, with a few specks of red. It is four inches long, and six inches across when the wings are extended; the head and sides are ash-colour; the back of a fine yellow olive; a streak of white passes round the frontlet; above this is another strip of deep black; between these is a glossy golden-yellow, which when parted shows another bright flame. When flying he opens and shuts his golden ornament, which produces a splendid effect; the breast is light cream-colour—sides the same; the wings dusky, edged with yellow; the tail forked and dusky, and pretty long; the bill black.

The "marsh-wren" can scarcely be called a songster, but when standing on the reedy banks of the Schuylkill, in June, you hear a low crackling sound, something similar to that produced by air-bubbles forcing their way through mud or boggy ground when it is trod upon. This is the note of the marsh-wren.

The "house-wren." This is a well-known bird, that inhabits the whole of the United States. The European





1. GOLDEN CROWNED WREN 2. REDSTART 3. RED HEADED LINNET 4. GREENFINCH

who judges of this bird from that of his own wren would do it great injustice, for in tone and execution it is far superior: he sings with great energy.

From the sample of the last-mentioned twenty-seven birds, it will be perceived that the American song-birds are far superior to those of Europe.

CHAP. III.

OF THE NIGHTINGALE, AND OTHER SOFT-BILLED SONG-BIRDS.

The nightingale is not only famous among the moderns for its singing, but almost every one of the ancients who undertook to describe beautiful Nature has contributed to raise its reputation. "The nightingale," says Pliny, "that, for fifteen days and nights, hid in the thickest shades, continues her note without intermission, deserves our attention and wonder. How surprising that so great a voice can reside in so small a body!—such perseverance in so minute an animal! With what a musical propriety are the sounds it produces modulated!—the note at one time drawn out with a long breath, now stealing off into a different cadence, now interrupted by a break, then changing into a new note by an unexpected transition, now seeming to renew the same strain, and then deceiving expectation! She sometimes seems to murmur within herself—full, deep, sharp, swift, drawing, trembling—now at the top, the middle, and the bottom of the scale! In short, in that little bill seems to reside all the melody which man has vainly laboured to bring from a variety of musical instruments. Some even seem to be possessed of a different song from the rest, and contend with each other with great ardour. The bird, overcome, is then seen only to discontinue its song with its life."

This most favoured of the feathered tribe visits England in the beginning of April, and leaves us in August. It is found but in some of the southern parts of the country, being totally unknown in Scotland, Ireland, or North Wales. They frequent thick hedges and low coppices, and generally keep in the middle of the bush, so that they are rarely seen. They begin their song in the evening, and generally continue it for the whole night. For weeks together, if undisturbed, they sit upon the same tree; and Shakspeare rightly describes the nightingale sitting nightly in the same place, which I have frequently observed she seldom departs from.

From Pliny's description, we should be led to believe this bird possessed of a persevering strain; but, though it is in fact so with the nightingale in Italy, yet in our hedges in England the little songsters is by no means so liberal of her music. His note is soft, various, and interrupted; he seldom holds it without a pause above the time that one can count twenty. The nightingale's pausing song would be the proper epithet for this bird's music with us, which is the more pleasing than the warbling of any other bird, because it is heard at a time when all the rest are silent.

In the beginning of May the nightingale prepares to make its nest, which is formed of the leaves of trees, straw, and moss. The nest, being very eagerly sought after, is as cunningly secreted; so that very few of them are found by the boys when they go upon these pursuits. It is built at the bottom of hedges, where the bushes are thickest and best covered. While the female continues sitting, the male, (at a good distance, but always within hearing) cheers the patient hour with his voice, and, by the short interruption of his song, often gives her warning of approaching danger. She lays four or five eggs, of which but a part in our cold climate come to maturity.

The delicacy, or rather the fame, of this bird's music has induced many to abridge its liberty to secure its song. Indeed, the greatest part of what has been written concerning it in our country consists in directions how to manage it for domestic singing; while the history of the bird is confined to dry receipts or fitting it to the cage. Its song, however, in captivity is not so very alluring; and the tyranny of taking it from those hedges where only it is most pleasing still more depreciates its imprisoned efforts. Geener assures us that it is not only the most agreeable songster in a cage, but that it is possessed of a most admirable faculty of talking. He tells the following story in proof of his assertion, which he says was communicated to him by a friend. "While I was at Ratisbone," says his correspondent, "I put up at an inn, the sign of the Golden Crown, where my host had three nightingales. What I am going to repeat is wonderful, almost incredible, and yet it is true. The nightingales were placed separately, so that each was shut up by itself in a dark cage. It happened at that time, being the spring of the year, when those birds are wont to sing indefatigably, that I was so afflicted with the stone that I could sleep but very little all night. It was usual then, about midnight, when there was no noise in the house, but all still, to hear the two nightingales jangling and talking with each other, and plainly imitating men's discourses. For my part I was almost astonished with wonder; for at this time, when all else was quiet, they held conference together, and repeated whatever they had heard among the guests by day. Those two that were most notable and masters of this art were scarce ten feet distant from one another. The third hung more remote, so that I could not so well hear it as I lay in bed. But it is wonderful to tell how these two provoked each other; and, by answering, invited and drew one another to speak. Yet did they not confound their words or talk both together, but rather utter them alternately and of course. Besides the daily discourse of the guests, they chaunted out two stories, which generally held them from midnight till morning; and that with such modulations and inflections that no man could have believed to come from such little creatures. When I asked the host if they had been taught, or whether he observed their talking in the night, he answered no; the whole family said the same. But I, who could not sleep for nights together, was perfectly sensible of their discourse. One of their stories was concerning the tapster and his wife, who refused to follow him to the wars as he had desired her; for the husband endeavoured to persuade his wife (as far as I understood by the birds) that he would leave his service in that inn, and go to the wars in hopes of plunder. But she refused to follow him, resolving to stay either at Ratisbone or go to Nuremberg. There was a long and earnest contention between them; and all this dialogue the birds repeated. They even repeated the unseemly words which were cast out between them, and which ought rather to have been suppressed and kept a secret. But the birds, not knowing the difference between modest, immodest, honest, and filthy words, did out with them. The other story was concerning the war the emperor was then threatening against the Protestants; which the birds probably heard from some of the generals that had conferences in the house. These things they repeated in the night after twelve o'clock, when there was a deep silence. But in the day-time for the most part they were silent, and seemed to do nothing but meditate and resolve with themselves upon what the guests conferred together as they sat at table, or in their walks. I verily had never believed our Pliny writing so many wonderful things concerning these little creatures, had I not myself seen and heard them uttering such things as I have related. Neither even yet can I write of all, or call to remembrance every particular that I have heard."

Such is the sagacity ascribed to the nightingale; it is but to have high reputation for any one quality; and the world is ready enough to give us some for others to which we have very small pretensions. But there is a little bird, rather celebrated for its affection to mankind than its singing, which, however, in our climate has the sweetest note of all others. The reader already perceives that I mean the "red-breast," the well-known friend of man, that is found in every hedge, and makes it vocal. The note of other birds is louder, and their inflexions more capricious; but this bird's voice is soft, tender, and well-supported; and it is the more to be valued as we enjoy it the greatest part of the winter. If the nightingale's song has been compared to the fiddle, the red-breast's voice has all the delicacy of the flute.

The red-breast during the spring haunts the wood, the grove, and the garden; it retires to the thickest and shadiest hedge-rows to breed in. But in winter it seems to become more domestic, and often to claim protection from man. Most of the soft-billed birds—such as the nightingale, the swallow, and the tit-mouse—leave us in the winter, when their insect food is no longer offered in plenty; but the red-breast continues with us the year round, and endeavours to support the famine of winter by chirping round the warm habitations of mankind, by coming into those shelters where the rigour of the season is artificially expelled, and where insects themselves are found in greater numbers, attracted by the same cause.

This bird breeds in different places; in some countries its nest is usually found in the crevice of some mossy bank, or at the foot of a hawthorn in the hedge-rows; in others, it chooses the thickest coverts, and hides its nest with oak leaves. The eggs are from four to five, of a dull white with redish streaks.

The lark, whether the sky-lark, the wood-lark, or the tit-lark, being all distinguishable from other little birds by the length of their heel, are louder in their song than either of the former, but not so pleasing. Indeed, the music of every bird in captivity produces no very pleasing sensations; it is but the mirth of a little animal insensible of its unfortunate situation; it is the landscape, the grove, the golden break of day, the contest upon the hawthorn, the fluttering from branch to branch, the soaring in the air, and the answering of its young, that gives the bird's song its true relish. These, united, improve each other, and raise the mind to a state of the highest yet most harmless exultation. Nothing can in this situation of mind be more pleasing than to see the lark warbling upon the wing—raising its note as it soars until it seems lost in the immense heights above us; the note continuing, the bird itself unseen, to see it then descending with a swell as it comes from the clouds, yet sinking by degrees as it approaches its nest—the spot where all its affections are centred—the spot that has prompted all this joy.

The lark builds its nest upon the ground, beneath some turf that serves to hide and shelter it. The female lays four or five eggs, of a dusky hue in colour, somewhat like those of a plover. It is while she is sitting that the male thus usually entertains her with his singing; and while he is risen to an imperceptible height, yet he still has his loved partner in his eye, nor once loses sight of the nest either while he ascends or is descending. This harmony continues several months, beginning early in the spring on pairing. In winter they assemble in flocks, when their song forsakes them, and the bird-catchers destroy them in great numbers for the tables of the luxurious.

The black-cap and the wren, though so very diminutive, are yet prized by some for their singing. The former is called by some the mock-nightingale; and the latter is admired for the loudness of its note, compared to the little body from whence it issues. It must be confessed that this disproportion between the voice of a bird and its size in some measure demands our wonder.

Quadrupeds in this respect may be considered as mutes to them. The peacock is louder than the lion, and the rabbit is not so loud as the wren. But it must be considered that birds are very differently formed; their lungs in some measure are extended through their whole body, while in quadrupeds they lie only in the breast. In birds there are a variety of cells that take in the air, and thus pour forth their contents at the little animal's command. The black-cap and the wren, therefore, are as respectable for their voices as they might be deemed inconsiderable for their size.

All these soft-billed birds thus prized for their singing are rendered domestic, and brought up with assiduity by such as are fond of their voices in a cage. The same method of treatment serves for all, as their food and their habits are nearly the same. The manner of taking and treating them, particularly the nightingale, is this:—A nightingale's nest may be found by observing the place where the male sings, and then by sticking two or three meal-worms (a kind of maggot found in flour) on some neighbouring thorn, which when he sees he will infallibly bear away to his young. By listening, he then may be heard with the female chirping to the young ones while they are feeding. When the nest is found, if the young are not fledged enough to be taken they must not be touched with the hands, for then the old ones will perceive it and entice them away. They should not be taken till they are almost as full of feathers as the old ones; and, though they refuse their meat, yet, by opening their bills, you may give them two or three small bits at a time, which will make them soon grow tame, when they will feed themselves. They should be put, nest and all, into a little basket, which should be covered up warm; and they should be fed every two hours. Their food should be sheep's hearts, or other raw flesh-meat, chopped very fine, and all the strings, skin, and fat taken away. But it should always be mixed with hen-eggs, boiled hard, upon which they will feed and thrive abundantly.

They should then be put in cages like the nightingale's back cage, with a little straw or dry moss at the bottom; but when they are grown up they should have ants' mold. They should be kept very clean, as indeed should be all singing-birds whatsoever; for otherwise they will have the cramp, and perhaps the claws will drop off. In autumn they will sometimes abstain from their food for a fortnight, unless two or three meal-worms be given them twice or thrice a week, or two or three spiders in a day; they must likewise have a little saffron in their water. Figs chopped small among their meat will help them to recover their flesh. When their legs are cramped, they should be annointed with fresh butter or capons' fat three or four days together. If they grow melancholy, put white sugar-candy into their water, and feed them with sheep's heart, giving them three or four meal-worms in a day, and a few ants with their eggs. They should also have saffron in their water.

With regard to adult birds, those that are taken before the twenty-third of April are accounted the best, because after that they begin to pair. They usually haunt woods, coppices, and quickset hedges, where they may be taken in trap-cages baited with meal-worms. They should be placed as near the spot where the bird sings as possible; and before you fix the trap, turn up the earth twice the breadth of the cage, because they will there look for food. They are also taken with lime-twigs, placing them upon the hedge where they usually sing; and there should be meal-worms stuck at proper places to draw them into the snare. After they are taken their wings should be gently tied with thread, to prevent their beating themselves against the cage. This should be first hung in a private place, that the bird may not be disturbed; and it should be fed every two hours at farthest, with sheep's heart and egg minced very fine, mixing it with meal-worms. However, the



1 SONG THRUSH OR THRUSH. 2 WHITETHROAT. 3 WHITE EAR. 4 WHINCCHAT.

first food must be worms, ants, caterpillars, and flies. You must, to feed the bird, take it in your hand, and open the bill with a stick made thick at one end, giving it the insects, or four or five bits of food as big as peas, to entice it to eat. Its common food should be mixed with ants, so that when the bird goes to pick up the ants it may pick up some of that also. The nightingale when caged begins to sing about the latter end of November, and continues its song till June.

THE LARK FAMILY.

The "crested lark." This bird never flies in flocks like the common lark, nor does it fly so high: its notes are sweet and agreeable; it is rarely found in this country. It has a tuft surmounted on its head, larger than the common lark. The wings and tail are shorter, the bill longer; the former when folded extend half way down the tail. The feathers are of a deep grey, edges of a lighter tint, which cover the neck, body, and head. At each side of the head is a band of redish grey. The lower parts are of a darkish white tinted with red. It is an inhabitant of the continent. The nest is made on the ground, and the female lays five eggs twice a year, of ash-colour sprinkled with blackish spots.

The "wood-lark." This bird is often confounded with the crested lark, on account of the tuft surmounted on its head, which is considerably smaller than the former. They flock together and warble in the commencement of spring. When they pair, the male sets forth his melodious vocal powers until the young are hatched, when he ceases.

The "short-toed lark." Its song is more melodious than the common lark, but it seldom sings in the middle of the day; it has a great propensity for powdering itself with dust, and will plunge into sand or ashes and wallow in it. It lays four eggs of a grey colour, spotted with a brownish grey; towards the thick end the spots are more numerous.

The "clapper-lark." It has a cry resembling "pi-wit," and lays five eggs of a greenish-grey. It is a native of South Africa.

The "red-backed lark" has an agreeable song, and is generally found amongst the bushes in a flat country.

The "double-crested lark" is so named in consequence of having two crests similar, only smaller, to the crested lark.

The "Alpine lark." It is an inhabitant of the mountainous regions of the continent. Upon the Swiss Alps it is very common. It lays four or five eggs of a fine greenish-blue colour.

THE WARBLERS, CHATS, WAGTAILS, AND PIPITS.

Thou fairy bird, how I love to trace
The rapid flight of thy tiny race!
I look from my lattice the branches among,
And see thee flit like a shadow along;
For the wild bee does not wave his wing
More lightly than thine, thou fairy thing.

The "hedge warbler." This handsome bird has a note or song likened to the words "chiff, chaff, chaff, chaffy." It is an unwearied songster, and the first migratory member of the family heard in the season. The eggs are seven, white, spotted with purple. Length between four and five inches. Upper parts oil-green, tinted with yellowish-grey. Between the bill and eyes, and over each eye, is a narrow, faint, yellowish-white streak. Wing-coverts pale yellowish-brown, margined with yellowish-grey. The whole of the under parts, including the under tail-coverts, pale primrose-yellow. Legs and feet blackish-brown.

The "wood-warbler." Though this and the hedge-warbler resemble each other in appearance, their habits are essentially different. The former prefers single and

lofty trees in preference to the woods. Its song is as unmelodious as the hedge-warbler, and uttered in a tremulous manner; it consists of one note uttered several times. The eggs are six, white, and spotted all over with purple. It subsists entirely on insect food, and is well worthy of protection, as it never touches fruit or berries of any kind. The top of the head and upper part is sulphur-yellow; the lower part of the feathers tinged with ash-grey; forehead and eye streaked with sulphur, inclining to gamboge-yellow; the throat, neck, cheeks, and marginal ridges of the thighs and wings pale-yellow; the rest pure white; the legs yellowish; brown tail, slightly forked; hair brown, edges yellow, except outer feather.

The "willow-warbler." Its song is confined to a few clear feeble notes, which are pleasing. The eggs are six or seven, of a very pale pink, spotted over with specks of reddish-brown. The upper parts pale-green, with a grey shade; wing-coverts and margins of quill feathers pale and sulphur-yellow. From the base of the bill a streak of primrose-yellow proceeds over the eyes; but not so well defined as in that of the wood-warbler; cheeks and throat primrose-yellow, passing into sulphur-yellow on the breast; middle of the belly pure white; under tail-coverts primrose-yellow; quills and tail-hair brown, the latter slightly forked; and the margins of the feathers yellowish-white; wings reaching half the length of the tail; legs yellowish-brown; bill having the lower mandible yellowish, the upper brown.

The "palm-warbler" is an inhabitant of the West India Islands. It builds at the top of a lofty palm-tree, and has six notes, which are mellow and soft.

The warblers chiefly feed upon insects and their larvae, seldom on fruits. They are a migratory bird. The colours of most consists of green, black, and yellow.

The "chat genus" are all inhabitants of the unfrequented heathy moor. They are common in Europe: they are wild and live in pairs.

The "fallow-chat" sojourns with us seven months; it arrives in March and departs in October; it is the shyest of the genus. The eggs are six, of a pale blueish-green colour. Its note resembles the sound produced by knocking two stones together.

The "whin-chat." This bird arrives about a month later than the fallow-chat. It is a sluggish and inactive bird. Its song is sweet and melodious. It will be needless to give a further description; for if the reader will refer to the engraving it will furnish him with full particulars.

The "stone-chat." This bird is different to the above, as it remains throughout the year with us. Its song is very similar to that of the whin-chat, being low, soft, and sweet. The eggs are similar to those of the whin-chat; it lays five or six of the same shape and colour; they only differ at the large end, having spots of a reddish-brown colour.

The "white-ear" is a migratory bird, and arrives here in March.—(See engraving.)

The "whitethroat." This bird arrives at the end of April, and greatly resembles the robin; it is abundant in most parts of Britain. It has a monotonous note.—(See engraving.)

The "black-capp'd fauvel" is only surpassed in its song by the brake nightingale and garden fauvel, and it is very near equal to the former. Although its colours are plain it is a very handsome bird. Its ordinary food is bruised hempseed and bread (when caged), occasionally a few insects, caterpillars, worms, and grubs; in summer a few raspberries, cherries, and currants; in winter a newly-roasted pear or apple: with this treatment it will sing nearly the whole year. The eggs are five, of a wood-brown colour tinged with red.

The "garden-fauvel." It arrives about the same time as the two preceding species, and migrates in September.

It possesses an exquisite sweet tone, and cannot fail to attract the attention of the ornithologist. The eggs are five, of a yellowish-brown colour, spotted with darker patches of the same.

The "garrulous fauvel," or "lesser whitethroat." Its song consists of two or three harsh notes, which is monotonous. The eggs are five, of a greenish-white colour, spotted with brown at the large end.

The "pied wagtail" appears in February and departs in October. It may often be seen sporting about in a thousand different ways; its favourite haunts are by running streams. The song is not powerful, nor destitute of melody. The eggs are five, of a light ash-colour, spotted all over with brown spots.

The "grey wagtail." Like the former species, this bird frequents pebbly, running streams which flow through meadows. It is an elegant bird. The under parts are of a bright yellow; the head and back yellowish-green. As regards vocal powers, he has none, but is amply compensated in his beautiful plumage.

The "rock pipit." The length of this species is six inches and three-quarters. The bill is dusky; head, back, and neck of a dark brown; over the eye and below the ear is a light-coloured stroke; the throat white; breast and belly white, the former blotched with dusky spots; two middle feathers of the tail dark-brown colour; legs and toes dusky; claws black. Its song and habits are like those of the meadow-pipit. It lays five eggs of a dirty white, with specks of brown.

The "meadow-pipit." Its song is not unlike that of the sky-lark, but very feeble: it is the most familiar British species of the genus. It usually sings whilst rising in the air, which is performed with a quivering action of the wings.

The "tree-pipit." Its notes bear no resemblance to those of the meadow-pipit. In ascending into the air he has a kind of twitter; having reached a proper altitude he flutters, and, commencing his melody, descends. The eggs are five, ash-coloured, sprinkled with brownish purple spots all over. All the pipits have an elongated hind-claw, which causes them to be more at ease on land than when perching.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE CANARY-BIRD, AND OTHER HARD-BILLED SINGING-BIRDS.

The Canary-bird is now become so common, and has continued so long in a domestic state, that its native habits as well as its native country seem almost forgotten. Though, by the name, it appears that these birds came originally from the Canary Islands, yet we have it only from Germany, where they are bred up in great numbers, and sold into different parts of Europe. At what period they were brought into Europe is not well known; but it is certain that about a century ago they were sold at very high prices, and kept only for the amusement of the great. They have since been multiplied in great abundance; and their price is diminished in proportion to their plenty.

In its native islands—a region equally noted for the beauty of its landscapes and the harmony of its groves—the Canary-bird is of a dusky-grey colour, and so different from those usually seen in Europe, that some have even doubted whether it be of the same species. With us they have that variety of colouring usual in all domestic fowls—some white, some mottled, some beautifully shaded with green; but they are more esteemed for their note than their beauty, having a high piercing pipe, as indeed all those of the finch tribe have, continuing for some time in one breath without intermission, then raising it higher and higher by degrees with great variety.

It is this that has rendered the Canary-bird, next to the nightingale, the most celebrated songster; and, as it is more easily reared than any of the soft-billed birds, and continues its song throughout the year, it is rather the most common in our houses. Rules, therefore, have been laid down, and copious instructions given, for breeding these birds in a domestic state; which, as a part of them may conduce towards the natural history of the bird, I will take leave to transcribe.

In choosing the Canary-bird, those are best that appear with life and boldness, standing upright upon the perch, like a sparrow-hawk, and not apt to be frightened at everything that stirs. If its eyes look cheerful and not drowsy it is a sign of health; but, on the contrary, if it hides its head under the wing and gathers its body up, these are symptoms of its being out of order. In choosing them the melody of the song should also be minded: some will open with the notes of the nightingale, and, running through a variety of modulations, end like the titlark. Others will begin like the sky-lark, and, by a soft melodious turn, fall into the notes of the nightingale. These are lessons taught this bird in its domestic state, and generally taught it by others; but its native note is loud, shrill, piercing, and enough to deafen the hearers. There are persons who admire each of these songs, but the second is in the most general estimation.

Canary-birds sometimes breed all the year round; but they most usually begin to pair in April, and to breed in June and August. Those are said to be the best breeders that are produced between the English and the French.

Towards the latter end of March a cock and a hen should be put together in a small cage, where they will peck at each other in the beginning, but will soon become thoroughly reconciled. The room where they are kept to breed should be so situated as to let the birds have the benefit of the morning sun; and the windows should be of wire, not glass, that they may enjoy the benefit of the air. The floor of the room should be kept clean, and sometimes there should be dry gravel or sand sifted upon it. There should also be two windows, one at each end, and several perches at proper distances for the birds to settle on as they fly backwards and forwards. A tree in the middle of the room would be the most convenient to divert the birds, and sometimes to serve for building their nests upon.

In Germany they prepare a large room, and build it in the manner of a barn, being much longer than broad, with a square place at each end, and several holes to go into those square places. In these outlets they plant several sorts of trees, in which the birds take great delight to sing and breed. The bottom of the place they strew with sand, and upon it cast rapeseed, chickweed, and groundsel, which the old birds feed upon while breeding. In the body of the house they put all sorts of stuff for building the nest, and brooms, one under the other, in all the corners, for the birds to build in. These they separate by partitions from each other, to prevent those above flying down upon or otherwise incommoding such as breed below. The light is also excluded, for no bird is fond of having light come to its nest.

With us the apparatus for breeding is less expensive; a little breeding cage sometimes suffices, but seldom anything more extensive than a small room. While the birds are pairing it is usual to feed them with soft meat—that is, bread, mawseed, a little scalded rape-seed, and near a third part of an egg. The room should be furnished with stuff for making their nests, such as fine hay, wool, cotton, and hair. These materials should be thoroughly dry, and then mixed and tied together in such a manner that the birds may readily pull out what they want. This should be hung in a proper part of the room, and the male will take his turn in building

the nest, sitting upon the eggs, and feeding the young. They are generally two or three days in building their nests; the hen commonly lays five eggs; and in the space of fourteen days the young will be excluded. So prolific are these birds sometimes, that the female will be ready to hatch a second brood before the first are able to quit the nest. On these occasions she leaves the nest and the young to provide herself with another to lay her new brood in. In the meantime the male, more faithful to the duties of his trust, breeds up the young left behind, and fits them for a state of independence.

When the young ones are excluded the old ones should be supplied with a sufficiency of soft food every day, as also with fresh greens, such as cabbage, lettuce, and chick-weed; in June, shepherd's purse; and in July and August, plantain. They are never to have groundsel after the young are excluded. With these different delicacies the old ones will take particular care to feed and bring up their young; but it is usual when they can feed themselves to be taken from the nest and put into cages. Their meat then is the yolk of an egg boiled hard, with an equal quantity of fine bread and a little scalded rapeseed: this must be bruised till it becomes fine, and then it may be mixed with a little mawseed; after which blend all together, which is to be supplied them fresh every day.

The Canary-bird, by being kept in company with the linnet or the goldfinch, pairs and produces a mixed breed, more like the Canary-bird, and resembling it chiefly in its song. Indeed, all this tribe with strong bills and piercing notes, and feeding upon grain, have the most strong similitude to each other, and may justly be supposed, as Mr. Buffon imagines, to come from the same original. They all breed about the same time—they frequent the same vegetables—they build in the same hedges and trees—and are brought up for the cage with the same food and precautions. The linnet, bullfinch, and the goldfinch, when we know the history of the Canary-bird, have scarce any peculiarities that can attract our curiosity or require our care. The only art necessary with all those that have no very fine note is to breed them up under some more pleasing harmonist. The goldfinch learns a fine song from the nightingale; and the linnet and bullfinch may be taught, forgetting the wild notes of Nature, to whistle a long and regular tune.

CHAP. V.

OF THE SWALLOW AND ITS AFFINITIES.

An idea of any one bird in the former classes will give us some tolerable conception of the rest. By knowing the linnet or the Canary-bird we have some notion of the manners of a goldfinch; by exhibiting the history of the nightingale, we see also that of the black-cap or the tit-mouse. But the swallow tribe seems to be quite different from all the former—different in their habits, and unlike in all the particulars of their history.

In this tribe is to be found the goat-sucker, which may be styled a nocturnal swallow; it is the largest of this kind, and is known by its tail, which is not forked like that of the common swallow. It begins its flight at evening, and makes a loud singular noise, like the whirl of a spinning-wheel. To this also belongs the house-swallow, which is too well known to need a description; the martin, inferior in size to the former, and the tail much less forked; it differs also in the form of its nest, which is covered at top, while that of the house-swallow is open; and the swift, rather larger than the house-swallow, with all the toes standing forward, in

which it differs from the rest of its kind. All these resemble each other so strongly, that it is not without difficulty the smaller kinds are known asunder.

These are all known by their very large mouths, which when they fly are always kept open; they are not less remarkable for their short, slender feet, which are scarcely able to support the weight of their bodies: their wings are of immoderate extent for their bulk; their plumage is glossed with a rich purple; and their note is a slight twittering, which they seldom exert but when upon the wing.

This peculiar conformation seems attended with a similar peculiarity of manners. Their food is insects, which they always pursue flying. For this reason, during fine weather, when the insects are most likely to be abroad, the swallows are for ever upon the wing, and are seen pursuing their prey with amazing swiftness and agility. All smaller animals in some measure find safety by winding and turning when they endeavour to avoid the greater: the lark thus evades the pursuit of the hawk, and man the crocodile. In this manner insects upon the wing endeavour to avoid the swallow; but this bird is admirably fitted by Nature to pursue them through their shortest turnings. Besides a great length of wing, it is also provided with a long tail, which, like a rudder, turns it in its most rapid motions; and thus, while it is possessed of the greatest swiftness, it is also possessed of the most extreme agility.

Early, therefore, in the spring, when the returning sun begins to arouse the insect tribe from their annual state of torpidity—when the gnat and the beetle put off their earthly robes and venture into air, the swallow then is seen returning from its long migration beyond the ocean, and making its way feebly to the shore. At first, with the timidity of a stranger, it appears but seldom, and flies but slowly and heavily along. As the weather grows warmer and its insect supply increases, it then gathers greater strength and activity. But it sometimes happens that a rainy season, by repelling the insects, stints the swallow in its food; the poor bird is then seen slowly skimming along the surface of the ground, and often resting after the flight of a few minutes. In general, however, it keeps on the wing, moving with a rapidity that nothing can escape. When the weather is likely to be fair the insect tribe feel the genial influence, and make bolder flights; at that time the swallow follows them in their aerial journeys, and often rises to imperceptible heights in the pursuit. When the weather is likely to be foul the insects feel the first notices of it; and from the swallows following low we are often apprised of the approaching change.

When summer is fairly begun, and more than a sufficient supply for sustaining the wants of nature everywhere offers, the swallow then begins to think of forming a progeny. The nest is built with great industry and art, particularly by the common swallow, which builds on the tops of chimneys. The martin sticks it to the eaves of the houses. The goat-sucker, as we are told, builds it on the bare ground. This nest is built with mud from some neighbouring brook, well tempered with the bill, and moistened with water for its better adhesion; it is still farther kept firm by long grass and fibres; within it is lined with goose-feathers, which are ever the warmest and the neatest. The martin covers its nest at top, and has a door to enter at; the swallow leaves hers quite open. But our European nests are nothing to be compared with those the swallow builds on the coasts of China and Coromandel, the description of which I will give in the plain, honest phrase of Willoughby. "On the sea-coast of the kingdom of China," says he "a sort of party-coloured bird of the shape of swallows, at a certain season of the year, which is their breeding time, come out of the midland country to the rocks, and from the foam or froth of the sea-water, dashing against the bottom of the rocks, gather a certain clammy, glut-

nous matter—perchance the spawn of whales or other fishes—of which they build their nests, wherein they lay their eggs and hatch their young. These nests the Chinese pluck from the rocks, and bring them in great numbers into the East Indies to sell. They are esteemed by gluttons as great delicacies, who, dissolving them in chicken or mutton broth, are very fond of them—far before oysters, mushrooms, or other dainty and liquorish morsels. What a pity this luxury has not been introduced among us, and then our great feasters might be enabled to eat a little more!

The swallow usually lays from five to six eggs, of a white colour speckled with red, and sometimes breeds twice a-year. When the young brood are excluded the swallow supplies them very plentifully, the first brood particularly, when she finds herself capable of producing two broods in a year. This happens when the parents come early, when the season is peculiarly mild, and when they begin to pair soon. Sometimes they find a difficulty in rearing even a single nest, particularly when the weather has been severe, or their nests have been robbed in the beginning of the season. By these accidents this important task is sometimes deferred to the middle of September.

At the latter end of September they leave us, and, for a few days previous to their departure, assemble in vast flocks on house tops, as if deliberating on the fatiguing journey that lays before them. This is no alight undertaking, as their flight is directed to Congo, Senegal, and along the whole Morocco shore. There are some, however, left behind in this general expedition that do not depart till eight or ten days after the rest. These are chiefly the later weakly brood, which are not yet in a condition to set out. They are sometimes even too feeble to venture till the setting in of winter; while their parents vainly exhort them to efforts which instinct assures them they are incapable of performing. Thus it often happens that the wretched little families, being compelled to stay, perish the first cold weather that comes; while the tender parents share the fate of their offspring, and die with their new-fledged brood.

Those that migrate are first observed to arrive in Africa, as Mr. Adanson assures us, about the beginning of October. They are thought to have performed their fatiguing journey in the space of seven days. They are sometimes seen, when interrupted by contrary winds, wavering in their course far off at sea, and lighting upon whatever ship they find in their passage. They then seem spent with famine and fatigue; yet still they boldly venture when refreshed with a few hours' rest to renew their flight, and continue the course which they had been steering before.

These are facts proved by incontestible authority; yet it is a doubt whether all swallows migrate in this manner, or whether they may not be some species of this animal that, though externally alike, are so internally different as to be very differently affected by the approach of winter. We are assured from many, and these not contemptible witnesses, that swallows hide themselves in holes under-ground, joined close together, bill against bill and feet against feet. Some inform us that they have seen them taken out of the water, and even from under the ice, in bunches, where they are asserted to pass the winter without motion. Reaumur, who particularly interested himself in this inquiry, received several accounts of bundles of swallows being thus found in quarries and under the water. These men, therefore, have a right to some degree of assent, and are not to lose all credit from our ignorance of what they aver.

All, however, that we have hitherto dissected are formed within like other birds, and seem to offer no observable variety. Indeed, that they do not hide themselves under water has been pretty well proved by the noted experiment of Frisch, who tied several threads

died in water-colours round the legs of a great number of swallows that were preparing for their departure: these, upon their return the ensuing summer, brought their threads back with them, no way damaged in their colour—which they most certainly would, if during the winter they had been steeped in water: yet still this is a subject on which we must suspend our assent, as Klein, the naturalist, has brought such a number of proofs in defence of his opinion that swallows are torpid in winter, as even the most incredulous must allow to have some degree of probability.

OF THE SPARROW KIND.

The "house-sparrow." It carries with it everywhere a bad reputation. It is much addicted to thieving, and is well known.

The "tree-sparrow." This bird in general appearance resembles the above, but is more lively and gayer.

The "field-sparrow." It has a note like the chirp of a cricket. It is one of the American finches—the smallest species.

The "song-sparrow" commences its song in the spring, and continues its sweet warblings during the summer. It is general in the United States.

The "goldfinch" is one of the most beautiful and best of our birds; it makes the orchard echo with its melodious song from early dawn of morning until sunset, which it continues to do until August, except the interruption occasioned by its young, which it feeds with the tender seeds of groundsel, lettuce, and other plants; and also insects. They have three broods, the last in August. It is very docile, and can be taught numerous tricks with great dexterity. The males from the canary are more robust, and live longer than the goldfinch; their song is also more brilliant. In winter the goldfinches assemble and live in numerous flocks where endive and thistles grow, and in cold weather take shelter therein. Variation of food keeps them in good health; millets, rapeseed, and a little hempseed mixed, will keep them in good health, but the quantities must be varied every time. This species is extended nearly throughout Europe, as also in parts of Africa and Asia.—(See vignette.)

The "siskin goldwing." It is a neat and tidy bird; the song is short, low, and unvaried, but not unpleasant. The tail is forked and short. In character it resembles the common goldwing. Its food consists of the seeds of birch, elm, fir, alder, &c. It is said that it can imitate the linnet, canary, &c., when taken young and placed within hearing of these birds.

The "common goldwing." This bird is very abundant in all parts of England, and few birds possess more beautiful plumage. Its song is lively and gay, and for sweetness surpassed by none. The eggs are five, of a pale blue, spotted at the larger end with black.

The "chaff-finch." In the middle of March this bird commences its merry repeated strains, which consist of a single bar of short, rapid notes. In Germany it is one of the favourite song-birds, and highly valued here; nevertheless it is not worth caging.

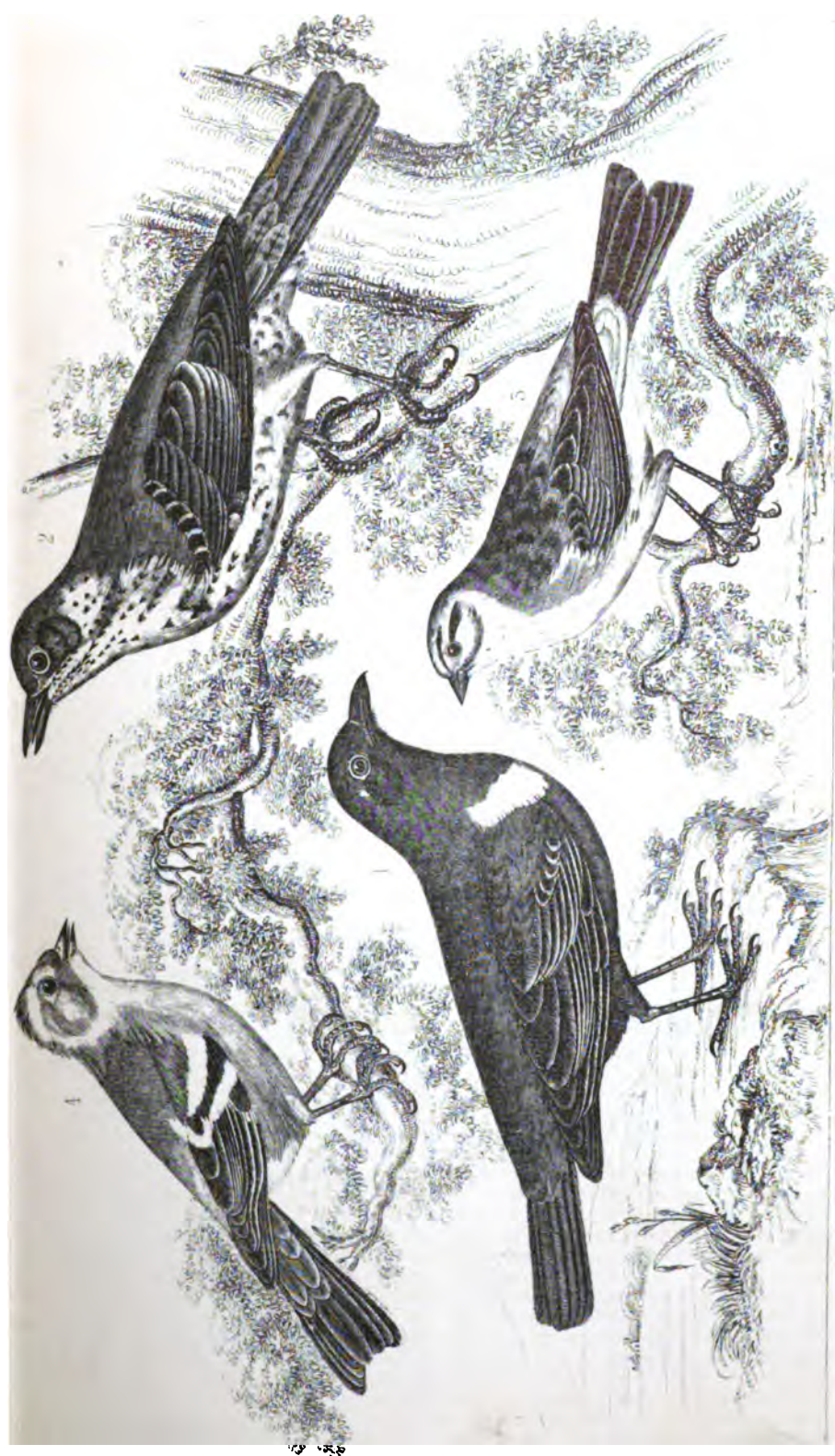
The "mountain-finch," or "brambling," is about the size of the chaff-finch; it is a bird of handsome appearance, and is a native of northern climates.—(See engraving.)

The "yellow-hammer," or "Bunting," bears a considerable resemblance to the corn-bunting. It has an unmelodious ditty, which is audible at a considerable distance, and is a most diligent songster.—(See engraving.)

The "reed-bunting." It has a sweet blended note. It carols on the topmost sprig of a hedge. The eggs are four or five, streaked with dark-redish purple.

The "ortolan-bunting" is very common in Italy and France, and is highly esteemed for the flavour of its flesh. It has never been known to visit this country.

Goldsmiths like in the North



1 RING NECKED PHEASANT 2 MISSAL BIRD 3 YELLOW HAMMER 4 GRASSFINCH



It lays five eggs, of a greyish-white, tinged with a pinkish-black streaked with veins of brown.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE HUMMING-BIRD AND ITS VARIETIES.

Having given some history of the manners of the most remarkable birds of which accounts can be obtained, I might now go to a very extensive tribe, remarkable for the splendour and the variety of their plumage; but the description of the colours of a beautiful bird has nothing in it that can inform or entertain: it rather excites a longing which it is impossible for words to satisfy. Naturalists, indeed, have endeavoured to satisfy this desire by coloured prints; but, beside that these at best give only a faint resemblance of Nature, and are a very indifferent kind of painting, the bird itself has a thousand beauties that the most exquisite artist is incapable of imitating. They, for instance, who imagine they have a complete idea of the beauty of the little tribe of Manikin birds from the pictures we have of them, will find themselves deceived when they compare their draughts with Nature. The shining greens, the changeable purples, and the glossy reds, are beyond the reach of the pencil. I have therefore declined entering into a more minute description of foreign birds of the sparrow kind, as sounds would never convey an adequate idea of colours.

There is one species, however, with which I will conclude the history of this class, as, though the least, it will certainly be allowed to be the most beautiful of all others. Among quadrupeds the smallest animals are generally noxious, ugly, and loathsome; the smallest of birds are the most beautiful, innocent, and sportive. Of all those that flutter in the garden or paint the landscape, the humming-bird is the most delightful to look upon and the most inoffensive.

Of this charming little animal there are six or seven varieties, from the size of a small wren down to that of an humble bee. An European could never have supposed a bird existing so very small, and yet completely furnished out with a bill, feathers, wings, and intestines exactly resembling those of the largest kind. A bird not so big as the end of one's little finger would probably be supposed but a creature of imagination, were it not seen in infinite numbers, and as frequent as butterflies in a summer's day, sporting in the fields of America from flower to flower, and extracting their sweets with its little bill.

The smallest humming-bird is about the size of a hazel-nut. The feathers on its wings and tail are black; but those on its body and under its wings are of a greenish-brown, with a fine red cast or gloss which no silk or velvet can imitate. It has a small crest on its head, green at the bottom, and, as it were, glided at the top, and which sparkles in the sun like a little star in the middle of its forehead. The bill is black, straight, slender, and of the length of a small pin. The large humming-bird is near half as big as the common wren, and with a crest on its head; but, to make amends, it is covered from the throat half way down the belly with changeable crimson-coloured feathers, which in different lights change to a variety of beautiful colours, much like an opal. The heads of both are small, with very small round eyes as black as jet.

It is inconceivable how much these add to the high finishing and beauty of a rich luxurious western landscape. As soon as the sun is risen, the humming-birds of different kinds are seen fluttering about the flowers, without ever lighting upon them. Their wings are in such rapid motion that it is impossible to discern their colours, except by their glittering. They are never

still, but continually in motion, visiting flower after flower, and extracting its honey as if with a kiss. For this purpose they are furnished with a forked tongue, that enters the cup of the flower and extracts its nectared tribute. Upon this alone they subsist. The rapid motion of their wings brings out a humming sound, from whence they have their name; for whatever divides the air swiftly must thus produce a murmur.

The nests of these birds are not less curious than the rest: they are suspended in the air, at the points of the twigs of an orange, a pomegranate, or a citron-tree; sometimes even in houses, if they find a small and convenient twig for the purpose. The female is the architect, while the male goes in quest of materials, such as cotton, fine moss, and the fibres of vegetables. Of these materials a nest is composed of about the size of a hen's egg cut in two, admirably contrived, and warmly lined with cotton. They lay two eggs at a time, never more, about the size of small peas, and as white as snow, with here and there a yellow speck. The male and the female sit upon the nest by turns; but the female takes to herself the greatest share. She seldom quits the nest, except for a few minutes in the morning and evening, when the dew is upon the flowers and their honey in perfection. During this short interval the male takes her place; for, as the eggs is so small, the exposing it ever so short a time to the weather would be apt to injure its contents, the surface exposed being so great in comparison to the bulk. The time of incubation continues twelve days; at the end of which the young ones appear, much about the size of a blue-bottle fly. They are at first bare; by degrees they are covered with down; and, at last, feathers succeed, but less beautiful at first than those of the old ones.

Labat's companion, in the mission to America, found the nest of a humming-bird in a shed that was near the dwelling-house, and took it in at a time when the young ones were about fifteen or twenty days old; he then placed them in a cage at his chamber-window, to be amused by their sportive flutterings; but he was soon surprised to see the old ones, who came and fed their brood regularly every hour in the day. By these means the parent birds soon grew so tame that they seldom quitted the chamber, but without any constraint came to live with their young ones. All four have frequently come to perch upon their master's hand, chirruping as if they had been at liberty abroad. He fed them with a very fine clear paste, made of wine, biscuit, and sugar; they thrust their tongues into this paste till they were satisfied, and then fluttered and chirruped about the room. "I never beheld anything more agreeable," he says, "than this lovely little family that had taken possession of my companion's chamber, and that flew out and in just as they thought proper, but were ever attentive to the voice of their master when he called them." In this manner they lived with him for above six months; but, at a time when he expected to see a new colony formed, he unfortunately forgot to tie up their cage to the ceiling at night to preserve them from the rats, and he found they were devoured in the morning.

These birds on the continent of America continue to flutter the year round—as their food, which is the honey of flowers, never forsakes them in those warm latitudes where they are found. But it is otherwise in the islands of the Antilles, where, when the winter season approaches, they retire, and, as some say, continue in a torpid state during the severity of that season. At Surinam and Jamaica, where they constantly have flowers, these beautiful birds are never known to disappear.

It is a doubt whether or not these birds have a continued note in singing. All travellers agree that, beside the humming noise produced by their wings, they have a little interrupted chirrup; but Labat asserts that they

have a most pleasing, melancholy melody in their voices, though small, and proportioned to the organs which produce it. It is very probable that in different places their notes are also different; and as there are some that continue torpid all the winter, there may likewise be some with agreeable voices, though the rest may in general be silent.

The Indians formerly made great use of this pretty bird's plumage in adorning their belts and head-dress. The children take them in the fields upon rings smeared with bird-lime; they approach the place where the birds are flying, and, twirling their rings in the air, so allure them, either by the colour or the sound, that the simple little creature comes to rest upon the ring, and is seized. They are then instantly killed and gutted, and hung up in the chimney to dry. Those who are more particular dry them in a stove, which is not so likely to injure the plumage as the foregoing method. Their beautiful feathers were once the ornament of the highest rank of savage nobility; but at present they take the bird rather for the purpose of selling it as a curiosity to the Europeans than that of ornament for themselves. All the taste for savage finery is wearing out fast, even among the Americans. They now begin to adopt, if not the dresses of Europe, at least the materials of which they are composed. The wandering warrior is far from thinking himself fine at present with his bow and feathered crown: his ambition reaches to higher ornaments—a horse, a gun, a revolver, and a blanket.

THE HOOPOE AND THE CREEPER.

The "hoopoe." This is a summer visitor from North America. It has been found on our eastern and southern coasts in the autumn. They generally build in hollow trees, and lay six or seven eggs. They prefer moist and low situations, where they feed upon insects. Length twelve inches and a half.—(See engraving.)

The "common creeper" is one of our smallest birds, and is an excellent climber; it runs with great rapidity in search of small insects of all sorts. It generally makes its nest in a hollow tree. Length five inches.—(See engraving.)

BOOK VI.—CHAP. I.

OF BIRDS OF THE CRANE KIND IN GENERAL.

The progressions in Nature from one class of beings to another are always by slow and almost imperceptible degrees. She has peopled the woods and the fields with a variety of the most beautiful birds; and, to leave no part of her extensive territories untenanted, she has stocked the waters with its feathered inhabitants also; she has taken the same care in providing for the wants of her animals in this element as she has done with respect to those of the other; she has used as much precaution to render water-fowl fit for swimming as she did in forming land-fowl for flight: she has defended their feathers with a natural oil, and united their toes by a webbed membrane; by which contrivance they have at once security and motion. But between the classes of land-birds that shun the water and of water-fowl that are made for swimming and living on it, she has formed a very numerous tribe of birds that seem to partake of a middle nature—that, with divided toes, seemingly fitted to live upon land, are at the same time furnished with appetites that chiefly attach them to the waters. These can properly be called neither land-birds nor water-fowl, as they provide all their sustenance from watery places, and yet are unqualified to seek it in those depths where it is often found in greatest plenty.

This class of birds of the crane kind are to be distinguished from others rather by their appetites than

their conformation. But even in this respect they seem to be sufficiently discriminated by Nature; as they are to live among the waters, yet are incapable of swimming in them, most of them have long legs, fitted for wading in shallow waters, or long bills proper for groping in them.

Every bird of this kind, habituated to marshy places, may be known, if not by the length of its legs, at least by the scaly surface of them. Those who have observed the legs of a snipe or a woodcock will easily perceive my meaning, and how different the surface of the skin that covers them is from that of the pigeon or the partridge. Most birds of this kind, also, are bare of feathers half way up the thigh—at least, in all of them above the knee. Their long habits of wading in the waters, and having their legs continually in moisture, prevents the growth of feathers on those parts; so that there is a surprising difference between the leg of a crane, naked almost up to the body, and the falcon, booted almost to the very toes.

The bill, also, is very distinguishable in most of this class. It is in general longer than that of other birds, and in some finely fluted on every side; while at the point it is possessed of extreme sensibility, and furnished with nerves, for the better feeling their food at the bottom of marshes where it cannot be seen. Some birds of this class are thus fitted with every convenience; they have long legs for wading, long necks for stooping, long bills for searching, and nervous points for feeling. Others are not so amply provided for; as some have long bills, but legs of no great length; and others have long necks but very short legs. It is a rule which universally holds, that where the bird's legs are long the neck is also long in proportion. It would indeed be an incurable defect in a bird's conformation to be lifted upon stilts above its food, without being furnished with an instrument to reach it.

If we consider the natural power of this class in a comparative view, they will seem rather inferior to those of every other tribe. Their nests are more simple than those of the sparrow, and their methods of obtaining food less ingenious than those of the falcon. The pie exceeds them in cunning; and though they have all the voraciousness of the poultry tribe, they want their fecundity. None of this kind, therefore, have been taken into man's society or under his protection; they are neither caged like the nightingale, nor kept tame like the turkey, but lead a life of precarious liberty in fens and marshes, at the edges of lakes, and along the sea-shore. They all live upon fish or insects, one or two only excepted; even those that are called "mudsuckers," such as the snipe and the woodcock, it is more than probable grope the bottom of marshy places only for such insects as are deposited there by their kind, and live in a vermicular state in pools and splashes, till they take wing and become flying insects.

All this class, therefore, that are fed upon insects, their food being easily digestible, are good to be eaten; while those who live entirely on fish, abounding in oil, acquire in their flesh the rancidity of their diet, and are in general unfit for our tables. To savages, indeed, and sailors on a long voyage, everything that has life seems good to be eaten; and we often find them recommending those animals as dainties which they themselves would spurn at after a course of good living. Nothing is more common in their journals than such accounts as these:—"This day we shot a fox—pretty good eating: and this day we killed a turtle"—which they rank with the heron and the fox, as pretty good eating. Their accounts, therefore, of the flesh of these birds are not to be depended upon; and when they cry up the heron or the stork from other countries as luxurious food, we must always attend to the state of their appetites who give the character.

In treating of this class of birds it will be best to ob-



GOLD FINCH



CRESTED LARK



CREEPER



HOOPOE



CHAFF FINCH



SKY LARK



serve the simplest method possible—neither to load the memory with numerous distinctions, nor yet confuse the imagination by a total want of arrangement. I will therefore describe some of the larger sort separately, as in a history of birds each of these demands peculiar distinction. The crane, the stork, the Balearic crane, the heron, the bittern, with some others, may require a separate history. Some particular tribes may next offer that may very naturally be classed together; and as for all the smaller and least remarkable sorts they may be grouped into one general description.

CHAP. II.

THE CRANE.

There is something extraordinary in the different accounts we have of this bird's size and dimensions. Willoughby and Pennant make the crane from five to six feet long from the tip to the tail. Other accounts say that it is above five feet high; and others, that it is as tall as a man. From the many which I myself had seen I own this imputed magnitude surprised me, as from memory I was convinced they could neither be so long nor so tall. Indeed, a bird, the body of which is not larger than that of a turkey-hen, and acknowledged on all hands not to weigh above ten pounds, cannot easily be supposed to be almost as long as an ostrich. Brisson, however, seems to give this bird its real dimensions, when he describes it as something less than the brown stork, about three feet high, and about four from the tip to the tail. Still, however, the numerous testimonies of its superior size are not to be totally rejected; and perhaps that from which Brisson took his dimensions was one of the smallest of the kind.

The crane, taking its dimensions from him, is exactly three feet four inches from the tip to the tail, and four feet from the head to the toe. It is a tall slender bird, with a long neck and long legs. The top of the head is covered with black bristles, and the back of it is bald and red, which sufficiently distinguishes this bird from the stork, to which it is very nearly allied in size and figure. The plumage in general is ash-coloured; and there are two large tufts of feathers that spring from the pinion of each wing. These bear a resemblance to hair, and are finely curled at the ends, which the bird has a power of erecting and depressing at pleasure. Gesner says that these feathers in his time used to be set in gold, and worn as ornaments in caps.

Such are the dimensions of a bird concerning which, not to mention modern times, there have been more fables propagated than of any other. It is a bird with which all the ancient writers are familiar, and in describing it they have not failed to mix imagination with history. From the policy of the cranes, they say, we are to look for an idea of the most perfect republic amongst ourselves; from their tenderness to their decrepid parents—which they take care to nourish, to cherish, and support when flying—we are to learn lessons of filial piety; but particularly from their conduct in fighting with the pignons of Ethiopia we are to receive our maxims in the art of war. In early times the history of Nature fell to the lot of poets only—and certainly none could describe it so well, but it is a part of their province to embellish also; and when this agreeable science was claimed by a more sober class of people, they were obliged to take the accounts of things as they found them; and, in the present instance, fable ran down blended with truth to posterity.

In these accounts, therefore, there is some foundation of truth; yet much more has been added by fancy. The crane is certainly a very social bird, and they are seldom seen alone. Their usual method of flying or sitting is

in flocks of fifty or sixty together; and while a part feed the rest stand like sentinels upon duty. The fable of their supporting their aged parents may have arisen from their strict connubial affection; and as for their fighting with the pignies, it may not be improbable but that they have boldly withstood the invasions of monkeys coming to rob their nests; for in this case, as the crane lives upon vegetables, it is not probable that it would be the first aggressor.

However this be, the crane is a wandering, sociable bird, that for the most part subsists upon vegetables, and is known in every country of Europe except our own. There is no part of the world, says Belonius, where the fields are cultivated that the crane does not come in with the husbandman for a share in the harvest. As they are birds of passage, they are seen to depart and return regularly at those seasons when their provision invites or repels them. They generally leave Europe about the latter end of autumn, and return in the beginning of summer. In the inland parts of the continent they are seen crossing the country in flocks of fifty or a hundred, making from the northern regions towards the south. In these migrations, however, they are not so resolutely bent upon going forward, but that if a field of corn offers in their way they will stop awhile to regale upon it; on such occasions they do incredible damage, chiefly in the night; and the husbandman, who lay down in joyful expectation, rises in the morning to see his fields laid entirely waste, by an enemy whose march is too swift for his vengeance to overtake.

Our own country is free from their visits—not but that they were formerly known in this island, and held in great estimation for the delicacy of their flesh; there was even a penalty upon such as destroyed their eggs; but at present they never go so far out of their way. Cultivation and populousness go hand in hand: and though our fields may offer them a greater plenty, yet they are so guarded that the birds find the venture greater than the enjoyment; and probably we are much better off by their absence than their company. Whatever their flesh might once have been—when, as Plutarch tells us, cranes were blinded and kept in coops to be fattened for the tables of the great in Rome, or as they were brought up stuffed with mint and rue for the tables of our nobles at home—at present they are considered all over Europe as wretched eating. The flesh is fibrous and dry, requiring much preparation to make it palatable; and even after every art, it is fit only for the stomachs of strong and labouring people.

The cold arctic region seems to be this bird's favourite abode. They come down into the more southern parts of Europe rather as visitants than inhabitants; yet it is not well known in what manner they portion out their time to the different parts of the world. The migrations of the fieldfare or thrush are obvious and well known; they go northward or southward in one simple track; when their food fails them here they have but one region to go to. But it is otherwise with the crane; he changes place like a wanderer: he spends the autumn in Europe; he then flies off, probably to some more southern climate, to enjoy a part of the winter—returns to Europe in the spring—crosses up to the north in summer—visits those lakes that are never dry, and then comes down again to make depredations upon our cultivated grounds in autumn. Thus, Gesner assures us, the cranes usually begin to quit Germany from about the eleventh of September to the seventeenth of October; from thence they are seen flying southward by thousands; and Redi tells us they arrive in Tuscany a short time after. There they tear up the newly-sown fields for the grain just committed to the ground, and do great mischief. It is to be supposed that in the severity of winter they go southward, still nearer the line. They again appear in the fields of Pisa regularly about the twentieth of February, to anticipate the spring.

In these journeys it is amazing to conceive the height to which they ascend when they fly. Their note is the loudest of all other birds; and it is often heard in the clouds when the bird itself is entirely unseen. As it is light for its size, and spreads a large expanse of wing, it is capable of floating at the greatest height where the air is lightest; and as it secures its safety and is entirely out of the reach of man, it flies in tracts which would be too fatiguing for any other birds to move forward in.

In these aerial journeys, though unseen themselves, they have the distinctest vision of every object below. They govern and direct their flight by their cries, and exhort each other to proceed or to descend when a fit opportunity offers for depredation. Their voice, it has been observed, is the loudest of all the feathered tribe; and its peculiar clangour arises from the very extraordinary length and contortion of the windpipe. In quadrupeds the windpipe is short, and the glottis or cartilages that form the voice are at the end of it which is next the mouth; in water-fowl the windpipe is longer, but the cartilages that form the voice are at the other end, which lies down in their belly. By this means they have much louder voices in proportion to their size than any other animals whatever; for the note, when formed below, is reverberated through all the rings of the windpipe, till it reaches the air. But the voice of the duck or the goose is nothing to be compared to that of the crane, whose windpipe is not only made in the same manner with theirs, but is above twenty times as long. Nature seems to have bestowed much pains in lengthening out this organ. From the outside it enters through the flesh into the breast-bone, which has a great cavity within to receive it. There being thrice reflected, it goes out again at the same hole, and so turns down to the lungs, and thus enters the body a second time. The loud clangorous sound which the bird is thus enabled to produce is almost deafening when near it; however, it is particularly serviceable to the animal itself, either during its migration or its stay; by it the flock are encouraged in their journeys; and if while they are feeding, which is usually performed in profound silence, they are invaded on any side, the bird that first perceives the danger is sure to sound the alarm, and all are speedily upon the wing.

As they rise but heavily they are very shy birds, and seldom let the fowler approach them. Their depredations are usually made in the darkest nights, at which time they will enter a corn-field, and trample it down as if it had been crossed over by a regiment of soldiers. On other occasions they choose some extensive solitary marsh, where they range themselves all day as if they were in deliberation, and, not having that grain which is most to their appetites, wade the marshes for insects and other food which they can procure with less danger.

Corn is their favourite food; but there is scarce any other that comes amiss to them. Redi, who opened several, found the stomach of one full of the herb called "dandelion;" that of another was filled with beans; a third had a great quantity of clover in its stomach; while those of two others were filled with earth-worms and beetles: in some he found lizards and sea-fish; in others snails, grass, and pebbles, swallowed, perhaps, for medicinal purposes. It seems, therefore, that these birds are easily supplied, and that they are only noxious to corn-fields on some particular occasions.

In general it is a peaceful bird, both in its own society and with respect to those of the forest. Though so large in appearance a falcon pursues and often disables it. The method is with those who are fond of hawking to fly several hawks together against it, which the crane endeavours to avoid by flying up perpendicularly till the air becomes too thin to support it any higher. The hawk, however, still bears it company; and though less fitted for floating in so thin a medium, yet possessed of

greater rapidity, it still gains the ascendancy. They both often rise out of sight; but soon the spectator, who keeps his eye fixed above, perceives them, like two specks, beginning to appear: they gather on his eye for a little space, and shortly after come tumbling perpendicularly together with great animosity on the side of the hawk, and a loud screaming on that of the crane. Thus driven to extremity, and unable to fly, the poor animal throws itself upon its back, and, in that situation, makes a most desperate defence, till the sportsman coming up generally puts an end to the contest with its life.

It was once the barbarous custom to breed up cranes to be thus baited; and young ones were taken from the nest to be trained up for this cruel diversion. It is an animal easily tamed, and (if we can believe Albertus Magnus) has a particular affection for man. This quality, however, was not sufficient to guard it from being made the victim of his fierce amusements. The female, which is easily distinguished from the male by not being bald behind as he is, never lays above two eggs at a time—being like those of a goose, but of a blueish colour. The young ones are soon fit to fly, and then the parents forsake them to shift for themselves; but before this time they are led forth to the places where their food is most easily found. Though yet unfledged, they run with such swiftness that a man cannot easily overtake them. We are told that as they grow old their plumage becomes darker; and, as a proof of their longevity, Aldrovandus assures us that a friend of his kept one tame for above forty years.

Whatever may have been the disposition of the great, the vulgar of every country to this day bear the crane a compassionate regard. It is possible the ancient prejudices in its favour, which once having been planted are eradicated but slowly, may still continue to operate. In some countries it is considered as a heinous offence to kill a crane; and though the legislature declines to punish, yet the people do not fail to resent the injury. The crane they consider in some measure as the prophet of the season; upon its approach or delay they regulate the periods of their rural economy. If their favourite bird comes early in the season they expect a plentiful summer; if he is slow in his visits they then prepare for an unfavourable spring. Whatever wisdom there may be in despising the prejudices of the vulgar, there is but little in condemning them. They have generally their origin in good motives; and it should never be our endeavours to suppress any tender emotions of friendship or pity in those hard breasts that are in general unsusceptible of either.

CHAP. III.

THE STORK.

If we regard the stork externally only, we shall be very apt to confound it with the crane. It is of the same size; it has the same formation as to the bill, neck, legs, and body, except that it is something more corpulent. Its differences are but very slight—such as the colour, which in the crane is ash and black, but in the stork is white and brown. The nails of the toes of the stork are also very peculiar—not being clawed like those of other birds, but flat like the nails of man.

These, however, are but very slight differences; and its true distinctions are to be taken rather from its manners than its form. The crane has a loud piercing voice—the stork is silent, and produces no other noise than the clacking of its under chap against the upper; the crane has a strange convulsion of the wind-pipe through the breast-bone—the stork's is formed in the usual manner; the crane feeds mostly upon vegetables and

grain—the stork preys entirely upon frogs, fishes, birds, and serpents; the crane avoids towns and populous places—the stork lives always in or near them; the crane lays but two eggs—the stork generally lays four. These are distinctions fully sufficient to mark the species, notwithstanding the similitude of their form.

Storks are birds of passage, like the former; but it is hard to say whence they come or whither they go. When they withdraw from Europe they all assemble on a particular day, and never leave one of their company behind them. They take their flight in the night, which is the reason the way they go has never been observed. They generally return into Europe in the middle of March, and make their nests on the tops of chimneys and houses, as well as of high trees. The females lay from two to four eggs, of the size and colour of those of geese; and the male and female sit upon them by turns. They are a month in hatching: and when their young are excluded they are particularly solicitous for their safety.

As the food of these birds consists in a great measure of frogs and serpents, it is not to be wondered at that different nations have paid them a particular veneration. The Dutch are very solicitous for the preservation of the stork in every part of the republic. This bird seems to have taken refuge among their towns, and builds on the tops of their houses without any molestation. There it is seen resting familiarly in the streets, and protected as well by the laws as by the prejudices of the people. They have even got an opinion that it will only live in a republic; and that story of its filial piety, first falsely propagated of the crane, has in part been ascribed to the stork. But it is not in republics alone that the stork is seen to reside, as there are few towns on the continent in low marshy situations but have the stork as an inmate among them, as well the despotic princes of Germany as the little republics of Italy.

The stork seems a general favourite even among the moderns; but with the ancient Egyptians their regard was carried even to adoration. This enlightened people, who worshiped the Deity in His creatures, paid divine honours to the ibis, as is universally known. It has been usually supposed that the ancient ibis is the same with that which goes at present by the same name—a bird of the stork kind, of about the size of a curlew, all over black, with a bill very thick in the beginning, but ending in a point for the better seizing its prey, which is caterpillars, locusts, and serpents. But however useful the modern ibis may be in ridding Egypt (where it resides) of the vermin and venomous animals that infest it, yet it is much doubted whether this be the same ibis to which the ancients paid their adoration. Maillet, the French consul at Cairo, observes that it is very hard to determine what bird the ancient ibis certainly was, because there are cranes, storks, hawks, kites, and falcons that are all equally enemies to serpents, and devour a vast number. He farther adds, that in the month of May, when the winds begin to blow from the internal parts of Africa, there are several sorts of birds that come down from Upper Egypt, from whence they are driven by the rains, in search of a better habitation, and that it is then they do this country such signal services. Nor does the figure of this bird hieroglyphically represented on their pillars mark it sufficiently to make the distinction. Besides, the modern ibis is not peculiar to Egypt, as it is to be seen but at certain seasons of the year; whereas we are informed by Pliny that this bird was seen nowhere else. It is thought, therefore, that the true ibis is a bird of the vulture kind, previously described, and called by some the "capon of Pharaoh," which not only is a devourer of serpents, but will follow the caravans that go to Mecca to feed upon the offal of the animals that are killed on the journey.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE BALEARIC, AND OTHER FOREIGN CRANES.

Having ended the last chapter with doubts concerning the ibis, we shall begin this with doubts concerning the Balearic crane. Pliny has described a bird of the crane kind with a topping resembling that of the green woodpecker. This bird for a long time continued unknown, till we became acquainted with birds of tropical climates, when one of the crane kind with a topping was brought into Europe, and described by Aldrovandus as Pliny's Balearic crane. Hence these birds, which have since been brought from Africa and the East in numbers, have received the name of Balearic cranes, but without any just foundation. The real Balearic crane of Pliny seems to be the lesser ash-coloured heron, with a topping of narrow white feathers, or perhaps the egret, with two long feathers that fall back from the sides of the head. The bird that we are about to describe under the name of the Balearic crane was unknown to the ancients; and the heron or the egret ought to be reinstated in their just title to that name.

When we see a very extraordinary animal, we are naturally led to suppose that there must be something also remarkable in its history to correspond with the singularity of its figure. But it often happens that history fails on those occasions where we most desire information. In the present instance, in particular, no bird presents to the eye a more whimsical figure than this, which we must be content to call the "Balearic crane." It is pretty nearly of the shape and size of the ordinary crane, with long legs and a long neck like others of the kind; but the bill is shorter, and the colour of the feathers of a dark greenish grey. The head and throat form the most striking part of this bird's figure. On the head is seen standing up a thick round crest, made of bristles, spreading every way, and resembling rays standing out in different directions. The longest of these rays are about three inches and a half; and they are all topped with a kind of black tassel, which gives them a beautiful appearance. The sides of the head and cheeks are bare, whitish, and edged with red, while underneath the throat hangs a kind of bag or wattle, like that of a cock, but not divided into two. To give this odd composition a higher finishing, the eye is large and staring, the pupil black and big, surrounded with a gold-coloured iris, which completes the bird's singular appearance.

From such a peculiar figure we might be led to wish for a minute history of its manners: but of these we can give but slight information. This bird comes from the coast of Africa and the Cape de Verde Islands. As it runs it stretches out its wings and goes very swiftly, otherwise its usual motion is very slow. In their domestic state they walk very deliberately among other poultry, and suffer themselves to be approached (at least it was so with the one I saw) by every spectator. They never roost in houses excepting at night: when they are disposed to go to rest they search out some high wall, on which they perch in the manner of a peacock. Indeed, they so much resemble that bird in manners and disposition, that some have described them by the name of the "sea-peacock;" and Ray has been inclined to rank them in the same family. But though their voice and roosting be similar, their food, which is entirely upon greens, vegetables, and barley, seems to make some difference.

In this chapter of foreign birds of the crane kind it will be proper to mention the jabiru and the jabiru guacu, both natives of Brazil. Of these great birds of the crane kind we know but little, except the general outline of their figure, and the enormous bills which we often see preserved in the cabinets of the curious. The bill of the latter is red, and thirteen inches long; the

bill of the former is black, and is found to be eleven inches long. Neither of them, however, are of a size proportioned to their immoderate length of bill. The jabiru guacu is not above the size of a common stork, while the jabiru with the smallest bill exceeds the size of a swan. They are both covered with white feathers, except the head and neck, which are naked: and their principal difference is in the size of the body and the make of the bill—the lower chap of the jabiru guacu being broad, and bending upwards.

A bird still more extraordinary may be added to this class, called the "anhima," and, like the two former, a native of Brazil. This is a water-fowl of the rapacious kind, and bigger than a swan. The head, which is small for the size of the body, bears a black bill, and is not above two inches; but what distinguishes it in particular is a horn growing from the forehead as long as the bill, and bending forward like that of the fabulous unicorn of the ancients. This horn is not much thicker than a crow-quill, as round as if it were turned in a lathe, and of an ivory colour. But this is not the only instrument of battle this formidable bird carries; it seems to be armed at all points; for at the fore-part of each wing, at the second joint, spring up two straight triangular spurs, about as thick as one's little finger: the foremost of these goads or spurs is above an inch long; the hinder is shorter, and both are of a dusky colour. The claws, also, are long and sharp; the colour is black and white; and they cry terribly loud, sounding something like "Vyhoo! vyhoo!" They are never found alone, but always in pairs; the cock and hen prowl together; and their fidelity is said to be such, that when one dies the other never departs from the carcase, but dies with its companion. It makes its nest of clay, near the bodies of trees upon the ground, of the shape of an oven.

One bird more may be subjoined to this class, not for the oddity of its figure, but the peculiarity of its manners. It is vulgarly called by our sailors the "buffoon-bird," and by the French the "demoiselle," or "lady." The same qualities have procured it these different appellations from two nations, who, on more occasions than this, look upon the same objects in very different lights. The peculiar gestures and contortions of this bird, the proper name of which is the "Numidian crane," are extremely singular; and the French, who are skilled in the arts of elegant gesticulation, consider all its motions as lady-like and graceful. Our English sailors, however, who have not entered so deeply into the dancing art, think that while thus in motion the bird cuts but a very ridiculous figure. It stoops, rises, lifts one wing, then another, turns round, falls forward, then back again; all which highly divert our seamen—not imagining, perhaps, that all these contortions are but the awkward expression, not of the poor animal's pleasures, but its fears.

It is a very scarce bird; the plumage is of a leaden-grey; but it is distinguished by five white feathers, consisting of long fibres, which fall from the back of the head, about four inches long; while the fore-part of the neck is adorned with black feathers, composed of very fine soft and long fibres, which hang down upon the stomach, and give the bird a very graceful appearance. The ancients have described a buffoon-bird, but there are many reasons to believe that theirs is not the Numidian crane. It comes from that country from whence it has taken its name.

CHAP. V.

OF THE HERON AND ITS VARIETIES.

Birds of the crane, the stork, and the heron kind bear a strong affinity to each other; and their differences are

not easily discernible. As for the crane and the stork, they differ rather in their nature and internal conformation than in their external figure; but still they may be known asunder, as well by their colour as by the stork's claws, which are very peculiar, and more resembling a man's nails than the claws of a bird. The heron may be distinguished from both, as well by its size, which is much less, as by its bill, which in proportion is much longer; but particularly by the middle claw on each foot, which is toothed like a saw, for the better seizing and holding its slippery prey. Should other marks fail, however, there is an anatomical distinction, in which herons differ from all other birds—which is, that they have but one fœcum, and all other birds have two.

Of this tribe Brisson has enumerated not less than forty-seven sorts, all differing in their size, figure, and plumage, and with talents adapted to their place of residence or their peculiar pursuits. But how various soever the heron kind may be in their colours or their bills, they all seem possessed of the same manners, and have but one character for cowardice, rapacity, indolence, and insatiable hunger. Other birds are found to grow fat by an abundant supply of food; but these, though excessively destructive and voracious, are ever found to have lean and carrion bodies, as if not even plenty were sufficient for their support.

The common heron is remarkably light in proportion to its bulk, scarce weighing three pounds and a half; yet it expands a breadth of wing which is five feet from tip to tip. Its bill is very long, being five inches from the point to the base; its claws are long, sharp, and the middlemost toothed like a saw. Yet, thus armed as it appears for war, it is indolent and cowardly, and even flies at the approach of the sparrow-hawk. It was once the amusement of the great to pursue this timorous creature with the falcon; and heron-hawking was so favourite a diversion among our ancestors, that laws were enacted for the preservation of the species, and the person who destroyed their eggs was liable to a penalty of twenty shillings for each offence.

At present, however, the defects of the ill-judged policy of our ancestors is felt by their posterity; for as the amusement of hawking has given place to the more useful method of stocking fish-ponds, the heron is now become a most formidable enemy. Of all other birds this commits the greatest devastation in fresh waters; and there is scarce a fish, though never so large, that he will not strike at and wound, though unable to carry it away. But the smaller fry are his chief subsistence; these, pursued by their larger fellows of the deep, are obliged to take refuge in shallow waters, where they find the heron a still more formidable enemy. His method is to wade as far as he can into the water, and there patiently wait the approach of his prey, which, when it comes within sight, he darts upon with unerring aim. In this manner he is found to destroy more in a week than an otter in three months. "I have seen a heron," says Willoughby, "that had been shot, that had seventeen carps in his belly at once, which he will digest in six or seven hours, and then to fishing again. I have seen a carp," he continues, "taken out of a heron's belly nine inches and a half long. Several gentlemen who kept tame herons, to try what quantity one of them would eat in a day, put several smaller roach and dace in a tub, of which they found him eat fifty in a day one day with another. In this manner a single heron will destroy fifteen thousand carp in half a year."

Such are the great digestive powers of this fresh-water tyrant, and such his destructive propensities to those who stock ponds with fish. In general he is seen taking his gloomy stand by the lake-side, as if meditating mischief, motionless and gorged with plunder. His usual attitude on this occasion is to sink his long neck between his shoulders and keep his head turned on one side, as if eyeing the pool more intently. When the call of hum-



ger returns, the toil of an hour or two is generally sufficient to fill his capacious stomach; and he retires long before night to his retreat in the woods. Early in the morning, however, he is again seen assiduous at his usual occupation.

But though in fine weather the heron can always find a plentiful supply, in cold or stormy seasons his prey is no longer within reach; the fish that before came into the shallow water now keep in the deep, as they find it to be the warmest situation. Frogs and lizards also seldom venture from their lurking places; and the heron is obliged to support himself upon his long habits of patience, and even to take up with the weeds that grow upon the water. At those times he contracts a consumptive disposition, which succeeding plenty is not able to remove; so that the meagre glutton spends his time between want and riot, and feels alternately the extremes of famine and excess. Hence, notwithstanding the care with which he takes his prey, and the amazing quantity he devours, the heron is always lean and emaciated; and though his crop is usually found full, yet his flesh is scarce sufficient to cover the bones.

The heron usually takes his prey by wading into the water; yet it must not be supposed that it does not also take it upon the wing. In fact, much of its fishing is performed in this manner; but he never hovers over deep waters, as there his prey is enabled to escape him by sinking to the bottom. In shallow places he darts with more certainty; for though the fish at sight of its enemy instantly descends, yet the heron, with his long bill and legs, instantly pins it to the bottom, and thus seizes it securely. In this manner, after having been seen with his long neck for above a minute under water, he rises upon the wing with a trout or an eel struggling in his bill to get free. The greedy bird, however, flies to the shore, scarce gives it time to expire, but swallows it whole, and then returns to fishing as before.

As this bird does incredible mischief to ponds newly stocked, Willoughby has given a receipt for taking them:—"Having found his haunt, get three or four small roach or dace, and having provided a strong hook with a wire to it, this is drawn just within-side the skin of the fish, beginning without-side the gills, and running it to the tail, by which the fish will not be killed, but continue for five or six days alive. Then having a strong line made of silk and wire, about two yards and a half long, it is tied to a stone at one end, the fish with the hook being suffered to swim about at the other. This being properly disposed in shallow water, the heron will seize upon the fish to its own destruction. From this method we may learn that the fish must be alive, otherwise the heron will not touch them, and that this bird, as well as all those that feed upon fish, must be its own eater; for they will not prey upon such as die naturally, or are killed by others before them."

Though this bird lives chiefly among pools and marshes, yet its nest is built on the tops of the highest trees, and sometimes on cliffs hanging over the sea. They are never in flocks when they fish, committing their depredations in solitude and silence; but in making their nests they love each other's society; and they are seen, like rooks, building in company with flocks of their kind. Their nests are made of sticks, and lined with wool; and the female lays four large eggs of a pale-green colour. The observable indolence of their nature, however, is not less seen in their nestling than in their habits of depredation. Nothing is more certain, and I have seen it a hundred times, than that they will not be at the trouble of building a nest when they can get one made by the rook or deserted by the owl already provided for them. This they usually enlarge and line within, driving off the original possessors, should they happen to renew their fruitless claims.

The French seem to have availed themselves of the indolence of this bird in making its nest; and they

actually provide a place with materials fitted for their nestling, which they call "heronries." The heron, which with us is totally unfit for the table, is more sought for in France, where the flesh of the young ones is in particular estimation. To obtain this the natives raise up high sheds along some fishy stream, and, furnishing them with materials for the herons to nestle with, these birds build and breed there in great abundance. As soon as the young ones are supposed to be fit the owner of the heronry comes, as we do into a pigeon-house, and carries off such as are proper for eating; and these are sold for a good price to the neighbouring gentry. "These are a delicacy which," as my author says, "the French are very fond of, but which strangers have not yet been taught to relish as they ought." Nevertheless, it was formerly much esteemed as food in England, and made a favourite dish at great tables. It was then said that the flesh of a heron was a dish for a king; at present nothing about the house will touch it but a cat.

With us, therefore, as the heron, both old and young, is thought detestable eating, we seldom trouble these animals in their heights, which are for the most part sufficiently inaccessible. Their nests are often found in great numbers in the middle of large forests, and in some groves nearer home, where the owners have a predilection for the bird, and do not choose to drive it from its habitations. It is certain that by their cries, their expansive wings, their bulk and wavy motion, they add no small solemnity to the forest, and give a pleasing variety to a finished improvement.

When the young are excluded, as they are numerous, voracious, and importunate, the old ones are for ever upon the wing to provide them abundance. The quantity of fish they take upon this occasion is amazing, and their size is not less wonderful. I remember a heron's nest that was built near a school-house; the boys, with their usual appetite for mischief, climbed up, took down the young ones, sewed up the vent, and laid them in the nest as before. The pain the poor little animals felt from the operation increased their cries; and this but served to increase the diligence of the old ones in enlarging their supply. Thus they heaped the nest with various sorts of fish, and the best of their kind; and as their young screamed they flew off for more. The boys gathered up the fish, which the young ones were incapable of eating, till the old ones at last quitted their nest, and gave up their brood, whose appetites they found it impossible to satisfy.

The heron is said to be a very long-lived bird; by Mr. Keyser's account it may exceed sixty years; and by a recent instance of one that was taken in Holland by a hawk belonging to the stadtholder, its longevity is again confirmed, the bird, having a silver plate fastened to one leg, with an inscription, importing that it had been struck by the Elector of Cologne's hawks thirty-five years before.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE BITTERN, OR MIRE-DRUM.

Those who have walked in an evening by the sedgy sides of unfrequented rivers must remember a variety of notes from different water-fowl—the loud scream of the wild-geese, the croaking of the mallard, the whining of the lapwing, and the tremulous neighing of the jack-snipe. But of all these sounds there is none so dismally hollow as the booming of the bittern. It is impossible for words to give those who have not heard this evening-call an adequate idea of its solemnity. It is like the interrupted bellowing of a bull, but hollower and louder, and is heard at a mile's distance, as if

issuing from some formidable being that resided at the bottom of the waters.

The bird, however, that produces this terrifying found is not so big as a heron, with a weaker bill, and not above four inches long. It differs from the heron chiefly in its colour, which is in general of a palish yellow, spotted and barred with black. Its wind-pipe is fitted to produce the sound for which it is remarkable; the lower part of it dividing into the lungs is supplied with a thin loose membrane, that can be filled with a large body of air and exploded at pleasure. These bellowing explosions are chiefly heard from the beginning of spring to the end of autumn; and, however awful they may seem to us, are the calls to courtship or of connubial felicity.

From the loudness and solemnity of the note, many have been led to suppose that the bird made use of external instruments to produce it, and that so small a body could never eject such a quantity of tone. The common people are of opinion that it thrusts its bill into a reed that serves as a pipe for swelling the note above its natural pitch; while others, and in this number we find Thomson, the poet, imagine that the bittern puts its head under water, and then violently blowing produces its boomings. The fact is, that the bird is sufficiently provided by Nature for this call; and it is often heard where there are neither reeds nor waters to assist its sonorous invitations.

It hides in the sedges by day, and begins its call in the evening, booming six or eight times, and then discontinuing for ten or twenty minutes to resume the same sound. This is a call it never gives but when undisturbed and at liberty. When its retreats among the sedges are invaded, when it dreads or expects the approach of an enemy, it is then perfectly silent. This call it has never been heard to utter when taken or brought up in domestic captivity; it continues under the control of man a mute, forlorn bird, equally incapable of attachment or instruction. But though its boomings are always performed in solitude, it has a scream which is generally heard upon the seizing its prey, and which is sometimes extorted by fear.

This bird, though of the heron kind, is yet neither so destructive nor so voracious. It is a retired, timorous animal, concealing itself in the midst of reeds and marshy places, and living upon frogs, insects, and vegetables; and though so nearly resembling the heron in figure, yet differing much in manners and appetites. As the heron builds on the tops of the highest trees, the bittern lays its nest in a sedge margin, or amidst a tuft of rushes. The heron builds with sticks and wool—the bittern composes its simpler habitation of sedges, the leaves of water-plants, and dry rushes; the heron lays four eggs—the bittern generally seven or eight, of an ash-green colour; the heron feeds its young for many days—the bittern in three days leads its little ones to their food. In short, the heron is lean and cadaverous, subsisting chiefly upon animal food—the bittern is plump and fleshy, as it feeds upon vegetables when more nourishing food is wanting.

It cannot be, therefore, from its voracious appetites, but its hollow boom that the bittern is held in such detestation by the vulgar. I remember, in the place where I was a boy, with what terror this bird's note affected the whole village; they considered it as the presage of some sad event, and generally found or made one to succeed it. I do not speak ludicrously, but if any person in the neighbourhood died they supposed it could not be otherwise, for the night-raven had foretold it; but if nobody happened to die, the death of a cow or a sheep gave completion to the story.

Whatever terror it may inspire among the simple, its flesh is greatly in esteem among the luxurious. For this reason it is as eagerly sought after by the fowler as it is shunned by the peasant; and, as it is a heavy-raising, slow-winged bird, it does not often escape him.

Indeed, it seldom rises but when almost trod upon, and seems to seek protection rather from concealment than flight. At the latter end of autumn, however, in the evening, its wonted indolence appears to forsake it. It is then seen rising in a spiral ascent, till it is quite lost from the view, making at the same time a singular noise very different from its former boomings. Thus the same animal is often seen to assume different desires; and while the Latins have given the bittern the name of the star-reaching bird (or the "stellaris"), the Greeks, taking its character from its more constant habits, have given it the title of "the lazy."

CHAP. VII.

OF THE SPOONBILL, OR SHOVELLER.

As we proceed in our description of the crane kind, birds of peculiar forms offer not entirely like the crane, and yet not so far different as to rank more properly with any other class. Where the long neck and stilt-like legs of the crane are found, they make too striking a resemblance not to admit such birds of the number; and though the bill, or even the toes, should entirely differ, yet the outlines of the figure and the natural habits and dispositions being the same, these are sufficient to mark their place in the general group of Nature.

The spoonbill is one of those birds which differs a good deal from the crane, yet approaches this class more than any other. The body is more bulky for its height, and the bill is very differently formed from that of any other bird whatever. Yet still it is a comparatively tall bird; it feeds among waters, its toes are divided, and it seems to possess the natural disposition of the crane. The European spoonbill is of about the bulk of a crane; but as the one is above four feet high, the other is not more than three feet three inches. The common colour of those of Europe is a dirty white: but those of America are of a beautiful rose-colour or a delightful crimson. Beauty of plumage seems to be the prerogative of all the birds of that continent; and we here see the most splendid tints bestowed on a bird whose figure is sufficient to destroy the effects of its colouring; for its bill is so oddly fashioned and its eyes so stupidly staring, that its fine feathers only tend to add splendour to deformity. The bill, which in this bird is so very particular, is about seven inches long, and runs out broad at the end, as its name justly serves to denote: it is there about an inch and a half wide. This strangely-fashioned instrument in some is black, in others of a light grey; and in those of America it is of a red colour, like the rest of the body. All round the upper chap there runs a kind of rim, with which it covers that beneath; and as for the rest, its cheeks and its throat are without feathers, and covered with a black skin.

A bird so oddly fashioned might be expected to possess some very peculiar appetites; but the spoonbill seems to lead a life entirely resembling all those of the crane kind; and Nature, when she made the bill of this bird so very broad, seems rather to have sported with its form than to aim at any final cause for which to adapt it. In fact, it is but a poor philosophy to ascribe every capricious variety in Nature to some salutary purpose; in such solutions we only impose upon each other, and often willfully contradict our own belief. There must be imperfections in every being as well as capacities of enjoyment. Between both the animal leads a life of moderate felicity—in part making use of its many natural advantages, and in part necessarily conforming to the imperfections of its figure.

The shoveler chiefly feeds upon frogs, toads, and serpents; of which, particularly at the Cape of Good Hope,

they destroy great numbers. The inhabitants of that country hold them in as much esteem as the ancient Egyptians did their bird ibis. The shoveler runs tamely about their houses; and they are content with its society as an useful though a homely companion. They are never killed; and indeed they are good for nothing when they are dead, for the flesh is unfit to be eaten.

This bird breeds in Europe, in company with the heron, in high trees, and in a nest formed of the same materials. Willoughby tells us that in a certain grove, at a village called Seven Huys, near Leyden, they build and breed yearly in great numbers. In this grove, also, the heron, the bittern, the cormorant, and the shag have taken up their residence, and annually bring forth their young together. Here the crane kind seem to have formed their general rendezvous; and, as the inhabitants say, every sort of bird has its several quarter, where none but their own tribe are permitted to reside. Of this grove the peasants of the country make good profit. When the young ones are ripe, those that farm the grove, with a hook at the end of a long pole, catch hold of the bough on which the nest is built and shake out the young ones; but sometimes the nest and all tumble down together.

The shoveler lays from three to five eggs, white and powdered with a few sanguine or pale spots. We sometimes see in the cabinets of the curious the bills of American shovelers twice as big and as long as those of the common kind among us; but these birds have not yet made their way into Europe.

CHAP. VIII.

THE FLAMINGO.

The flamingo has the justest right to be placed among cranes; and though it happens to be web-footed, like birds of the goose kind, yet its height, figure, and appetites entirely remove it from that groveling class of animals. With a longer neck and legs than any other of the crane kind, it seeks its food by wading among waters, and only differs from all of this tribe in the manner of seizing its prey; for as the heron makes use of its claws the flamingo uses only its bill, which is strong and thick for the purpose, the claws being useless, as they are feeble, and webbed like those of water-fowl.

The flamingo is the most remarkable of all the crane kind—the tallest, the bulkiest, and the most beautiful. The body, which is of a beautiful scarlet, is no bigger than that of a swan; but its legs and neck are of such an extraordinary length, that when it stands erect it is six feet six inches high. Its wings extended are five feet six inches from tip to tip; and it is four feet eight inches from tip to tail. The head is round and small, with a large bill seven inches long, partly red, partly black, and crooked like a bow. The legs and thighs, which are not much thicker than a man's finger, are about two feet eight inches high, and its neck near three feet long. The feet are not furnished with sharp claws, as in others of the crane kind, but are feeble and united by membranes as those of the goose. Of what use these membranes are does not appear, as the bird is never seen to swim, its legs and thighs being sufficient for bearing it into those depths where it seeks for prey.

This extraordinary bird is now chiefly found in America, but was once known on all the coasts of Europe. Its beauty, its size, and the peculiar delicacy of its flesh have been such temptations to destroy or take it, that it has long since deserted the shores frequented by man, and taken refuge in countries that are yet but thinly peopled. In those desert regions the flamingoes live in a state of society and under a better polity than any other of the feathered creation.

When the Europeans first came to America, and coasted down along the African shores, they found the flamingoes on several shores on either continent gentle, and no way distrustful of mankind. They had long been used to security in the extensive solitudes they had chosen, and knew no enemies but those they could very well evade or oppose. The Negroes and the native Americans were possessed but of few destructive arts for killing them at a distance; and when the bird perceived the arrow it well knew how to avoid it. But it was otherwise when the Europeans first came among them; the sailors, not considering that the dread of fire-arms was totally unknown in that part of the world, gave the flamingo the character of a foolish bird, that suffered itself to be approached and shot at. When the fowler had killed one the rest of the flock, far from attempting to fly, only regarded the fall of their companion in a kind of fixed astonishment; another and another shot was discharged, and thus the fowler levelled the whole flock before one of them began to think of escaping.

But at present it is very different in that part of the world: and the flamingo is not only one of the scarcest but of the shyest birds, and the most difficult of approach. They chiefly keep near the most deserted and inhospitable shores, near salt water lakes and swampy islands. They come down to the banks of rivers by day, and often retire to the inland mountainous parts of the country at the approach of night. When seen by the mariners in the day, they always appear drawn up in a long close line of two or three hundred together; and, as Dampier tells us, present at the distance of half a mile the exact representation of a brick wall. Their rank, however, is broken when they seek for food; but they always appoint one of the number as a watch, whose only employment is to observe and give notice of danger while the rest are feeding. As soon as this trusty sentinel perceives the remotest appearance of danger he gives a loud scream, with a voice as shrill as a trumpet, and instantly the whole cohort are upon the wing. They feed in silence, but upon this occasion all the flock are in one chorus, and fill the air with intolerable screamings.

From this it appears that the flamingoes are very difficult to be approached at present, and that they avoid mankind with the most cautious timidity; however, it is not from any antipathy to man that they shun his society, for in some villages, we are assured by Labat, along the coast of Africa, the flamingoes come in great numbers to make their residence among the natives. There they assemble by thousands, perched on the trees within and about the village, and are so very clamorous that the sound is heard at near a mile distance. The Negroes are fond of their company, and consider their society as a gift of Heaven as a protection from accidental evils. The French, who are admitted to this part of the coast, cannot without some degree of discontent see such a quantity of game untouched, and rendered useless by the superstition of the natives; they now and then privately shoot some of them when at a convenient distance from the village, and hide them in the long grass if they perceive any of the Negroes approaching—for they would probably stand a chance of being ill treated if the blacks discovered their sacred birds thus unmercifully treated.

Sometimes in their wild state they are shot by mariners; and their young, which run excessively fast, are often taken. Labat has frequently taken them with nets, properly extended round the places they breed in. When their long legs are entangled in the meshes they are then unqualified to make their escape; but they still continue to combat with their destroyer, and the old ones, though seized by the head, will scratch with their claws, and these, though seemingly inoffensive, very often do mischief. When they are fairly disengaged from the net, they nevertheless preserve their natural

ferocity; they refuse all nourishment, and peck and combat with their claws at every opportunity. The fowler is therefore under a necessity of destroying them when taken, as they would only pine and die if left to themselves in captivity. The flesh of the old ones is black and hard, though (Dampier says) well-tasted; that of the young ones is still better. But of all other delicacies the flamingo's tongue is the most celebrated. "A dish of flamingoes' tongues," says our author, "is a feast for an emperor." In fact, the Roman emperors considered them as the highest luxury; and we have an account of one of them who procured fifteen hundred flamingoes' tongues to be served up in a single dish. The tongue of this bird, which is so much sought after, is a good deal larger than that of any other bird whatever. The bill of the flamingo is like a large black box, of an irregular figure, and filled with a tongue which is black and gristly; but what peculiar flavour it may possess I leave to be determined by such as understand good eating better than I do. It is probable that the beauty and scarcity of the bird might be the first inducements to studious gluttony to fix upon its tongue as meat for the table. What Dampier says of the goodness of its flesh cannot so well be relied on; for Dampier was often hungry, and thought anything good that could be eaten: he avers, indeed, with Labat, that the flesh is black, tough, and fishy; so that we can hardly give him credit when he asserts that its flesh can be formed into a luxurious entertainment.

These birds, as was said, always go in flocks together, and they move in ranks in the manner of cranes. They are sometimes seen at break of day flying down in great numbers from the mountains, and conducting each other with a trumpet cry, that sounds like the word "toccoco," from whence the savages of Canada have given them the name. In their flight they appear to great advantage, for they then seem of as bright a red as a burning coal. When they dispose themselves to feed their cry ceases, and then they disperse over a whole marsh in silence and assiduity. Their manner of feeding is very singular: the bird thrusts down its head, so that the upper convex side of the bill shall only touch the ground, and in this position the animal appears as it were standing upon its head. In this manner it paddles and moves the bill about, and seizes whatever fish or insect happens to offer. For this purpose the upper chap is notched at the edges, so as to hold its prey with great security. Catesby, however, gives a different account of their feeding. According to him, they place the upper chap undermost, and so work about, in order to pick up a seed from the bottom of the water that resembles millet; but as in picking up this they necessarily also suck in a great quantity of mud, their bill is toothed at the edges in such a manner as to let out the mud while they swallow the grain.

Their time of breeding is according to the climate in which they reside: in North America they breed in our summer; on the other side the line they take the most favourable season of the year. They build their nests in extensive marshes, and where they are in no danger of a surprise. The nest is not less curious than the animal that builds it: it is raised from the surface of the pool about a foot and a half, formed of mud scraped up together, and hardened by the sun or the heat of the bird's body: it resembles a truncated cone, or one of the pots which we see placed on chimneys; on the top it is hollowed out to the shape of the bird, and in that cavity the female lays her eggs, without any lining but the well-cemented mud that forms the sides of the building. She always lays two eggs, and no more; and, as her legs are immoderately long, she straddles on the nest, while her legs hang down, one on each side, into the water.

The young ones are a long while before they are able to fly; but they run with amazing swiftness. They are

sometimes caught, and (very different from the old ones) suffer themselves to be carried home, when they are easily tamed. In five or six days they become familiar, eat out of the hand, and drink a surprising quantity of sea-water. But though they are easily rendered domestic, they are not reared without the greatest difficulty, as they generally pine away for want of their natural supplies, and die in a short time. While they are yet young their colours are very different from those lively tints they acquire with age. In their first year they are covered with plumage of a white colour mixed with grey; in the second year the whole body is white, with here and there a slight tint of scarlet; and the great covert feathers of the wings are black: the third year the bird acquires all its beauty; the plumage of the whole body is scarlet, except some of the feathers of the wings, that still retain their sable hue. Of these beautiful plumes the savages make various ornaments; and the bird is sometimes skinned by Europeans to make muffs. But these have diminished in their price since we have obtained the art of dying feathers of the brightest scarlet.

CHAP. IX.

OF THE AVOSETTA OR SCROOPER, AND THE CORRIRO OR RUNNER.

The extraordinary shape of the avosetta's bill might incline us to wish for its history; and yet in that we are not able to indulge the reader. Natural historians have hitherto, like ambitious monarchs, shown a greater fondness for extending their dominions than cultivating what they possess. While they have been labouring to add new varieties to their catalogues, they have neglected to study the history of animals already known.

The avosetta is chiefly found in Italy, and now and then comes over into England. It is about the size of a pigeon, is a pretty upright bird, and has extremely long legs for its size. But the most extraordinary part of its figure, and that by which it may be distinguished from all others of the feathered tribe, is the bill, which turns up like a hook, in an opposite direction to that of the hawk or the parrot. This extraordinary bill is black, flat, sharp, and flexible at the end, and about three inches and a half long. From this bird's being bare a long way above the knee, it appears that it lives and wades in the waters. It has a chirping, pert note, as we are told; but with its other habits we are entirely unacquainted. I have placed it, from its slender figure, among the cranes—although it is web-footed, like the duck. It is one of those birds of whose history we are yet in expectation.

To this bird of the crane kind, so little known, I will add another, still less known—the corriro or runner of Aldrovandus. All we are told of it is, that it has the longest legs of all web-footed fowls except the flamingo and avosetta; that the bill is straight, yellow and black at the ends; that the pupils of the eyes are surrounded with two circles, one of which is bay and the other white: below, near the belly, it is whitish; the tail, with two white feathers, black at the extremities: and that the upper part of the body is of the colour of rusty iron. It is thus that we are obliged to substitute dry description for instructive history, and employ words to express those shadings of colour which the pencil alone can convey.



CHAP. X.

OF SMALL BIRDS OF THE CRANE KIND, WITH THE THIGHS
PARTLY BARE OF FEATHERS.

As I have taken my distinctions rather from the general form and manners of birds than from their minuteness though perhaps more precise distinctions, it will not be expected that I should here enter into a particular history of a numerous tribe of birds whose manners and forms are so very much alike. Of many of them we have scarce any account in our historians, but tedious descriptions of their dimensions and the colour of their plumage; and of the rest, the history of one is so much that of all, that it is but the same account repeated to a most disgusting reiteration. I will therefore group them into one general draught, in which the more eminent or the most whimsical will naturally stand forward on the canvas.

In this group we find an extensive tribe of native birds, with their varieties and affinities; and we might add a hundred others, of distant climates, of which we know little more than the colour and the name. In this list is exhibited the curlew—a bird of about the size of a duck, with a bill four inches long; the woodcock, about the size of a pigeon, with a bill three inches long; the godwit, of the same size, the bill four inches; the green-shank, longer legged, the bill two inches and a half; the red-shank, differing in the colour of its feet from the former; the snipe, less by half, with a bill three inches. Then with shorter bills—the ruff, with a collar of feathers round the neck of the male; the knot, the sand-piper, the sanderling, the dunlin, the purre, and the stint. To conclude: with bills very short—the lapwing, the green-plover, the grey-plover, the dottrel, the turnstone, and the sea-lark. These, with their affinities, are properly native visitants of this country; and are dispersed along our shores, rivers, and watery grounds. Taking in the birds of other kinds belonging to other countries, the list would be very widely extended; and the whole of this class, as described by Brisson, amount to near a hundred.

All these birds possess many marks in common; though some have peculiarities that deserve regard. They are all bare of feathers above the knee, or above the heel, as some naturalists choose to express it. In fact, that part which I call the knee, if compared with the legs of mankind, is analogous to the heel: but as it is commonly conceived otherwise, I have conformed to the general apprehension. I say, therefore, that all these birds are bare of feathers above the knee; and in some they are wanting half way up the thigh. The nudity in that part is partly natural, and partly produced by all birds of this kind habitually wading in water. The older the bird the barer are its thighs; yet even the young ones have not the same downy covering reaching so low as the birds of any other class. Such a covering there would rather be prejudicial, as being continually liable to get wet in the water.

As these birds are usually employed rather in running than in flying, and as their food lies entirely upon the ground, and not on the trees or in the air, so they run with great swiftness for their size, and the length of their legs assists their velocity. But as in seeking their food they are often obliged to change their station, so also are they equally swift of wing, and traverse immense tracts of country without much fatigue.

It has been thought by some that a part of this class lived upon an oily slime, found in the bottoms of ditches and weedy pools; they were thence termed by Willoughby "mudsuckers." But later discoveries have shown that in these places they hunt for caterpillars and worms or insects. From hence, therefore, we may generally assert that all birds of this class live upon animals of one kind or another. The long-billed

birds suck up worms and insects from the bottom; those furnished with shorter bills pick up such insects as lie nearer the surface of the meadow, or among the sands on the sea-shore.

Thus the curlew, the woodcock, and the snipe, are ever seen in plashy brakes and under covered hedges, assiduously employed in seeking out insects in their worm state; and it seems from their fatness that they find a plentiful supply. Nature, indeed, has furnished them with very convenient instruments for procuring their food. Their bills are made sufficiently long for searching; but still more they are endowed with an exquisite sensibility at the point for feeling their provision. They are furnished with no less than three pairs of nerves, equal almost to the optic nerves in thickness, which pass from the roof of the mouth and run along the upper chap to the point.

Nor are those birds with shorter bills and destitute of such convenient instruments without a proper provision made for their subsistence. The lapwing, the sand-piper, and the redshank run with surprising rapidity along the surface of the marsh or the sea-shore, quarter their ground with great dexterity, and leave nothing of the insect kind that happens to lie on the surface. These, however, are neither so fat nor so delicate as the former; as they are obliged to toil more for a subsistence, they are easily satisfied with whatever offers; and their flesh often contracts a relish from what is their latest or their principal food.

Most of the birds formerly described have stated seasons for feeding and rest: the eagle kind prowls by day, and at evening repose; the owl by night, and keeps unseen in the day-time. But these birds of the crane kind seem at all hours employed; they are seldom at rest by day; and during the whole night season every meadow and marsh resounds with their different calls to courtship or to food.

This seems to be the time when they least fear interruption from man; and though they fly at all times, yet at this season they appear more assiduously employed, both in providing for their present support and continuing that of posterity. This is usually the season when the insidious fowler steals in upon their occupations, and fills the whole meadow with terror and destruction.

As all of this kind live entirely in waters and among watery places, they seem provided by Nature with a warmth of constitution to fit them for that cold element. They reside by choice in the coldest climates; and as other birds migrate here in our summer, their migrations hither are mostly in the winter. Even those that reside among us the whole season retire in summer to the tops of our bleakest mountains, where they breed and bring down their young when the cold weather sets in.

Most of them, however, migrate, and retire to the polar regions, as those that remain behind in the mountains and keep with us during summer bear no proportion to the quantity which in winter haunt our marshes and low grounds. The snipe sometimes builds here; and the nest of the curlew is sometimes found in the plashes of our hills: but the number of these is very small; and it is most probable that they are only some stragglers who, not having strength or courage sufficient for the general voyage, take up from necessity their habitation here.

In general, during the summer this whole class either choose the coldest countries to retire to, or the coldest and the moistest part of ours to breed in. The curlew, the woodcock, the snipe, the godwit, the grey plover, the green plover, the long-legged plover, the knot, and the turnstone, are rather the guests than the natives of this island. They visit us in the beginning of winter, and forsake us in the spring. They then retire to the mountains of Sweden, Poland, Prussia, and Lapland, to breed. Our country during the summer season becomes

uninhabitable to them. The ground parched up by the heat—the springs dried away—and the vermicular insects already upon the wing, they have no means of subsisting. Their weak and delicately-pointed bills are unfit to dig into a resisting soil; and their prey is departed, though they were able to reach its retreats. Thus, that season when Nature is said to teem with life and to put on her gayest liveries is to them an interval of sterility and famine. The coldest mountains of the north are then a preferable habitation; the marshes there are never totally dried up; and the insects are in abundance, that both above-ground and underneath the country swarms with them. In such retreats, therefore, these birds would continue always, but that the frosts when they set in have the same effect upon the face of the landscape as the heats of summer. Every brook is stiffened into ice—all the earth is congealed into one solid mass; and the birds are obliged to forsake a region where they can no longer find subsistence.

Such are our visitants. With regard to those which keep with us continually, and breed here, they are neither so delicate in their food nor perhaps so warm in their constitutions. The lapwing, the ruff, the redshank, the sandpiper, the sea-pie, the Norfolk plover, and the sea-lark breed in this country, and for the most part reside here. In summer they frequent such marshes as are not dried up in any part of the year—the Essex hundreds and the fens of Lincolnshire. There, in solitudes formed by surrounding marshes, they breed and bring up their young. In winter they come down from their retreats, rendered uninhabitable by the flooding of the waters, and seek their food about our ditches and marshy meadow-grounds. Yet even of this class all are wanderers upon some occasions, and take wing to the northern climates to breed and find subsistence. This happens when our summers are peculiarly dry, and when the fenny countries are not sufficiently watered to defend their retreats.

But though this be the usual course of Nature, with respect to these birds they often break through the general habits of their kind; and as the lapwing, the ruff, and the sandpiper are sometimes seen to alter their manners and to migrate from hence, instead of continuing to breed here, so we often find the woodcock, the snipe, and the curlew reside with us during the whole season, and breed their young in different parts of the country. In Casewood, about two miles from Tunbridge, as Mr. Pennant assures us, some woodcocks are seen to breed annually. The young have been shot there in the beginning of August, and were as healthy and vigorous as they are with us in winter, though not so well tasted. On the Alps and other high mountains, says Willoughby, the woodcock continues all summer; I myself have flushed them on the top of Mount Jura in June and July. The eggs are long, of a pale-red colour, and stained with deeper spots and clouds. The nests of the curlew and the snipe are frequently found; and some of these perhaps never entirely leave this island.

It is thus that the same habits are in some measure common to all; but in nestling and bringing up their young one method takes place universally. As they all run and feed upon the ground, so they are all found to nestle there. The number of eggs generally to be seen in every nest is from two to four, never under, and very seldom exceeding. The nest is made without any art; but the eggs are either laid in some little depression of the earth, or on a few bents and long grass that scarcely preserve them from the moisture below. Yet such is the heat of the body of these birds, that their time of incubation is shorter than with any others of the same size. The magpie, for instance, takes twenty-one days to hatch its young—the lapwing takes but fourteen. Whether the animal oil with which these animals abound gives them this superior warmth I cannot tell; but there is no doubt of their quick incubation.

In their seasons of courtship they pair as other birds, but not without violent contests between the males for the choice of the female. The lapwing and the plover are often seen to fight among themselves; but there is one little bird among the tribe, called the "ruff," that has got the epithet of the "fighter" merely from its great perseverance and animosity on these occasions. In the beginning of spring, when these birds arrive among our marshes, they are observed to engage with desperate fury against each other; it is then that the fowlers, seeing them intent on mutual destruction, spread their nets over them and take them in great numbers. Yet even in captivity their animosity still continues: the people that fatten them up for sale are obliged to shut them up in close dark rooms; for if they let ever so little light in among them the turbulent prisoners instantly fall to fighting with each other, and never cease till each has killed its antagonist, especially, says Willoughby, if any body stands by. A similar animosity, though in a less degree, prompts all this tribe; but when they have paired and begun to lay their contentions are then over.

The place these birds chiefly choose to breed in is in some island surrounded with sedgy moors, where men seldom resort; and in such situations I have often seen the ground so strewn with eggs and nests, that one could scarce take a step without treading upon some of them. As soon as a stranger intrudes upon these retreats the whole colony is up, and a hundred different screams are heard from every quarter. The arts of the lapwing to allure men or dogs from her nest are perfectly amusing. When she perceives the enemy approaching she never waits till they arrive at her nest, but boldly runs to meet them: when she has come as near them as she dares to venture, she then rises with a loud screaming before them, seeming as if she was just flushed from hatching, while she is then probably a hundred yards from the nest. Thus she flies, with great clamour and anxiety, whining and screaming round the invaders, striking at them with her wings, and fluttering as if she were wounded. To add to the deceit, she appears still more clamorous as more remote from the nest. If she sees them very near she then seems to be quite unconcerned, and her cries cease, while her terrors are really augmenting. If there be dogs, she flies heavily at a little distance before them, as if maimed—still vociferous and still bold, but never offering to move towards the quarter where her treasure is deposited. The dog pursues in hopes every moment of seizing the parent, and by this means actually loses the young; for the cunning bird, when she has thus drawn him off to a proper distance, then puts forth her powers, and leaves her astonished pursuer to gaze at the rapidity of her flight. The eggs of all these birds are highly valued by the luxurious; they are boiled hard, and thus served up without any further preparation.

As the young of this class are soon hatched, so when excluded they quickly arrive at maturity. They run about after the mother as soon as they leave the egg; and being covered with a thick down, they want very little of that clutching which all birds of the poultry kind that follow the mother indispensably require. They come to their adult state long before winter, and then flock together till the breeding season returns, which for a while dissolves their society.

As the flesh of almost all these birds is in high estimation, so many methods have been contrived for taking them. That used in taking the ruff is the most advantageous; and it may not be amiss to describe it. The ruff (which is the name of the male, the reeve that of the female) is taken in nets about forty yards long, and seven or eight feet high. These birds are chiefly found in Lincolnshire and the Isle of Ely, where they come about the latter end of April and disappear about Michaelmas. The male of this bird, which is known from all others of the kind by the great length of the

feathers round his neck, is yet so various in his plumage, that it is said no two ruffs were ever seen totally of the same colour. The nets in which these are taken are supported by sticks, at an angle near forty-five degrees, and placed either on dry ground or in very shallow water, not remote from reeds: among these the fowler conceals himself till the birds, enticed by a stale or stuffed bird, come under the nets; he then by pulling a string lets them fall, and they are taken—as are godwits, knots, and grey-plover also in the same manner. When these birds are brought from under the net they are not killed immediately, but fattened for the table with bread and milk, hempseed, and sometimes boiled wheat; but if expedition be wanted, sugar is added, which will make them a lump of fat in a fortnight's time. They are kept, as observed before, in a dark room; and judgment is required in taking the proper time for killing them when they are at the highest pitch of fatness; for if that is neglected the birds are apt to fall away. They are reckoned a very great delicacy; they sell for two shillings or half-a-crown a piece, and are served up to the table with the train, like woodcocks, where we will leave them.

CHAP. XL

OF THE WATER-HEN AND THE COOT.

Before we enter upon water-fowls, properly so called, two or three birds claim our attention, which seem to form the shade between the web-footed tribe and those of the crane kind. These partake rather of the form than the habits of the crane, and, though furnished with long legs and necks, rather swim than wade. They cannot properly be called web-footed; nor yet are they entirely destitute of membranes, which fringe their toes on each side and adapt them for swimming. The birds in question are the water-hen and the bald coot.

These birds have too near an affinity not to be ranked in the same description. They are shaped entirely alike, their legs are long, and their thighs partly bare; their necks are proportionable, their wings short, their bills short and weak, their colour black, their foreheads bald and without feathers, and their habits are entirely the same. These, however, naturalists have thought proper to range in different classes, from very slight distinctions in their figure. The water-hen weighs but fifteen ounces—the coot twenty-four; the bald part of the forehead in the coot is black—in the water-hen it is of a beautiful pink colour; the toes of the water-hen are edged with a straight membrane—those of the coot have it scalloped and broader.

The differences in the figure are but slight, and those in their manner of living still less. The history of the one will serve for both. As birds of the crane kind are furnished with long wings, and easily change place, the water-hen, whose wings are short, is obliged to reside entirely near those places where her food lies: she cannot take those long journeys that most of the crane kind are seen to perform; compelled by her natural imperfections, as well, perhaps, as by inclination, she never leaves the side of the pond or the river in which she seeks for provision. Where the stream is selvaged with sedges, or the pond edged with shrubby trees, the water-hen is generally a resident there: she seeks her food along the grassy banks, and often along the surface of the water. With Shakespeare's Edgar, she drinks the green mantle of the standing pool; or, at least, seems to prefer those places where it is seen. Whether she makes pond-weed her food, or hunts among it for water-insects, which are found there in great abundance, is not certain. I have seen them when pond-weed was taken out of their stomach. She builds her nest upon low trees and shrubs of sticks and fibres by the water-side. Her eggs are sharp at one

end, white, with a tincture of green spotted with red. She lays twice or thrice in a summer; her young ones swim the moment they leave the egg, pursue their parent, and imitate all her manners. She rears in this manner two or three broods in a season; and when the young are grown up she drives them off to shift for themselves.

As the coot is a larger bird it is always seen in larger streams, and more remote from mankind. The water-hen seems to prefer inhabited situations: she keeps near ponds, moats, and pools of water near gentlemen's houses; but the coot keeps in rivers and among rushy margined lakes. It there makes a nest of such weeds as the stream supplies, and lays them among the reeds floating on the surface, and rising and falling with the water. The reeds among which it is built keep it fast, so that it is seldom washed into the middle of the stream. But if this happens, which is sometimes the case, the bird sits in her nest like a mariner in his boat, and steers with her legs her cargo into the nearest harbour: there, having attained her port, she continues to sit in great tranquillity, regardless of the impetuosity of the current; and though the water penetrates her nest, she hatches her eggs in that wet condition.

The water-hen never wanders; but the coot sometimes swims down the current till it even reaches the sea. In this voyage these birds encounter a thousand dangers: as they cannot fly far they are hunted by dogs and men; as they never leave the stream they are attacked and destroyed by otters; they are preyed upon by kites and falcons; and they are taken in still greater numbers in weirs made for catching fish; for these birds are led into the nets while pursuing small fish and insects, which are their principal food. Thus Animated Nature affords a picture of universal invasion. Man destroys the otter, the otter destroys the coot, the coot feeds upon fish, and fish are universally the tyrants of each other!

To these birds with long legs and finny toes I will add one species more, with short legs and finny toes—I mean the grebe. The entire resemblance of this bird's appetites and manners to those of the web-footed class might justly induce me to rank it among them; but as it resembles those above-described in the peculiar form of its toes, and bears some similitude in its manners also, I will for once sacrifice method to brevity. The grebe is much larger than either of the former, and its plumage white and black; it differs also entirely in the shortness of its legs, which are made for swimming, and not walking—in fact, they are from the knee upward hid in the belly of the bird, and have consequently very little motion. By this mark, and by the scalloped fringe of the toes, this bird may be easily distinguished from all others.

As they are thus, from the shortness of their wings, ill-formed for flying, and from the uncommon shortness of their legs utterly unfitted for walking, they seldom leave the water, and chiefly frequent those broad shallow pools where their faculty of swimming can be used to the greatest advantage in fishing and seeking their prey.

In this country they are chiefly seen to frequent the meres of Shropshire and Cheshire, where they breed among reeds and flags in a floating nest, kept steady by the weeds of the margin. The female is said to be a careful nurse of its young, being observed to feed them most assiduously with small eels; and when the little brood is tired the mother will carry them either on her back or under her wings. This bird preys upon fish, and is almost perpetually diving. It does not show much more than the head above water, and is very difficult to be shot, as it darts down on the appearance of the least danger. It is never seen on land; and, though disturbed ever so often, will not leave that lake where alone, by diving and swimming, it can find food and security. It is chiefly sought for the skin of its breast, the plumage of which is of a most beautiful silvery white, and as glossy as satin. This part is made into tippets; but the

skins are out of season about February, losing their bright colour; and in breeding time their breasts are entirely bare.

BOOK VII.—CHAP. I.

OF WATER-FOWL IN GENERAL.

In settling the distinctions among the other classes of birds there was some difficulty; one tribe encroached so nearly upon the nature and habitudes of another, that it was not easy to draw the line which kept them asunder: but in water-fowl Nature has marked them for us by a variety of indelible characters; so that it would be almost as unlikely to mistake a land-fowl for one adapted for living and swimming among the waters as a fish for a bird.

The first great distinction in this class appears in the toes, which are webbed together for swimming. Those who have remarked the feet or toes of a duck will easily conceive how admirably they are formed for making way in the water. When men swim they do not open the fingers so as to let the fluid pass through them, but, closing them together, present one broad surface to beat back the water, and thus push their bodies along. What man performs by art Nature has supplied to water-fowl, and, by broad skins, has webbed their toes together, so that they expand two broad oars to the water, and thus, moving them alternately, with the greatest ease paddle along. We must observe, also, that the toes are so contrived, that as they strike backward their broadest hollow surface beats the water; but as they gather them in again for a second blow, their front surface contracts, and does not impede the bird's progressive motion.

As their toes are webbed in the most convenient manner, so are the legs also made most fitly for swift progression in the water. The legs of all are short, except the three birds described in the former chapter—namely, the flamingo, the avosetta, and the coriira; all which for that reason I have thought proper to rank among the crane kind, as they make little use of their toes in swimming. Except these, all web-footed birds have very short legs; and these strike while they swim with very great facility. Were the leg long, it would act like a lever whose prop is placed to a disadvantage; its motions would be slow, and the labour of moving it considerable. For this reason, the very few birds whose webbed feet are long never make use of them in swimming: the web at the bottom seems only of service as a broad base, to prevent them from sinking while they walk in the mud; but it otherwise rather retards than advances their motion.

The shortness of the legs of the web-footed kinds renders them as unfit for walking on land as it qualifies them for swimming in their natural element. Their stay, therefore, upon land is but short and transitory; and they seldom venture to breed far from the sides of those waters where they usually remain. In their breeding seasons their young are brought up by the water-side; and they are covered with a warm down to fit them for the coldness of their situation. The old ones also have a closer, warmer plumage than birds of any other class. It is of their feathers our beds are composed—as they neither mat nor imbibe humidity, but are furnished with an animal oil that glazes their surface and keeps each separate. In some, however, this animal oil is in too great abundance, and is as offensive from its smell as it is serviceable for the purposes of household economy. The feathers, therefore, of all the penguin kind are totally useless for domestic purposes, as neither boiling nor bleaching can divest them of their oily rancidity. Indeed, the rancidity of all new feathers, of whatever water fowl they be, is so disgusting, that our upol-

sterers give near double the price for old feathers that they afford for new: to be free from smell they must all be laid upon for some time; and their usual method is to mix the new and old together.

This quantity of oil, with which most water-fowl are supplied, contributes also to their warmth in the moist element in which they reside. Their skin is generally lined with fat; so that with the warmth of the feathers externally, and this natural lining more internally, they are better defended against the changes or the inclemencies of the weather than any other class whatever.

As among land-birds there are some found fitted entirely for depredation, and others for a harmless method of subsisting upon vegetables, so also among these birds there are tribes of plunderers that prey, not only upon fish, but sometimes upon water-fowl themselves. There are likewise more inoffensive tribes that live upon vegetables only. Some water-fowls subsist by making sudden stoops from above, to seize whatever fish come near the surface; others again, not furnished with wings long enough to fit them for flight, take their prey by diving after it to the bottom.

From hence water-fowl naturally fall into three distinctions—those of the gull kind, that, with long legs and round bills, fly along the surface to seize their prey; those of the penguin kind, that, with round bills, legs hid in the abdomen, and short wings, dive after their prey: and, thirdly, those of the goose kind, with flat broad bills, that lead harmless lives, and chiefly subsist upon insects and vegetables.

These are not speculative distinctions, made up for the arrangement of a system, but they are strongly and evidently marked by Nature. The gull kind are active and rapacious, constantly, except when they breed, keeping upon the wing; fitted for a life of rapine, with sharp, straight bills for piercing, or hooked at the end for holding their fishy prey. In this class we may rank the albatross, the cormorant, the gannet or soland goose, the shag, the frigate-bird, the great brown gull, and all the lesser tribes of gulls and sea-swallows.

The penguin kind, with appetites as voracious, bills as sharp, and equally eager for prey, are yet unqualified to obtain it by flight. Their wings are short and their bodies large and heavy, so that they can neither run nor fly. But they are formed for diving in a very peculiar manner. Their feet are placed so far backward, and their legs so hid in the abdomen, that the slightest stroke sends them head foremost to the bottom of the water. To this class we may refer the penguin, the auk, the skout, the sea-turtle, the bottle-nose, and the loon.

The goose kind are easily distinguishable by their flat broad bills covered with a skin, and their manner of feeding, which is mostly upon vegetables. In this class we may place the swan, the goose, the duck, the teal, the widgeon, and all their numerous varieties.

In describing the birds of these three classes I will put the most remarkable of each class at the beginning of their respective tribes, and give their separate history: then, after having described the chiefs of the tribe, the more ordinary sorts will naturally fall in a body, and come under a general description behind their leaders. But before I offer to pursue this methodical arrangement, I must give the history of a bird that, from its singular conformation, seems allied to no species, and should therefore be separately described—I mean the pelican.

CHAP. II.

OF THE PELICAN.

The pelican of Africa is much larger in the body than a swan, and somewhat of the same shape and colour. Its four toes are all webbed together; and its neck in

some measure resembles that of a swan; but that singularity in which it differs from all other birds is in the bill and the pouch underneath, which are wonderful, and demand a distinct description. This enormous bill is fifteen inches from the point to the opening of the mouth, which is a good way back behind the eyes. At the base the bill is somewhat greenish, but varies towards the end, being of a redish-blue. It is very thick in the beginning, but tapers off to the end, where it hooks downwards. The under-chap is still more extraordinary; for to the lower edges hangs a bag reaching the whole length of the bill to the neck, which is said to be capable of containing fifteen quarts of water. This bag the bird has a power of wrinkling up into the hollow of the under-chap; but by opening the bill, and putting one's hand down into the bag, it may be distended at pleasure. The skin of which it is formed will then be seen of a blueish ash-colour, with many fibres and veins running over its surface. It is not covered with feathers, but with a short downy substance as smooth and as soft as satin, and is attached all along the under edges of the chap, to be fixed backward to the neck of the bird by proper ligaments, and reaches near half way down. When this bag is empty it is not seen; but when the bird has fished with success, it is then incredible to what an extent it is often seen dilated. For the first thing the pelican does in fishing is to fill up the bag; and then it returns to digest its burthen at leisure. When the bill is opened to its widest extent a person may run his head into the bird's mouth, and conceal it in this monstrous pouch, thus adapted for very singular purposes. Yet this is nothing to what Ruysch assures us, who avers that a man has been seen to hide his whole leg, boot and all, in the monstrous jaws of one of these animals. At first appearance this would seem impossible, as the sides of the under-chap, from which the bag depends, are not above an inch asunder when the bird's bill is first opened; but then they are capable of great separation; and it must necessarily be so, as it preys upon the largest fishes, and hides them by dozens in its pouch. Tertre affirms that it will hide as many fish as will serve sixty hungry men for a meal.

Such is the formation of this extraordinary bird, which is a native of Africa and America. The pelican was once also known in Europe, particularly in Russia; but it seems to have deserted our coasts. This is the bird of which so many fabulous accounts have been propagated; such as its feeding its young with its own blood, and its carrying a provision of water for them in its great reservoir in the desert. But the absurdity of the first account answers itself; and as for the latter, the pelican uses its bag for very different purposes than that of filling it with water.

Its amazing pouch may be considered as analogous to the crop in other birds, with this difference, that as theirs lies at the bottom of the gullet, so this is placed at the top. Thus, as pigeons and other birds macerate their food for their young in their crops and then supply them, so the pelican supplies its young by a more ready contrivance, and macerates their food in its bill, or stores it for its own particular sustenance.

The ancients were particularly fond of giving this bird admirable qualities and parental affections; struck, perhaps, with its extraordinary figure, they were willing to supply it with as extraordinary appetites; and having found it with a large reservoir, they were pleased with turning it to the most tender and parental uses. But the truth is, the pelican is a very heavy, sluggish, voracious bird, and very ill fitted to take those flights or to make those cautious provisions for a distant time which we have been told they do. Labat, who seems to have studied their manners with great exactness, has given us a minute history of this bird as found in America, and from him I borrow mine.

The pelican, says Labat, has strong wings, furnished

with thick plumage of an ash-colour, as are the rest of the feathers over the whole body. Its eyes are very small when compared to the size of its head; there is a sadness in its countenance, and its whole air is melancholy. It is as dull and reluctant in its motions as the flamingo is sprightly and active. It is slow of flight, and when it rises to fly performs it with difficulty and labour. Nothing, as it would seem, but the spur of necessity could make these birds change their situation, or induce them to ascend in the air; but they must either starve or fly.

They are torpid and inactive to the last degree, so that nothing can exceed their indolence but their gluttony; it is only from the stimulations of hunger that they are excited to labour; for otherwise they would continue always in fixed repose. When they have raised themselves about thirty or forty feet above the surface of the sea they turn their head with one eye downwards, and continue to fly in that posture. As soon as they perceive a fish sufficiently near the surface they dart down upon it with the swiftness of an arrow, seize it with unerring certainty, and store it up in their pouch. They then rise again, though not without great labour and continue hovering and fishing with their head on one side as before.

This work they continue with great effort and industry till their bag is full, and then they fly to land to devour and digest at leisure the fruits of their own industry. This, however, it would appear they are not long in performing; for towards night they have another hungry call, and they again reluctantly go to labour. At night, when their fishing is over, and the toil of the day crowned with success, these lazy birds retire a little way from the shore; and, though with the webbed feet and clumsy figure of a goose, they will be contented to perch no where but upon trees among the light and airy tenants of the forest. There they take their repose for the night, and often spend a great part of the day, except such times as they are fishing, sitting in dismal solemnity, and as it would seem half asleep. Their attitude is with the head resting upon their great bag, and that resting upon their breast. There they remain, without motion or once changing their situation, till the calls of hunger break their repose, and till they find it indispensibly necessary to fill their magazine for a fresh meal. Thus their life is spent between sleeping and eating; and our author adds, that they are as foul as they are voracious, as they are every moment voiding excrements in heaps as large as one's fist.

The same indolent habits seem to attend them even in preparing for incubation, and defending their young when excluded. The female makes no preparation for her nest, nor seems to choose any place in preference to lay in, but drops her eggs on the bare ground to the number of five or six, and there continues to hatch them. Attached to the place, without any desire of defending her eggs or her young, she tamely sits and suffers them to be taken from under her. Now and then she just ventures to peck, and cries out when a person offers to beat her off.

She feeds her young with fish macerated for some time in her bag, and when they cry she flies off for a new supply. Labat tells us that he took two of these when very young, and tied them by the leg to a post stuck into the ground, where he had the pleasure of seeing the old one for several days come to feed them, remaining with them the greatest part of the day, and spending the night on the branch of a tree that hung over them. By these means they were all three become so familiar, that they suffered themselves to be handled; and the young ones very kindly accepted whatever fish he offered them. These they always put first into their bag, and then swallowed at their leisure.

It seems, however, that they are but disagreeable and useless domestics; their gluttony can scarcely be satia-

fied; their flesh smells very rancid, and tastes a thousand times worse than it smells. The native Americans kill vast numbers—not to eat, for they are not fit even for the banquet of a savage, but to convert their large bags into purses and tobacco-pouches. They bestow no small pains in dressing the skin with salt and ashes, rubbing it well with oil, and then forming it to their purpose. It thus becomes so soft and pliant, that the Spanish women sometimes adorn it with gold and embroidery to make work-bags of.

Yet, with all the seeming habitude of this bird, it is not entirely incapable of instruction in a domestic state. Raymond assures us that he has seen one so tame and well educated among the native Americans, that it would go off in the morning at the word of command, and return before night to its master, with its great paunch distended with plunder, a part of which the savages would make it disgorge, and a part they would permit it to reserve for itself.

"The pelican," as Faber relates, "is not destitute of other qualifications. One of those which was brought alive to the Duke of Bavaria's court, where it lived forty years, seemed to be possessed of very uncommon sensations. It was much delighted in the company and conversation of men, and in music, both vocal and instrumental; for it would willingly stand," says he, "by those that sung or sounded the trumpet, and, stretching out its head, and turning its ear to the music, listened very attentively to its harmony, though its own voice was little pleasanter than the braying of an ass." Gesner tells us that the Emperor Maximilian had a tame pelican which lived for above eighty years, and that always attended his army on their march. It was one of the largest of the kind, and had a daily allowance by the emperor's orders. As another proof of the great age to which the pelican lives, Aldrovandus makes mention of one of these birds that was kept several years at Mechlin, and was verily believed to be fifty years old. We often see these birds at our shows about town.

CHAP. III.

OF THE ALBATROSS, THE FIRST OF THE GULL KIND.

Though this is one of the largest and most formidable birds of Africa and America, yet we have but few accounts to enlighten us in its history. The figure of the bird is thus described by Edwards:—"The body is rather larger than that of the pelican; and its wings, when extended, ten feet from tip to tip. The bill, which is six inches long, is yellowish, and terminates in a crooked point. The top of the head is of a bright brown; the back is of a dirty deep spotted brown; and the belly and under the wings is white; the toes, which are webbed, are of a flesh colour."

Such are the principal traits in this bird's figure; but these lead us a very short way in its history; and our naturalists have thought fit to say nothing more. However, I am apt to believe this bird to be the same with that described by Wicquefort under the title of the alcatraz; its size, its colour, and its prey incline me to think so. He describes it as a great gull, as large in the body as a goose, of a brown colour, with a long bill, and living upon fish, of which they kill great numbers.

This bird is an inhabitant of the tropical climates, and also beyond them as far as the Straights of Magellan in the South Seas. It is one of the most fierce and formidable of the aquatic tribe, not only living upon fish, but also such small water-fowl as it can take by surprise. It preys, as all the gull kind do, upon the wing; and chiefly pursues the flying-fish that are forced from the sea by the dolphins. The ocean in that part of the world presents a very different appearance from the

seas with which we are surrounded. In our seas we see nothing but a dreary expanse, ruffled by winds, and seemingly forsaken by every class of Animated Nature. But the tropical seas, and the distant southern latitudes beyond them, are all alive with birds and fishes, pursuing and pursued. Every various species of the gull kind are there seen hovering on the wing, at a thousand miles distance from the shore. The flying fish are every moment rising to escape from their pursuers of the deep only to encounter equal dangers in the air. Just as they rise the dolphin is seen to dart after them, but generally in vain; the gull has more frequent success, and often takes them at their rise; while the albatross pursues the gull, and obliges it to relinquish its prey: so that the whole horizon presents but one living picture of rapacity and evasion.

So much is certain; but how far we are to credit Wicquefort in what he adds concerning this bird the reader is left to determine. "As these birds, except when they breed, live entirely remote from land, so they are often seen, as it would seem, sleeping in the air. At night, when they are pressed by slumber, they rise into the clouds as high as they can; there, putting their head under one wing, they beat the air with the other, and seem to take their ease. After a time, however, the weight of their bodies, only thus half supported, brings them down; and they are seen descending, with a pretty rapid motion, to the surface of the sea. Upon this they again put forth their efforts to rise; and thus alternately ascend and descend at their ease. But it sometimes happens," says my author, "that in these slumbering flights they are off their guard, and fall upon deck, where they are taken."

What truth there may be in this account I will not take upon me to determine; but certain it is that few birds float upon the air with more ease than the albatross, or support themselves a longer time in that element. They seem never to feel the accessions of fatigue, but, night and day upon the wing, are always prowling, yet always emaciated and hungry.

But though this bird be one of the most formidable tyrants of the deep, there are some associates which even tyrants themselves form, to which they are induced either by caprice or necessity. The albatross seems to have a peculiar affection for the penguin, and a pleasure in its society. They are always seen to choose the same places of breeding—some distant, uninhabited island, where the ground slants to the sea, as the penguin is not formed either for flying or climbing. In such places their nests are seen together, as if they stood in need of mutual assistance and protection. Captain Hunt, who for some time commanded at our settlement upon Falkland Islands, assures me that he was often amazed at the union preserved between these birds, and the regularity with which they built together. In that bleak and desolate spot, where the birds had long continued undisturbed possessors, and in no way dreaded the encroachments of men, they seemed to make their abode as comfortable as they expected it to be lasting. They were seen to build with an amazing degree of uniformity—their nests covering fields by thousands, and resembling a regular plantation. In the middle, on high, the albatross raised its nest, on heath-sticks and long grass, about two feet above the surface; round this the penguins made their lower settlements, rather in holes in the ground, and most usually eight penguins to one albatross. Nothing is a stronger proof of Mr. Buffon's fine observation, that the presence of man not only destroys the society of meaner animals, but their instincts also. These nests are now, I am told, totally destroyed—the society is broken up—and the albatross and penguin have gone to breed upon more desert shores in greater security.

CHAP. IV.

THE CORMORANT.

The cormorant is about the size of a large Muscovy duck, and may be distinguished from all other birds of this kind by its four toes being united by membranes together, and by the middle toe being toothed or notched like a saw, to assist it in holding its fishy prey. The head and neck of this bird are of a sooty blackness, and the body thick and heavy, more inclining in figure to that of the goose than the gull. The bill is straight till near the end, where the upper chap bends into a hook.

But notwithstanding the seeming heaviness of its make, there are few birds more powerfully predaceous. As soon as the winter approaches they are seen dispersed along the sea-shore, and ascending up the mouths of fresh-water rivers, carrying destruction to all the finny tribe. They are most remarkably voracious, and have a most sudden digestion. Their appetite is for ever craving and never satisfied. This gnawing sensation may probably be increased by the great quantity of small worms that fill their intestines, and which their unceasing gluttony contributes to engender.

Thus formed with grossest appetites, this unclean bird has the most rank and disagreeable smell, and is more foetid than even carrion when in its most healthful state. Its form, says an ingenious modern, is disagreeable—its voice is hoarse and croaking—and all its qualities obscene. No wonder, then, that Milton should make Satan personate this bird, when he sent him upon the basest purposes to survey with pain the beauties of Paradise, and to sit devising death on the Tree of Life. It has been remarked, however, of our poet, that the making a water-fowl perch on a tree implied no great acquaintance with the history of Nature. In vindication of Milton, Aristotle expressly says that the cormorant is the only water-fowl that sits on trees. We have already seen the pelican of this number; and the cormorant's toes seem as fit for perching upon trees as for swimming; so that our epic bard seems to have been as deeply versed in natural history as in criticism.

Indeed this bird seems to be of a multiform nature: and wherever fish are to be found it watches their migrations. It is seen as well by land as by sea; it fishes in fresh-water lakes as well as in the depths of the ocean; it builds in the cliffs of rocks as well as on trees; and preys not only in the day time but by night.

Its indefatigable nature and its great power in catching fish were probably the motives that induced some nations to breed this bird up tame, for the purposes of fishing; and Willoughby assures us that it was once used in England for that purpose. The description of their manner of fishing is thus described by Faber. "When they carry them out of the rooms where they are kept to the fish-ponds they hoodwink them, that they might not be frightened by the way. When they are come to the rivers they take off their hoods; and, having tied a leather thong round the lower part of their necks that they may not swallow down the fish they catch, they throw them into the river. They presently dive under water, and there for a long time with wonderful swiftness pursue the fish and, when they have caught them, rise to the top of the water, and, pressing the fish lightly with their bills, swallow them, till each bird hath after this manner devoured five or six fishes. Then their keepers call them to the fist, to which they readily fly, and, one after another, vomit up all their fish, a little bruised with the first nip given in catching them. When they have done fishing, setting the birds on some high place, they loose the string from their necks, leaving the passage to the stomach free and open: and for their reward they throw them part of their prey, to each one or two fishes, which they will catch most dexterously as they are falling in the air."

At present the cormorant is trained up in every part of China for the same purpose, where there are many lakes and canals. "To this end," says Le Compte, "they are educated as men rear up spaniels or hawks, and one man can easily manage a hundred. The fisher carries them out into the lake, perched on the gunnel of his boat, where they continue tranquil, and expecting his orders with patience. When arrived at the proper place, at the first signal given each flies a different way to fulfil the task assigned it. It is very pleasant on this occasion to behold with what sagacity they portion out the lake or the canal where they are upon duty. They hunt about, they plunge, they rise a hundred times to the surface, until at last they have found their prey. They then seize it with their beak by the middle, and carry it without fail to their master. When the fish is too large they then give each other mutual assistance; one seizes it by the head, the other by the tail, and in this manner carry it to the boat together. There the boatman stretches out one of his long oars, on which they perch, and being delivered of their burthen, they fly off to pursue their sport. When they are wearied he lets them rest for a while; but they are never fed till their work is over. In this manner they supply a very plentiful table; but still their natural gluttony cannot be reclaimed even by education. They have always while they fish the same string fastened round their throats, to prevent them from devouring their prey, as otherwise they would at once satiate themselves, and discontinue their pursuit the moment they had filled their bellies."

As for the rest, the cormorant is the best fisher of all birds; and, though fat and heavy with the quantity it devours, is nevertheless generally upon the wing. The great activity with which it pursues, and from a vast height drops down to dive after its prey, offers one of the most amusing spectacles to those who stand upon a cliff on the shore. This large bird is seldom seen in the air but where there are fish below; but then they must be near the surface before it will venture to souse upon them. If they are at a depth beyond what the impetus of its flight makes the cormorant capable of diving to, they certainly escape him; for this bird cannot move so fast under water as the fish can swim. It seldom, however, makes an unsuccessful dip, and is often seen rising heavily with a fish larger than it can readily devour. It sometimes also happens that the cormorant has caught the fish by the tail, and consequently the fins prevent its being easily swallowed in that position. In this case the bird is seen to toss its prey above its head, and very dexterously to catch it when descending by the proper end, and so swallow it with ease.

CHAP. V.

OF THE GANNET, OR SOLAND GOOSE.

The gannet is of the size of a tame goose, but its wings are much longer, being six feet across. The bill is six inches long, straight almost to the point, where it inclines downward, the sides being irregularly jagged, so that it may hold its prey with greater security. It differs from the cormorant in size, being larger; in its colour, which is chiefly white; and by its having no nostrils, but in their place a long furrow that reaches almost to the end of the bill. From the corner of the mouth is a narrow slip of black bare skin, extending to the hind-part of the head; beneath this skin is another that, like the pouch of the pelican, is dilatable, and of a size sufficient to contain five or six entire herrings, which in the breeding season it carries at once to its mate or its young.

These birds, which subsist entirely upon fish, chiefly resort to those uninhabited islands where their food is found in plenty, and men seldom come to disturb them. The islands to the north of Scotland, the Skelig Islands on the coast of Kerry in Ireland, and those that lie in the north sea off Norway, abound with them. But it is on the Bass Island in the Firth of Edinburgh where they are seen in the greatest abundance. "There is a small island," says the celebrated Harvey, "called the Bass, not more than a mile in circumference. The surface is almost wholly covered during the months of May and June with their nests, their eggs, and their young. It is scarcely possible to walk without treading upon them; the flocks of birds on the wing are so numerous as to darken the air like a cloud; and their noise is such, that one cannot without difficulty be heard by the person next to him. When one looks down upon the sea from the precipice, its whole surface seems covered with infinite numbers of birds of different kinds, swimming and pursuing their prey. If, in sailing round the island, one surveys its hanging cliffs, in every crag or fissure of the broken rocks may be seen innumerable birds, of various sorts and sizes, amounting to more than the stars, when viewed in a serene night. When viewed at a distance, either receding from or in their approach to the island, they seem like one vast swarm of bees."

They are not less frequent on the rocks of St. Kilda. Martin assures us that the inhabitants of that island consume annually near twenty-three thousand young birds of this species, besides an amazing quantity of their eggs. On these they principally subsist throughout the year; and from the number of these visitants they make an estimate of their plenty for the season. They preserve both the eggs and fowls in pyramidal stone buildings, covering them with turf-ashes to prevent the evaporation of their moisture.

The gannet is a bird of passage. In winter it seeks the more southern coasts of Cornwall, hovering over the shoals of herrings and pilchards that then come down from the northern seas: its first appearance in the northern islands is in the beginning of spring, and it continues to breed till the end of summer. But in general its motions are determined by the migrations of the immense shoal of herrings that come pouring down at that season through the British Channel, and supply all Europe as well as this bird with their spoil. The gannet assiduously attends the shoal in their passage, keeps with them in their whole circuit round our island, and shares with our fishermen this exhaustless banquet. As it is strong of wing it never comes near the land, but is constant to its prey. Wherever the gannet is seen it is sure to announce to the fishermen the arrival of the finny tribe; they then prepare their nets, and take the herrings by millions at a draught; while the gannet, who came to give the first information, comes, though an unbidden guest, and often snatches its prey from the fisherman even in his boat. While the fishing season continues the gannets are busily employed; but when the pilchards disappear from our coasts, the gannet takes its leave to keep them company.

The cormorant has been remarked for the quickness of his sight; yet in this the gannet seems to exceed him. It is possessed of a transparent membrane under the eye-lid, with which it covers the whole eye at pleasure without obscuring the sight in the smallest degree. This seems a necessary provision for the security of the eyes of so weighty a creature, whose method of taking prey, like that of the cormorant, is by darting headlong down from a height of a hundred feet and more into the water to seize it. These birds are sometimes taken at sea by fastening a pilchard to a board, which they leave floating. The gannet instantly pounces down from above upon the board, and is killed or maimed by the shock of a body where it expected no resistance.

These birds breed but once a year, and lay but one egg, which, being taken away, they lay another; if that is also taken, then a third, but never more for that season. Their egg is white, and rather less than that of the common goose; and their nest larger, composed of such substances as are found floating on the surface of the sea. The young birds during the first year differ greatly in colour from the old ones—being of a dusky hue, speckled with numerous triangular white spots, and at that time resembling the colours of the speckled diver.

The Bass Island, where they chiefly breed, belongs to one proprietor; so that care is taken never to fright away the birds when laying, or to shoot them upon the wing. By that means they are so confident as to alight and feed their young ones close beside you. They feed only upon fish, as was observed; yet the young gannet is counted a great dainty by the Scots, and sold very dear; so that the lord of the islet makes a considerable annual profit by the sale.

CHAP. VI.

OF SMALLER GULLS AND PETRELS.

Having described the manners of the great ones of this tribe, those of the smaller kind may be easily inferred. They resemble the more powerful in their appetites for prey, but have not such certain methods of obtaining it. In general, therefore, the industry of this tribe and their audacity increase in proportion to their imbecility. The great gulls live at the most remote distance from man; the smaller are obliged to reside wherever they can take their prey, and to come into the most populous places when solitude can no longer grant them a supply. In this class we may place the gull, properly so called, of which there are above twenty different kinds—the petrel, of which there are three, and the sea-swallow, of which there are as many. The gulls may be distinguished by an angular knob on the lower chap; the petrels by their wanting this knob; and the sea-swallow by their bills, which are straight, slender, and sharp-pointed. They all, however, agree in their appetites and their places of abode.

The gull and all its varieties is very well known in every part of the kingdom. It is seen, with a slow-sailing flight, hovering over rivers to prey upon the smaller kinds of fish; it is seen following the ploughman in fallow-fields to pick up insects; and when living animal food does not offer, it has even been known to eat carrion, and whatever else of the kind that offers. Gulls are found in great plenty in every place; but it is chiefly round our boldest, rockiest shores that they are seen in the greatest abundance; it is there that the gull breeds and brings up its young; it is there that millions of them are heard screaming with discordant notes for months together.

Those who have been much upon our coasts know that there are two different kinds of shores—that which slants down to the water with a gentle declivity, and that which rises with a precipitate boldness, that seems set as a bulwark to repel the force of the invading deeps. It is to such shores as these that the whole tribe of the gull kind resort, as the rocks offer them a retreat for their young, and the sea a sufficient supply. It is in the cavities of these rocks, of which the shore is composed, that the vast variety of sea-fowls retire to breed in safety. The waves beneath, that continually beat at the base, often wear the shore into an impending boldness; so that it seems to jut out over the water, while the raging of the sea makes the place inaccessible from below. These are the situations to which sea-fowl chiefly resort, and bring up their young in undisturbed security.

Those who have never observed our boldest coasts have no idea of their tremendous sublimity. The

boasted works of art, the highest towers, and the noblest domes, are but ant-hills when put in comparison; the single cavity of a rock often exhibits a coping higher than the ceiling of a gothic cathedral. The face of the shore offers to the view a wall of massive stone, ten times higher than our tallest steeples. What should we think of a precipice three quarters of a mile in height? and yet the rocks of St. Kilda are still higher! What must be our awe to approach the edge of that impending height, and to look down on the unfathomable vacuity below—to ponder on the terrors of falling to the bottom, where the waves that swell like mountains are scarcely seen to curl on the surface, and the roar of an ocean a thousand leagues broad appears softer than the murmur of a brook! It is in these formidable mansions that myriads of sea-fowls are for ever sporting, flying in security down the depth, half a mile beneath the feet of the spectator. The crow and the chough avoid these frightful precipices; they choose smaller heights, where they are less exposed in the tempest: it is the cormorant, the gannet, the tarrook, and the terne that venture to these dreadful retreats, and claim an undisturbed possession. To the spectator from above these birds, though some of them are above the size of an eagle, seem scarce as large as a swallow; and their loudest screaming is scarce perceptible.

But the generality of our shores are not so formidable. Though they may rise two hundred fathom above the surface, yet it often happens that the water forsakes the shore at the departure of the tide, and leaves a noble and delightful walk for curiosity on the beach. Not to mention the variety of shells with which the sand is strewed, the lofty rocks that hang over the spectator's head, and that seem but just kept from falling, produce in him no unpleasant gloom. If to this be added the fluttering, the screaming, and the pursuits of myriads of water birds, all either intent on the duties of incubation or roused at the presence of a stranger, nothing can compose a scene of more peculiar solemnity. To walk along the shore when the tide is departed, or to sit in the hollow of a rock when it is come in, attentive to the various sounds that gather on every side above and below, may raise the mind to its highest and noblest exertions. The solemn roar of the waves swelling into and subsiding from the vast caverns beneath—the piercing note of the gull—the frequent chatter of the guillemot—the loud note of the auk—the scream of the heron—and the hoarse deep periodical croaking of the cormorant, all unite to furnish out the grandeur of the scene, and turn the mind to Him who is the Essence of all sublimity.

Yet it often happens that the contemplation of a sea-shore produces ideas of an humbler kind, yet still not unpleasant. The various arts of these birds to seize their prey, and sometimes to elude their pursuers—their society among each other—and their tenderness and care of their young, produce gentler sensations. It is ridiculous, also, now and then to see their various ways of imposing upon each other. It is common enough, for instance, with the arctic gull to pursue the lesser gulls so long, that they drop their excrements through fear, which the hungry hunter quickly gobbles up before it ever reaches the water. In breeding, too, they have frequent contests. One bird who has no nest of her own attempts to dispossess another, and put herself in the place. This often happens among all the gull kind; and I have seen the poor bird thus displaced by her more powerful invader sit near the nest in pensive discontent, while the other seemed quite comfortable in her new habitation. Yet this place of pre-eminence is not easily obtained; for the instant the invader goes to snatch a momentary sustenance the other enters upon her own, and always ventures another battle before she relinquishes the justness of her claim. The contemplation of a cliff, thus covered with hatching-birds, affords a very

agreeable entertainment; and as they sit upon the ledges of the rocks, one above another, with their white breasts forward, the whole group has not unaptly been compared to an apothecary's shop.

These birds, like all others of the rapacious kind, lay but few eggs; and hence in many places their number is daily seen to diminish. The lessening of so many rapacious birds may at first sight appear a benefit to mankind; but when we consider how many of the natives of our islands are sustained by their flesh, either fresh or salted, we shall find no satisfaction in thinking that these poor people may in time lose their chief support. The gull in general, as was said, builds on the ledges of rocks, and lays from one egg to three, in a nest formed of long grass and sea-weed. Most of the kind are fishy tasted, with black stringy flesh; yet the young ones are better food; and of these, with several other birds of the penguin kind, the poor inhabitants of our northern islands make their wretched banquets. They have been long used to no other food; and even salted gull can be relished by those who know no better. Almost all delicacy is a relative thing; and the man who repines at the luxuries of a well-served table starves not for want, but from comparison. The luxuries of the poor are indeed coarse to us, yet still they are luxuries to those ignorant of better; and it is probable enough that a Kilda or a Feroe man may be found to exist outdoing Apicius himself in consulting the pleasures of the table. Indeed, if it be true that such meat as is the most dangerously earned is the sweetest, no man can dine so luxuriously as these, as none venture so hardly in the pursuit of a dinner. In Jacobson's History of the Feroe Islands we have an account of the method in which these birds are taken; and I will deliver it in his own simple manner.

"It cannot be expressed with what pains and danger they take these birds in those high, steep cliffs, whereof many are two hundred fathoms high. But there are men apt by nature and fit for the work, who take them usually in two manners—they either climb from below into these high promontories, that are as steep as a wall; or they let themselves down with a rope from above. When they climb from below they have a pole five or six ells long, with an iron hook at the end, which they that are below in the boat or on the cliff fasten to the man's girdle, helping him up thus to the highest place where he can get footing: afterwards they also help up another man; and thus several climb up as high as possibly they can; and, where they find difficulty, they help each other up by thrusting one another up with their poles. When the first hath taken footing, he draws the other up to him by the rope fastened to his waist; and so they proceed till they come to the place where the birds build. They there go about as well as they can in those dangerous places, the one holding the rope at one end and fixing himself to the rock; the other going at the other end from place to place. If it should happen that he chanceth to fall, the other that stands firm keeps him up, and helps him up again. But if he passeth safe, he likewise fastens himself till the other has passed the dangerous place also. Thus they go about the cliffs after birds as they please. It often happeneth, however (the more is the pity!), that when one doth not stand fast enough, or is not sufficiently strong to hold up the other in his fall, that they both fall down and are killed. In this manner some do perish every year."

Mr. Peter Clanson, in his description of Norway, writes that there was anciently a law in that country, that whosoever climbed so on the cliffs that he fell down and died, if the body was found, before burial his next kinsman should go the same way; but if he durst not, or could not, do it, the dead body was not then to be buried in sanctified earth, as the person was too full of temerity, and was his own destroyer.

Clanson continues:—"When the fowlers are come in

the manner aforesaid to the birds within the cliffs, where people seldom come, the birds are so tame that they take them with their hands—for they will not readily leave their young. But when they are wild, they cast a net with which they are provided over them, and entangle them therein. In the meantime there lieth a boat beneath in the sea, wherein they cast the birds killed; and in this manner they can in a short time fill a boat with fowl. When it is pretty fair weather, and there is good fowling, the fowlers stay in the cliffs seven or eight days together; for there are here and there holes in the rocks where they can safely rest; and they have meat let down to them with a line from the top of the mountain. In the meantime some go every day to them to fetch home what they have taken.

"Some rocks are so difficult that they can in no manner get unto them from below; wherefore they seek to come down thereto from above. For this purpose they have a rope eighty or a hundred fathoms long, made of hemp, and three fingers thick. The fowler maketh the end of this fast about his waist and between his legs, so that he can sit thereon; and is thus let down with the fowling-staff in his hand. Six men hold by the rope, and let him easily down, laying a large piece of wood on the brink of the rock, upon which the rope glideth, that it may not be worn to pieces by the hard and rough edge of the stone. They have, besides, another small line that is fastened to the fowler's body; on which he pulleth, to give them notice how they should let down the great rope, either lower or higher; or to hold still, that he may stay in the place whereunto he is come. Here the man is in great danger, because of the stones that are loosened from the cliff by the swinging of the rope, and he cannot avoid them. To remedy this in some measure, he hath usually on his head a seaman's thick and shaggy cap, which defends him from the blows of the stones, if they be not too big; and then it costeth him his life: nevertheless, they continually put themselves in that danger for the wretched body's food sake, hoping in God's mercy and protection, unto which the greatest part of them do devoutly recommend themselves when they go to work: otherwise, they say, there is no great danger in it, except that it is a toilsome and artificial labour; for he that hath not learned to be so let down, and is not used thereto, is turned about with the rope, so that he soon groweth giddy, and can do nothing; but he that hath learned the art considers it as a sport, swings himself on the rope, sets his feet against the rock, casts himself some fathoms from thence, and shoots himself to what place he will: he knows where the birds are—he understands how to sit on the line in the air, and how to hold the fowling-staff in his hand, striking therewith the birds that come or fly away; and when there are holes in the rocks, and it stretches itself out, making underneath as a ceiling under which the birds are, he knoweth how to shoot himself in among them and there take firm footing. There, when he is in these holes, he maketh himself loose of the rope, which he fastens to a crag of the rock, that it may not slip from him to the outside of the cliff. He then goes about in the rock, taking the fowl, either with his hands or the fowling-staff. Thus, when he hath killed as many birds as he thinks fit, he ties them in a bundle, and fastens them to a little rope, giving a sign by pulling that they should draw them up. When he has wrought thus the whole day, and desires to get up again, he sitteth once more upon the great rope, giving a new sign that they should pull him up; or else he worketh himself up, climbing along the rope with his girdle full of birds. It is also usual, where there are not folks enough to hold the great rope, for a fowler to drive a post sloping into the earth, and to make a rope fast thereto, by which he lets himself down, without anybody's help, to work in the man-

ner aforesaid. Some rocks are so formed that the person can go into their cavities by land.

"These manners are more terrible and dangerous to see than to describe; especially if one considers the steepness and height of the rocks, it seeming impossible for a man to approach them, much less to climb or descend. In some places the fowlers are seen climbing where they can only fasten the ends of their toes and fingers—not shunning such places, though there be a hundred fathom between them and the sea. It is a dear meat for these poor people, for which they must venture their lives; and many, after long venturing, do at last perish therein.

"When the fowl is brought home a part thereof is eaten afresh, another part, when there is much taken, being hung up for winter provision. The feathers are gathered to make merchandise of for other expense. The inhabitants get a great many of these fowls as God giveth His blessings and fit weather. When it is dark and hazy they take the most; for then the birds stay in the rocks: but in clear weather and hot sunshine they seek the sea. When they prepare to depart for the season they keep themselves most there, sitting on the cliffs towards the sea-side, where people get at them sometimes with boats, and take with them fowling-staves."

Such is the account of this historian; but we are not to suppose that all the birds caught in this manner are of the gull kind; on the contrary, numbers of them are of the penguin kind—auks, puffins, and guillemots. These all come once a season to breed in these recesses, and retire in winter to fish in more southern climates.

CHAP. VII.

OF THE PENGUIN KIND—AND FIRST OF THE GREAT MAGELLANIC PENGUIN.

The gulls are long-winged, swift flyers, that hover over the most extensive seas, and dart upon such fish as approach too near the surface. The penguin kind are but ill-fitted for flight, and still less for walking. Everybody must have seen the awkward manner in which a duck, either wild or tame, attempts to change place; they must recollect with what softness and ease a gull or a kite waves its pinions, and with what a coil and flutter the duck attempts to move them; how many strokes it is obliged to give in order to gather a little air; and even when it is thus raised, how soon it is fatigued with the force of its exertions, and obliged to take rest again. But the duck is not in its natural state half so unwieldy an animal as the whole tribe of the penguin kind. Their wings are much shorter, more scantily supplied with quills, and the whole pinion placed too forward to be usefully employed. For this reason the largest of the penguin kind, that have a thick, heavy body to raise, cannot fly at all. Their wings serve them rather as paddles to help them forward when they attempt to move swiftly; and in a manner walk along the surface of the water. Even the smaller kind seldom fly by choice; they flutter their wings with the swiftest efforts without making way; and though they have but a small weight of body to sustain, yet they seldom venture to quit the water, where they are provided with food and protection.

As the wings of the penguin tribe are unfitted for flight, their legs are still more awkwardly adapted for walking. This whole tribe have all above the knee hid within the belly; and nothing appears but two short legs, or feet, as some would call them, that seem stuck under the rump, and upon which the animal is very awkwardly supported. They seem, when sitting or attempting to walk, like a dog that has been taught to sit up or to move in a minuet. Their short legs drive the body in progression from side to side; and were

they not assisted by their wings they could scarcely move faster than a tortoise.

This awkward position of the legs, which so unqualifies them for living upon land, adapts them admirably for a residence in water. In that, the legs placed behind the moving body, pushes it forward with great velocity; and these birds, like Indian canoes, are the swiftest in the water by having their paddles in the rear. Our sailors for this reason give these birds the very homely but expressive name of "arse-feet."

Nor are they less qualified for diving than swimming. By ever so little inclining their bodies forward they lose their centre of gravity; and every stroke from their feet only tends to sink them the faster. In this manner they can either dive at once to the bottom or swim between two waters, where they continue fishing for some minutes, and then ascending, catch an instantaneous breath, to descend once more to renew their operations. Hence it is that these birds, which are so defenceless and so easily taken by land, are impregnable by water. If they perceive themselves pursued in the least they instantly sink, and show nothing more than their bills till the enemy is withdrawn. Their very internal conformation assists their power of keeping long under water. Their lungs are fitted with numerous vacuities, by which they can take in a very large inspiration; and this probably serves them for a length of time.

As they never visit land except when they come to breed, their feathers take a colour from their situation. That part of them which has been continually bathed in the water is white, while their backs and wings are of different colours, according to the different species. They are also covered more warmly all over the body with feathers than any other bird whatever; so that the sea seems entirely their element; and but for the necessary duties of propagating their species we should scarcely have the smallest opportunity of seeing them, and should be utterly unacquainted with their history.

Of all this tribe the Magellanic penguin is the largest and the most remarkable. In size it approaches near that of a tame goose. It never flies, as its wings are very short, and covered with hard stiff feathers, and are always seen expanded and hanging uselessly down by the bird's sides. The upper part of the head, back, and rump are covered with stiff black feathers; while the belly and breast, as is common with all of this kind, are of a snowy whiteness, except a line of black that is seen to cross the crop. The bill, which from the base to about half way is covered with wrinkles, is black, but marked crosswise with a stripe of yellow. They walk erect, with their heads on high, their fin-like wings hanging down like arms; so that to see them at a distance they look like so many children with white aprons. From hence they are said to unite in themselves the qualities of men, fowls, and fishes. Like men, they are upright; like fowls, they are feathered; and like fishes, they have fin-like instruments, that beat the water before, and serve for all the purposes of swimming rather than flying.

They feed upon fish, and seldom come ashore except in the breeding season. As the seas in that part of the world abound with a variety, they seldom want food; and their extreme fatness seems a proof of the plenty in which they live. They dive with great rapidity, and are voracious to a great degree. One of them, described by Clusius, though but very young, would swallow an entire herring at a mouthful, and often three successively before it was appeased. In consequence of this gluttonous appetite their flesh is rank and filthy; though our sailors say that it is pretty good eating. In some the flesh is so tough and the feathers so thick, that they stand the blow of a scimitar without injury.

They are a bird of society; and, especially when they come on shore, they are seen drawn up in rank and file upon the ledge of a rock, standing together with the

albatross as if in consultation. This is previous to their laying, which generally begins in that part of the world in the month of November. Their preparations for laying are attended with no great trouble, as a small depression in the earth, without any other nest, serves for this purpose. The warmth of their feathers and the heat of their bodies is such, that the progress of incubation is carried on very rapidly.

But there is a difference in the manner of this bird's nestling in other countries, which I can only ascribe to the frequent disturbances it has received from quadrupeds in its recesses. In some places, instead of contenting itself with a superficial depression with the earth, the penguin is found to burrow two or three yards deep; in other places it is seen to forsake the level, and to clamber up the ledge of a rock, where it lays its egg, and hatches in that bleak, exposed situation. These precautions may probably have been taken in consequence of dear-bought experience. In those countries where the bird fears for her own safety or that of her young, she may providentially provide against danger by digging, or by climbing; for both which she is but ill adapted by Nature. In those places, however, where the penguin has had but few visits from man her nest is made, with the most confident security, in the middle of some large plain, where they are seen by thousands. In that unguarded situation, neither expecting nor fearing a powerful enemy, they continue to sit brooding; and, even when man comes among them, have at first no apprehension of their danger. Some of this tribe have been called by our seamen "the booby," from the total insensibility which they show when they are sought to their destruction. But it is not considered that these birds have never been taught to know the dangers of a human enemy: it is against the fox or the vulture that they have learned to defend themselves; but they have no idea of injury from a being so very unlike their natural opposers. The penguins, therefore, when our seamen first came among them, tamely suffered themselves to be knocked on the head, without even attempting an escape. They have stood to be shot at in flocks, without offering to move, in silent wonder, till every one of their number has been destroyed. Their attachment to their nests was still more powerful; for the females tamely suffered the men to approach and take their eggs without any resistance. But the experience of a few of those unfriendly visits has long since taught them to be more upon their guard in choosing their situations, or to leave those retreats where they were so little able to oppose their invaders.

The penguin lays but one egg; and in frequented shores is found to burrow like a rabbit: sometimes three or four take possession of one hole, and hatch their young together. In the holes of the rocks, where Nature has made them a retreat, several of this tribe, as Linnæus assures us, are seen together. There the females lay their single egg, in a common nest, and sit upon this their general possession by turns; while one is placed as a sentinel to give warning of approaching danger. The egg of the penguin, as well as of all this tribe, is very large for the size of the bird, being generally found bigger than that of a goose. But as there are many varieties of the penguin, and as they differ in size from that of a Muscovy duck to a swan, the eggs differ in the same proportion.

CHAP. VIII.

OF THE AUK, THE PUFFIN, AND OTHER BIRDS OF THE PENGUIN KIND.

Of a size far inferior to the penguin, but with nearly the same form, and exactly of the same appetites and

manners, there is a very numerous tribe. These frequent our shores, and, like the penguin, have their legs placed behind. They have short wings, which are not totally incapable of flight, with round bills for seizing their prey, which is fish. They live upon the water, in which they are continually seen diving, and seldom venture upon land except for the purposes of continuing their kind.

The first of this smaller tribe is the great northern diver, which is nearly the size of a goose; it is beautifully variegated all over with many stripes, and differs from the penguin in being much slenderer and more elegantly formed. The grey speckled diver does not exceed the size of a Muscovy duck, and, except in size, greatly resembles the former. The auk, which breeds on the islands of St. Kilda, and chiefly differs from the penguin in size and colour, is smaller than a duck; the whole of the breast and belly as far as the middle part of the throat is white. The guillemot is about the same size: it differs from the auk in having a longer, slenderer, and straighter bill. The scarlet-coated diver may be distinguished by its name; and the ruffin, or coulterneb, is one of the most remarkable birds we know.

Words cannot easily describe the form of the bill of the puffin, which differs so greatly from that of any other bird. Those who have seen the "coulter" of a plough may form some idea of this odd-looking animal. The bill is flat, but (quite different from that of the duck) its edge is upwards. It is of a triangular figure, and ending in a sharp point—the upper-chap bent a little downward, where it is joined to the head, and a certain callous substance encompassing its base, as in parrots. It is of two colours—ash-coloured near the base, and red towards the point. It has three furrows or grooves impressed in it—one in the livid part, and two in the red. The eyes are fenced with a protuberant skin of a liver-colour; the eyes themselves are grey or ash-coloured. These are marks sufficient to distinguish this bird by; but its value to those in whose vicinity it breeds renders it still more an object of curiosity.

The puffin, like all the rest of this kind, has its legs thrown so far back that it can hardly move without tumbling. This makes it rise with difficulty, and subjects it to many falls before it gets upon the wing; but as it is a small bird, not much bigger than a pigeon, when it once rises it can continue its flight with great celerity.

But this and all the former build no nest, but lay their eggs either in the crevices of rocks or in holes under-ground near the shore. They chiefly choose the latter situation; for the puffin, the auk, the guillemot and the rest cannot easily rise to the nest when in a lofty situation. Many are the attempts these birds are seen to make to fly up to those nests which are so high above the surface. In rendering them inaccessible to mankind, they often render them almost inaccessible to themselves. They are frequently obliged to make three or four efforts before they can come at the place of incubation. For this reason the auk and the guillemot, when they have once laid their single egg (which is extremely large for the size of the bird), seldom forsake it until it is excluded. The male, who is better furnished for flight, feeds the female during this interval; and so bare is the place where she sits, that the egg would very often roll down from the rock did not the body of the bird support it.

But the puffin seldom chooses these inaccessible and troublesome heights for its situation. Relying on its courage and the strength of its bill, with which it bites most terribly, it either makes or finds a hole in the ground where to lay and bring forth its young. All the winter these birds, like the rest, are absent, visiting regions too remote for discovery. At the latter end of March or the beginning of April a troop of their spies or harbingers come over and stay two or three days, as it

were to view and search out for their former situations, and see whether all be well. This done, they once more depart, and about the beginning of May return again with the whole army of their companions. But if the season happens to be stormy and tempestuous and the sea troubled, the unfortunate voyagers undergo incredible hardships; they are found by hundreds, cast away upon the shores, lean and perished with famine. It is most probable, therefore, that this voyage is performed more on the water than in the air; and as they cannot fish in stormy weather, their strength is exhausted before they can arrive at their wished-for harbour.

The puffin, when it prepares for breeding, which always happens a few days after its arrival, begins to scrape up a hole in the ground not far from the shore, and when it has somewhat penetrated the earth, it then throws itself upon its back, and with bill and claws thus burrows inward, till it has dug a hole with several windings and turnings, from eight to ten feet deep. It particularly seeks to dig under a stone, where it expects the greatest security. In this fortified retreat it lays one egg; which, though the bird be not bigger than a pigeon, is of the size of a hen's egg.

When the young one is excluded the parent's industry and courage is incredible. Few birds or beasts will venture to attack them in their retreats. When the great sea-raven, as Jacobson informs us, comes to take away their young, the puffins boldly oppose him. Their meeting affords a most singular combat. As soon as the raven approaches the puffin catches him under the throat with its beak and sticks its claws into his breast, which makes the raven, with a loud screaming, attempt to get away; but the little bird still holds fast to the invader, nor lets him go till they both come to the sea, where they drop down together, and the raven is drowned; yet the raven is but too often successful; and, invading the puffin at the bottom of its hole, devours both the parent and its family.

But were a punishment to be inflicted for immorality in irrational animals, the puffin is justly a sufferer from invasion, as it is often itself one of the most terrible invaders. Near the Isle of Anglesey, in an islet called "Priesholm," their flocks may be compared, for multitude, to swarms of bees. In another islet, called the "Calf of Man," a bird of this kind, but of a different species, is seen in great abundance. In both places numbers of rabbits are found to breed; but the puffin, unwilling to be at the trouble of making a hole when there is one ready made, dispossesses the rabbits, and it is not unlikely destroys their young. It is in these unjustly acquired retreats that the young puffins are found in great numbers, and become a very valuable acquisition to the natives of the place. The old ones (I am now speaking of the Manks puffin) early in the morning, at break of day, leave their nests and young, and even the island, nor do their return till night-fall. All this time they are diligently employed in fishing for their young; so that their retreats on land, which in the morning were loud and clamorous, are now still and quiet, with not a wing stirring till the approach of the dusk, when their screams once more announce their return. Whatever fish or other food they have procured in the day by night begins to suffer a kind of half digestion, and is reduced to an oily matter, which is ejected from the stomach of the old ones into the mouth of the young. By this they are nourished, and become fat to an amazing degree. When they are arrived to their full growth, they who are entrusted by the lord of the island draw them from their holes; and, that they may more readily keep an account of the number they take, cut off one foot as a token. Their flesh is said to be excessively rank, as they feed upon fish (especially sprats) and seaweed; however, when they are pickled and preserved with spices, they are admired by those who are fond of high eating. We are told that formerly their flesh

was allowed by the church on Lent days. They were at that time also taken by ferrets, as we do rabbits. At present they are either dug out or drawn out from their burrows with a hooked stick. They bite extremely hard, and keep such fast hold of whatever they seize upon as not to be easily disengaged. Their noise when taken is very disagreeable, being like the efforts of a dumb person attempting to speak.

The constant depredation which these birds annually suffer does not in the least seem to intimidate them, or drive them away: on the contrary, as the people say, the nest must be robbed, or the old ones will breed there no longer. All birds of this kind lay one egg; yet if that be taken away they will lay another, and so on to a third; which seems to imply that robbing their nests does not much intimidate them from laying again. Those, however, whose nests have been thus destroyed are often too late in bringing up their young—who, if they be not fledged and prepared for migration when all the rest depart, are left on land to shift for themselves. In August the whole tribe is seen to take leave of their summer residence; nor are they observed any more till the return of the ensuing spring. It is probable that they sail away to more southern regions, as our mariners frequently see myriads of water-fowl upon their return, and steering usually to the north. Indeed, the coldest countries seem to be their most favoured retreats; and the number of water-fowl is much greater in those colder climates than in the warmer regions near the line. The quantity of oil which abounds in their bodies serves as a defence against cold, and preserves them in vigour against its severity; but the same provision of oil is rather detrimental in warm countries, as it turns rancid, and many of them die of disorders which arise from its putrefaction. In general, however, water-fowl can be properly said to be of no climate, the element upon which they live being their proper residence. They necessarily spend a few months of summer upon land to bring up their young; but the rest of their time is probably consumed in their migrations, or near some unknown coasts, where their provision of fish is found in greatest abundance.

Before I go to the third general division of water-fowls, it may not be improper to observe that there is one species of round-billed water-fowl that does not properly lie within any of the former distributions. This is the *gooseander*—a bird with the body and wing shaped like those of the penguin kind, but with legs not hid in the belly. It may be distinguished from all others by its bill, which is round, hooked at the point, and toothed, both the upper and under chap. like a saw. Its colours are various and beautiful; however, its manners and appetites entirely resemble those of the diver. It feeds upon fish, for which it dives; and is said to build its nest upon trees, like the heron and the cormorant. It seems to form the shade between the penguin and the goose kind—having a round bill like one, and unembarrassed legs like the other. In the shape of the head, neck, and body it resembles them both.

CHAP. IX.

OF BIRDS OF THE GOOSE KIND, PROPERLY SO CALLED.

The swan, the goose, and the duck are leaders of a numerous, useful, and beautiful tribe of birds, that we have reclaimed from a state of nature, and have taught to live in dependence about us. To describe any of these would be as superfluous as definitions usually are when given of things with which we are already well acquainted. There are few that have not had opportunities of seeing them, and whose ideas would not anticipate our description. But though nothing be so easy as

to distinguish these in general from each other, yet the largest of the duck kind approach the goose so nearly, that it may be proper to mark the distinctions.

The marks of a goose are—a bigger body, large wings, a longer neck, a white ring about the rump, a bill thicker at the base, slenderer towards the tip, with shorter legs, placed forward on the body. They both have a waddling walk; but the duck, from the position of its legs, has it in a greater degree. By these marks these similar tribes may be known asunder; and though the duck should be found to equal the goose in size, which sometimes happens, yet there are still other sufficient distinctions.

But they all agree in many particulars, and have a nearer affinity to each other than the neighbouring kinds in any other department. Their having been tamed has produced alterations in each, by which they differ as much from the wild ones of their respective kinds as they do among themselves. There is nearly as much difference between the wild and the tame duck as between some sorts of the duck and the goose; but still the characteristics of the kind are strongly marked and obvious, and this tribe can never be mistaken.

The bill is the first great obvious distinction of the goose kind from all of the feathered tribe. In other birds it is round and wedge-like, or crooked at the end. In all the goose kind it is flat and broad, made for the purpose of skimming ponds and lakes of the mantling weeds that stand on the surface. The bills of other birds are made of a horny substance throughout; these have their inoffensive bills sheathed with a skin which covers them all over. The bill of every other bird seems in some measure formed for piercing and tearing; theirs are only fitted for shovelling up their food, which is chiefly of the vegetable kind.

Though these birds do not reject animal food when offered them, yet they can contentedly subsist upon vegetables, and seldom seek any other. They are easily provided for; wherever there is water there seems to be plenty. All the other web-footed tribes are continually voracious—continually preying. These lead more harmless lives: the weeds on the surface of the water or the insects at the bottom, the grass by the bank or the fruits and corn in cultivated grounds, are sufficient to satisfy their easy appetites: yet these, like every other animal, will not reject fish if properly prepared for them; it is sufficient praise to them that they do not eagerly pursue it.

As their food is chiefly vegetables, so their fecundity is in proportion. We have had frequent opportunities to observe that all the predatory tribes, whether of birds or quadrupeds, are barren and unfruitful. We have seen the lion with its two cubs, the eagle with the same number, and the penguin with even but one. Nature, that has supplied them with powers of destruction, has denied them fertility. But it is otherwise with these harmless animals I am describing. They seem formed to fill up the chasms in Animated Nature caused by the voraciousness of others. They breed in great abundance, and lead their young to the pool the instant they are excluded.

As their food is simple, so their flesh is nourishing and wholesome. The swan was considered as a high delicacy among the ancients; the goose was abstained from as totally indigestible. Modern manners have inverted tastes; the goose is now become the favourite; and the swan is now seldom brought to table unless for the purposes of ostentation. But at all times the flesh of the duck was in high esteem; the ancients thought even more highly of it than we do. We are contented to eat it as a delicacy; they also considered it as a medicine; and Plutarch assures us that Cato kept his whole family in health by feeding them with duck whenever they threatened to be out of order.

These qualities of great fecundity, easy sustenance,

and wholesome nourishment have been found so considerable as to induce man to take these birds from a state of nature and render them domestic. How long they have been thus dependents upon his pleasures is not known; for from the earliest accounts they were considered as familiars about him. The time must have been very remote; for there have been many changes wrought in their colours, their figures, and even in their internal parts, by human cultivation. The different kinds of these birds in a wild state are simple in their colourings: when one has seen a wild goose or a wild duck a description of its plumage will, to a feather, exactly correspond with that of any other. But in the tame kinds no two of any species are exactly alike. Different in their size, their colours, and frequently in their general form, they seem the mere creatures of Art; and, having been so long dependent upon man for support, they seem to assume forms entirely suited to his pleasures or necessities.

CHAP. X.

OF THE SWAN, TAME AND WILD.

No bird makes a more indifferent figure upon land, or a more beautiful one in the water, than the swan. When it ascends from its favourite element its motions are awkward, and its neck is stretched forward with an air of stupidity; but when it is seen smoothly sailing along the water, commanding a thousand graceful attitudes, moving at pleasure without the smallest effort—when it “proudly rows in state,” as Milton has it, “with arched neck between its white wings mantling,” there is not a more beautiful figure in all Nature. In the exhibitions of its form there are no broken or harsh lines—no constrained or catching motions, but the roundest contours and the easiest transitions. The eye wanders over every part with insatiable pleasure, and every part takes a new grace with new motion.

This fine bird has long been rendered domestic; and it is now a doubt whether there be any of the tame kind in a state of nature. The wild swan, though so strongly resembling this in colour and form, is yet a different bird; for it is very differently formed within. The wild swan is less than the tame one by almost a fourth; for as the one weighs twenty pounds, the other weighs sixteen pounds and three quarters. The colour of the tame swan is all over white; that of the wild bird is, along the back and the tips of the wings, of an ash-colour. But these are slight differences to what are found upon dissection. In the tame swan the windpipe sinks down into the lungs in the ordinary manner; but in the wild one, after a strange and wonderful contortion, like what we have seen in the crane, it enters through a hole formed in the breast-bone, and, being reflected therein, returns by the same aperture; being contracted into a narrow compass by a broad and bony cartilage, it is divided into two branches, which, before they enter the lungs, are dilated, and as it were swollen out into two cavities.

Such is the extraordinary difference between these two animals, which externally seem to be of one species. Whether it is in the power of long-continued captivity and domestication to produce this strange variety between birds otherwise the same I will not take upon me to determine; but certain it is that our tame swan is nowhere to be found, at least in Europe, in a state of nature.

As it is not easy to account for this difference of conformation, so it is still more difficult to reconcile the accounts of the ancients with the experience of the moderns concerning the vocal powers of this bird. The tame swan is one of the most silent of all birds; and

the wild one has a note extremely loud and disagreeable. It is probable the convolutions of the windpipe may contribute to increase the clangour of it; for such is the harshness of its voice, that the bird from hence has been called the “hooper.” In neither is there the smallest degree of melody; nor have they, for above this century, been said to give specimens of the smallest musical abilities; yet, notwithstanding this, it was the general opinion of antiquity that the swan was a most melodious bird: and that even to its death its voice went on improving. It would show no learning to produce what they have said upon the music of the swan; it has already been collected by Aldrovandus, and still more professedly by Gedoyn, in the Transactions of the Academy of Belles Lettres. From these accounts it appears that, while Plato, Aristotle, and Diodorus Siculus, believed the vocality of the swan, Pliny and Virgil seemed to doubt that received opinion. In this equipoise of authority Aldrovandus seems to have determined in favour of the Greek philosophers; and the form of the windpipe in the wild swan, so much resembling a musical instrument, inclined his belief still more strongly. In aid of this, also, came the testimony of Pendasius, who affirmed that he had often heard swans sweetly singing in the lake of Mantua, as he was rowed up and down in a boat; as also of Olaus Wormius, who professed that many of his friends and scholars had heard them singing. “There was,” says he, “in my family a very honest young man, John Rostorph, a student in divinity, and a Norwegian by nation. This man did, upon his credit and the interposition of an oath, solemnly affirm, that once, in the territory of Dronten, when standing on the sea-shore early in the morning he heard an unusual and sweet murmur, composed of the most pleasant whistlings and sounds; he knew not at first whence they came, or how they were made, for he saw no man near to produce them; but looking round about him, and climbing to the top of a certain promontory, he there espied an infinite number of swans gathered together in a bay, and making the most delightful harmony—a sweeter in all his life-time he had never heard.” These were accounts sufficient at least to keep opinion in suspense, though in contradiction to our own experience; but Aldrovandus, to put, as he supposed, the question past all doubt, gives us the testimony of a countryman of our own, from whom he had the relation. This honest man’s name was Mr. George Braun, who assured him that nothing was more common in England than to hear swans sing; that they were bred in great numbers in the sea near London; and that every fleet of ships that returned from their voyages from distant countries were met by swans, that came joyfully out to welcome their return, and salute them with loud and cheerful singing! It was in this manner that Aldrovandus, that great and good man, was frequently imposed upon by the designing and the needy: his unbounded curiosity drew around him people of every kind, and his generosity was as ready to reward falsehood as truth. Poor Aldrovandus! after having spent a vast fortune for the purposes of enlightening mankind—after having collected more truth and more falsehood than any man ever did before him, he little thought of being reduced at last to want bread, to feel the ingratitude of his country, and to die a beggar in a public hospital!

Thus it appears that our modern authorities in favour of the singing of swans are rather suspicious, since they are reduced to Mr. John Braun and John Rostorph, the native of a country remarkable for ignorance and credulity. It is probable the ancients had some mythological meaning in ascribing melody to the swan: and as for the moderns, they scarce deserve our regard. The swan, therefore, must be content to remain with that share of fame which it possesses on the score of its beauty—since the melody of its voice without better





BLACK NECKED SWANS.

testimony will scarcely be admitted by even the credulous.

This beautiful bird is as delicate in its appetites as it is elegant in its form. Its chief food is corn, bread, herbs growing in the water, and roots and seeds which are found near the margin. It prepares a nest in some retired parts of the bank, and chiefly where there is an islet in the stream. This is composed of water-plants, long grass, and sticks; and the male and female assist in forming it with great assiduity. The swan lays seven or eight eggs, white, much larger than those of a goose, with a hard, and sometimes a tuberculous shell. It sits near two months before its young are excluded, which are ash-coloured when they first leave the shell, and for some months after. It is not a little dangerous to approach the old ones when their little family are feeding round them. There fear as well as their pride seem to take the alarm; and they have sometimes been known to give a blow with their pinion that has broken a man's leg or arm.

It is not till they are a twelvemonth old that the young swans change colour with their plumage. All the stages of this bird's approach to maturity are slow, and seem to mark its longevity. It is two months hatching—a year in growing to its proper size—and if, according to Pliny's observation, that those animals that are longest in the womb are the longest lived, the swan is the longest in the shell of any bird we know, and is said to be remarkable for its longevity. Some say that it lives three hundred years; and Willoughby, who is in general diffident enough, seems to believe the report. A goose, as he justly observes, has been known to live a hundred; and the swan, from its superior size and from its harder, firmer flesh, may naturally be supposed to live still longer.

Swans were formerly held in such great esteem in England, that, by an act of Edward the Fourth, none except the son of a king was permitted to keep a swan unless possessed of five marks a year. By a subsequent act, the punishment for taking their eggs was imprisonment for a year and a day, and a fine at the king's will. At present they are but little valued for the delicacy of their flesh; but many are still preserved for their beauty. We see multitudes on the Thames and Trent; but no where do we see greater numbers than on the salt water inlet of the sea near Abbotsbury, in Dorsetshire.

The "black-necked swans" are natives of the Falkland Isles, as well as of South America. They are an exceedingly scarce species in Great Britain, there not being more than half a dozen pair. The engraving represents a pair in their native element, lately presented by the Earl of Derby to the Zoological Gardens, Regent's-park.

CHAP. XI.

OF THE GOOSE AND ITS VALUE.

The goose in its domestic state exhibits a variety of colours. The wild goose always retains the same marks: the whole upper part is ash-coloured; the breast and belly are of a dirty white; the bill is narrow at the base, and at the tip it is black; the legs are of a saffron-colour, and the claws black. These marks are seldom found in the tame goose, whose bill is entirely red, and whose legs are entirely brown. The wild goose is rather less than the tame one; but both invariably retain a white ring round their tail, which shows that they are both descended from the same original.

The wild goose is supposed to breed in the northern parts of Europe, and in the beginning of winter to descend into more temperate regions. They are often seen flying at very great heights in flocks from fifty to a hundred, and seldom resting by day. Their cry is fre-

quently heard when they are at an imperceptible distance above us; and this seems banded from one to the other, as among hounds in the pursuit. Whether this be the note of mutual encouragement or the necessary consequence of respiration is doubtful; but they seldom exert it when they alight in these journeys.

Upon their coming to the ground by day they range themselves in a line, like cranes, and seem rather to have descended for rest than for other refreshment. When they have sat in this manner for an hour or two, I have heard one of them, with a loud long note, sound a kind of charge, to which the rest punctually attended, and they pursued their journey with renewed alacrity. Their flight is very regularly arranged: they either go in a line a-breast, or in two lines, joining in an angle in the middle. I doubt whether the form of their flight be thus arranged to cut the air with greater ease, as is commonly believed; I am more apt to think it is to present a smaller mark to fowlers from below. A bullet might easily reach them, if huddled together in a flock, and the same discharge might destroy several at once; but by their manner of flying, no shot from below can affect above one of them; and from the height at which they fly this is not easy to be accomplished.

The barnacle differs in some respects from both these—being less than either, with a black bill, much shorter than either of the preceding. It is scarce necessary to combat the idle error of this bird's being bred from a shell sticking to ships' bottoms; it is well known to be hatched from an egg in the ordinary manner, and to differ in very few particulars from all the rest of its kind.

The brent goose is still less than the former, and not bigger than a Muscovy duck, except that the body is longer. The head, neck, and upper part of the breast are black; about the middle of the neck, on each side, are two small spots or lines of white, which together appear like a ring.

These and many other varieties are found in this kind, which agree in one common character of feeding upon vegetables, and being remarkable for their fecundity. Of these, however, the tame goose is the most fruitful. Having less to fear from its enemies, leading a securer and a more plentiful life, its prolific powers increase in proportion to its ease; and though the wild goose seldom lays above eight eggs, the tame goose is often seen to lay above twenty. The female hatches her eggs with great assiduity; while the gander visits her twice or thrice a day, and sometimes drives her off to take her place, where he sits with great state and composure.

But beyond that of all animals is his pride when the young are excluded; he seems then to consider himself as a champion, not only obliged to defend his young, but also to keep off the suspicion of danger; he pursues dogs and men that never attempt to molest him; and, though the most harmless thing alive, is then the most petulant and provoking. When in this manner he has pursued the calf or the mastiff, to whose contempt alone he is indebted for safety, he returns to his female and her brood in triumph, clapping his wings, screaming, and showing all the marks of conscious superiority. It is probable, however, these arts succeed in raising his importance among the tribe where they are displayed; and it is probable there is not a more respectable animal on earth to a goose than a gander!

A young goose is generally reckoned very good eating; yet the feathers of this bird still farther increase its value. I feel my obligations to this animal every word I write; for, however deficient a man's head may be, his pen is nimble enough upon every occasion: it is happy indeed for us that it requires no great effort to put it in motion. But the feathers of this bird are still as valuable in another capacity, as they make the softest and the warmest beds to sleep on.

Of goose feathers most of our beds in Europe are

composed; in the countries bordering on the Levant, and in all Asia, the use of them is utterly unknown. They there use mattresses stuffed with wool or camels-hair or cotton; and the warmth of the climate may perhaps make them dispense with cushions of a softer kind. But how it happens that the ancients had not the use of feather beds is to me surprising. Pliny tells us, indeed, that they made bolsters of feathers to lay their heads on; and this serves as a proof that they turned feathers to no other uses.

As feathers are a very valuable commodity, great numbers of geese are kept tame in the fens in Lincolnshire, which are plucked once or twice a-year. These make a considerable article of commerce. The feathers of Somersetshire are most in esteem; those of Ireland are also reckoned good. Hudson's Bay also furnishes very fine feathers, supposed to be of the goose kind. The down of the swan is brought from Dantzic. The same place also sends us great quantities of the feathers of the cock and hen; but Greenland, Iceland, and Norway furnish the best feathers of all: and in this number we may reckon the eider-down, of which we shall take notice in its place. The best method of curing feathers is to lay them in a room in an open exposure to the sun, and, when dried, to put them into bags, and beat them well with poles to get the dust off. But after all, nothing will prevent for a time the heavy smell which arises from the putrefaction of the oil contained in every feather; no exposure will draw this off, how long soever it be continued; they must be lain upon, which is the only remedy; and for this reason old feathers are much more valuable than new.

CHAP. XII.

OF THE DUCK AND ITS VARIETIES.

The tame duck is the most easily reared of all our domestic animals. The very instinct of the young ones direct them to their favourite element; and though they are conducted by a hen, yet they despise the admonitions of their leader.

This serves as an incontestible proof that all birds have their manners rather from Nature than education. A falcon pursues the partridge, not because it is taught by the old one, but because its appetites make their importunate call for animal food; the cuckoo follows a very different trade from that which its nurse endeavoured to teach it, and, if we may credit Pliny, in time destroys its instructor; animals of the duck kind also follow their appetites, not their tutor, and come to all the various perfections without any guide. All the arts possessed by man are the result of accumulated experience—all the arts of inferior animals are self-taught, and scarce one is acquired by imitation.

It is usual with the good women to lay duck-eggs under a hen, because she hatches them better than the original parent would have done. The duck seems to be a heedless, inattentive mother; she frequently leaves her eggs till they spoil, and even seems to forget that she is entrusted with the charge: she is equally regardless of them when excluded; she leads them to the pond, and thinks she has sufficiently provided for her offspring when she has shown them the water. Whatever advantages may be procured by coming near the house or attending the yard, she declines them all; and often lets the vermin that haunt the waters destroy them, rather than bring them to take shelter nearer home. The hen is a nurse of a very opposite character; she broods with the utmost assiduity, and generally brings forth a young one from every egg committed to her charge; she does not lead her younglings to the water indeed, but she watchfully guards them when there by standing at the

brink. Should the rat or the weasel attempt to seize them, the hen can give them protection; she leads them to the house when tired with paddling, and rears up the suppositious brood without ever supposing that they belong to another.

The wild duck differs in many respects from the tame one; and in them there is still greater variety than among the domestic kinds. Of the tame duck there are not less than ten different sorts; and of the wild, Brisson reckons above twenty. The most obvious distinction between wild and tame ducks is in the colour of their feet—those of the tame duck being yellow, those of the wild duck black. The difference between wild ducks among each other arises as well from their size as the nature of the place they feed in. Sea-ducks, which feed in the salt-water, and dive much, have a broad bill, bending upwards, a large hind-toe, and a long blunt tail. Pond-ducks, which feed in plashe, have a straight and narrow bill, a small hind-toe, and a sharp-pointed train. The former are called by our decoy-men "foreign ducks"—the latter are supposed to be natives of England. It would be tedious to enter into the minute varieties of such a number of birds, all agreeing in the same general figure, the same habits and mode of living, and differing in little more than their size and the colours of their plumage. In this tribe we may rank, as natives of our own European dominions, the eider-duck, which is double the size of a common duck, with a black bill; the velvet duck, not so large, and with a yellow bill; the scoter, with a knob at the base of a yellow bill; the tufted duck, adorned with a thick crest; the scaup duck, less than the common duck, with the bill of a greyish-blue colour; the golden eye, with a large white spot at the corners of the mouth, resembling an eye; the sheldrake, with the bill of a bright red, and swelling into a knob; the mallard, which is the stock from whence our tame breed has probably been produced; the pintail, with the two middle feathers of the tail three inches longer than the rest; the pochard, with the head and neck of a bright bay; the widgeon, with a lead-coloured bill, and the plumage of the back marked with narrow black and white undulated lines, but best known by its whistling sound; lastly, the teal, which is the smallest of this kind, with the bill black, the head and upper part of the neck of a bright bay. These are the most common birds of the duck kind among ourselves; but who can describe the amazing variety of this tribe if he extends his view to the different quarters of the world? The most noted of the foreign tribe are, the Muscovy duck—or, more properly speaking, the musk duck, so called from a supposed musky smell—with naked skin round the eyes, and which is a native of Africa; the Brazilian duck, of the size of a goose, all over black except the tips of the wings. The American wood-duck, with a variety of beautiful colours, and a plume of feathers that falls from the back of the head like a friar's cowl. These, and twenty others, might be added, were increasing the number of names the way to enlarge the sphere of our comprehension.

All these live in the manner of our domestic ducks, keeping together in flocks in the winter, and flying in pairs in summer, bringing up their young by the water side, and leading them to their food as soon as out of the shell. Their nests are usually built among heath or rushes, not far from the water; and they lay twelve or fourteen eggs before they sit. Yet this is not always their method; the dangers they continually encounter from their ground situation sometimes obliges them to change their previous manner of building: and their awkward nests are often seen exalted on the tops of trees. This must be a very great labour to perform, as the duck's bill is but ill-formed for building a nest, and giving the materials of which it is composed a sufficient stability to stand the weather. The nest, whether high or low, is generally composed of singular materials.

The longest grass mixed with heath, and lined within with the bird's own feathers, usually go to the composition; however, in proportion as the climate is colder the nest is more artificially made and more warmly lined. In the arctic regions nothing can exceed the great care all of this kind take to protect their eggs from the intenseness of the weather. While the gull and the penguin kind seem to disregard the severest cold, the duck in these regions forms itself a hole to lay in, shelters the approach, and lines it with a layer of long grass and clay; within that is another layer of moss, and, lastly, a warm coat of feathers or down. The eider-duck is particularly remarkable for the warmth of its nest. This bird—which, as was said, is about twice as large as the common duck, and resides in the colder climates—lays from six to eight eggs, makes her nest among the rocks or the plants along the sea-shore. The external materials of the nest are such as are in common use with the rest of the kind; but the inside lining, on which the eggs are immediately deposited, is at once the softest, warmest, and the lightest substance with which we are acquainted. This is no other than the inside down which covers the breast of the bird in the breeding season. This the female plucks off with her bill, and furnishes the inside of her nest with a tapestry more valuable than the most skilful artists can produce. The natives watch the place where she begins to build, and, suffering her to lay, take away both the eggs and the nest. The duck, however, not discouraged by the first disappointment, builds and lays in the same place a second time; and this in the same manner they take away; the third time she builds, but the drake must supply the down from his breast to line the nest with; and if this be robbed, they forsake the place and breed there no more. This down the natives take care to separate from the dirt and moss with which it is mixed; and though no people stand in more need of a warm covering than themselves, yet their necessities compel them to sell it to the more indolent and luxurious inhabitants of the south for brandy and tobacco.

As they possess the faculties of flying and swimming, so they are in general birds of passage, and, it is most probable, perform their journeys across the ocean as well on the water as in the air. Those that migrate to this country on the approach of winter are seldom found so well tasted or so fat as the fowls that continue with us the year round: their flesh is often lean, and still oftener fishy—which flavour it has probably contracted in the journey, as their food in the lakes of Lapland, from whence they descend, is generally of the insect kind.

As soon as they arrive among us, they are generally seen flying in flocks to make a survey of those lakes where they intend to take up their residence for the winter. In the choice of this they have two objects in view—to be near their food, and yet remote from interruption. Their chief aim is to choose some lake in the neighbourhood of a marsh, where there is at the same time a cover of woods, and where insects are found in greatest abundance. Lakes, therefore, with a marsh on one side and a wood on the other, are seldom without vast quantities of wild-fowl; and where a couple are seen at any time that is a sufficient inducement to bring hundreds of others. The ducks in the air are often lured down from their heights by the loud voice of the mallard from below. Nature seems to have furnished this bird with very particular faculties for calling. The windpipe where it begins to enter the lungs opens into a kind of bony cavity, where the sound is reflected as in a musical instrument, that is heard a great way off. To this call all the stragglers resort; and in a week or a fortnight's time, a lake that before was quite naked is black with water-fowl, that have left their Lapland retreats to keep company with our ducks who never stirred from home.

They generally choose that part of the lake where they are inaccessible to the approach of the fowler, in which they all appear huddled together, extremely busy and very loud. What it is can employ them all the day is not easy to guess. There is no food for them at the place where they sit and cabal thus, as they choose the middle of the lake; and as for courtship, the season has not arrived; so that it is wonderful what can so keep them occupied. Not one of them seems a moment at rest. Now pursuing one another, now screaming, then all up at once, then down again; the whole seems one strange scene of bustle, with nothing to do.

They frequently go off in a more private manner by night to feed in the adjacent meadows and ditches, which they dare not venture to approach by day. In these nocturnal adventures they are often taken; for, though a timorous bird, yet they are easily deceived, and every spring seems to succeed in taking them. But the greatest quantities are taken in decoys—which, though well-known near London, are yet untried in the remoter parts of the country. The manner of making and managing a decoy is as follows:—

A place is to be chosen for this purpose far remote from the common highway and all noise of people. A decoy is best where there is a large pond surrounded by a wood, and beyond that a marshy and uncultivated country. When the place is chosen, the pool, if possible, is to be planted round with willows, unless a wood answers the purpose of shading it on every side. On the south and north side of this pool are two, three, or four ditches or channels, which are covered over with nets, supported by hooped sticks bending from one side to the other; so that they form a vault or arch growing narrower and narrower to the point, where it is terminated by a tunnel-net, like that in which fish are caught in weirs. Along the banks of these channels so netted over, which are called pipes, many hedges are made of reeds slanting to the edge of the channel, the acute angles to the side next the pool. The whole apparatus, also, is to be hidden from the pool by a hedge of reeds along the margin, behind which the fowler manages his operations. The place being fitted in this manner, the fowler is to provide himself with a number of wild ducks made tame, which are called decoys. These are always to be fed at the mouth or entrance of the pipe, and to be accustomed to come at a whistle.

As soon as the evening is set in, the decoy rises, as they term it, and the wild fowl feed during the night. If the evening be still, the noise of their wings during their flight is heard at a very great distance, and produces no unpleasant sensation. The fowler, when he finds a fit opportunity, and sees his decoy covered with fowl, walks about the pool, and observes into what pipe the birds gathered in the pool may be enticed or driven. Then casting hempseed, or some such seed as will float on the surface of the water, at the entrance and up along the pipe, he whistles to his decoy-ducks, who instantly obey the summons, and come to the entrance of the pipe in hopes of being fed as usual. Thither also they are followed by a whole flock of wild ones, who little suspect the danger preparing against them. Their sense of smelling, however, is very exquisite; and they would soon discover their enemy, but that the fowler always keeps a piece of turf burning at his nose, against which he breathes; and this prevents the effluvia of his person from reaching their exquisite senses. The wild ducks, therefore, pursuing the decoy-ducks, are led into the broad mouth of the channel or pipe, nor have the least suspicion of the man, who keeps hidden behind one of the hedges. When they have got up the pipe, however, finding it grow more and more narrow, they begin to suspect danger, and would return back; but they are now prevented by the man, who shows himself at the broad end below. Thither, therefore, they dare not return; and rise they may not, as they are kept by the

net above from ascending. The only way left them, therefore, is the narrow-funnelled net at the bottom; into this they fly, and there they are taken.

It often happens, however, that the wild-fowl are in such a state of sleepiness or dozing that they will not follow the decoy-ducks. Use is then generally made of a dog who is taught his lesson. He passes backward and forward between the reed-hedges, in which there are little holes, both for the decoy-man to see and for the little dog to pass through. This attracts the eye of the wild-fowl; who, prompted by curiosity, advance towards this little animal, while he all the time keeps playing among the reeds, nearer and nearer the funnel, till they follow him too far to recede. Sometimes the dog will not attract their attention till a red handkerchief, or something very singular, be put about him. The decoy-ducks never enter the funnel-net with the rest, being taught to dive under water as soon as the rest are driven in.

The general season for catching fowl in decoys is from the latter end of October till February. The taking them earlier was prohibited by an act of George the Second, which imposed a penalty of five shillings for every bird destroyed at any other season.

The Lincolnshire decoys are commonly let at a certain annual rent. These principally contribute to supply the markets of London with wild fowl. The number of ducks, widgeons, and teal that are sent thither is amazing. Above thirty thousand have been sent up in one season from ten decoys in the neighbourhood of Wainfleet.

To this manner of taking the wild-fowl in England I will subjoin another still more extraordinary, frequently practised in China. Whenever the fowler sees a number of ducks settled in any particular plash of water, he sends off two or three gourds to float among them. These gourds resemble our pumpkins; but, being made hollow, they swim on the surface of the water; and on one pool there may sometimes be seen twenty or thirty of these gourds floating together. The fowl at first are a little shy of coming near them; but by degrees they come nearer; and as all birds at last grow familiar with a scare-crow, the ducks gather about these, and amuse themselves by whetting their bills against them. When the birds are as familiar with the gourds as the fowler could wish, he then prepares to deceive them in good earnest. He hollows out one of those gourds large enough to put his head in; and, making holes to breathe and see through, he claps it on his head. Thus accoutred, he wades slowly into the water, keeping his body under, and nothing but his head in the gourd above the surface; and in that manner he moves imperceptibly towards the fowls, who suspect no danger. At last, however, he fairly gets in among them; while they, having been long used to the gourds, take not the least fright while the enemy is in the very midst of them; and an insidious enemy he is; for ever as he approaches a fowl he seizes it by the legs, and draws it by a jerk under water. There he fastens it under his girdle, and goes to the next, till he has thus loaded himself with as many as he can carry away. When he has got his quantity, without ever attempting to disturb the rest of the fowls on the pool, he slowly moves off again; and in this manner pays the flock three or four visits in a day. Of all the various artifices for catching fowl, this seems likely to be attended with the greatest success, as it is the most practised in China.

CHAP. XIII.

OF THE KING-FISHER.

I will conclude the history of birds with one that seems to unite in itself somewhat of every class preceding. It seems at once possessed of appetites for prey like the

rapacious kinds, with an attachment to water like the birds of that element. It exhibits in its form the beautiful plumage of the peacock, the shadings of the humming-bird, the bill of the crane, and the short legs of the swallow. The bird I mean is the king-fisher, of which many extraordinary falsehoods have been propagated, and yet of which many extraordinary things remain to be said that are actually true.

The king-fisher is not much larger than a swallow; its shape is clumsy; the legs disproportionably small, and the bill disproportionably long; it is two inches from the base to the tip; the upper chap black, and the lower yellow; but the colours of this bird atone for its inelegant form; the crown of the head and the coverts of the wings are of a deep blackish grey, spotted with bright azure; the back and tail are of the most resplendent azure; the whole under-side of the body is orange-coloured; a broad mark of the same passes from the bill beyond the eyes; beyond that is a large white spot; the tail is short, and consists of twelve feathers of a rich deep blue; the feet are of a reddish yellow, and the three joints of the outmost toe adhere to the middle toe, while the inner toe adheres only by one.

From the diminutive size, the slender short legs, and the beautiful colours of this bird, no person would be led to suppose it one of the most rapacious little animals that skims the deep. Yet it is for ever on the wing, and feeds on fish, which it takes in surprising quantities when we consider its size and figure. It chiefly frequents the banks of rivers, and takes its prey after the manner of the osprey, balancing itself at a certain distance above the water for a considerable space, then darting into the deep, and seizing the fish with inevitable certainty. While it remains suspended in the air in a bright day, the plumage exhibits a beautiful variety of the most dazzling and brilliant colours. It might have been this extraordinary beauty that has given rise to fable; for wherever there is anything uncommon fancy is always willing to increase the wonder.

Of this bird it has been said that she built her nest on the water, and thus in a few days hatched and produced her young. But, to be uninterrupted in this task, she was said to be possessed of a charm to allay the fury of the waves; and during this period the mariner might sail with the greatest security. The ancient poets are full of these fables; their historians are not exempt from them. Cicero has written a long poem in praise of the halcyon, of which there remains but two lines. Even the Emperor Gordian has written a poem on this subject, of which we have nothing remaining. These fables have been adopted each by one of the earliest fathers of the church. "Behold," says St. Ambrose, "the little bird, which in the midst of the winter lays her eggs on the sand by the shore. From that moment the winds are hushed, the sea becomes smooth, and the calm continues for fourteen days. This is the time she requires—seven days to hatch, and seven days to foster her young. Their Creator has taught these little animals to make their nest in the midst of the most stormy season, only to manifest His kindness by granting them a lasting calm. The seamen are not ignorant of this blessing; they call this interval of fair weather their 'halcyon days'; and they are particularly careful to seize the opportunity, as then they need fear no interruption." This and a hundred other instances might be given of the credulity of mankind with respect to this bird; they entered into speculations concerning the manner of her calming the deep, the formation of her nest, and her peculiar sagacity; at present we do not speculate, because we know, with respect to our king-fisher, that most of the assertions are false. It may be alleged, indeed, with some show of reason, that the halcyon of the ancients was a different bird from our king-fisher; it may be urged that many birds, especially on the Indian Ocean, build a floating nest upon the sea; but still the history of the ancient

halcyon is clogged with endless fable; and it is but an indifferent method to vindicate falsehood by showing that a part of the story is true.

The king-fisher with which we are acquainted at present has none of those powers of allaying the storm or building upon the waves; it is contented to make its nest on the banks of rivers, in such situations as not to be affected by the rising of the stream. When it has found a place for its purpose, it hollows out with its bill a hole about a yard deep, or if it finds the deserted hole of a rat, or one caused by the root of a tree decaying, it takes quiet possession. This hole it enlarges at the bottom to a good size; and, lining it with the down of the willow, lays its eggs there without any farther preparation.

Its nest, or rather hole, is very different from that described by the ancients, by whom it is said to be made in the shape of a long-necked gourd of the bones of the sea-needle. The bones, indeed, are found there in great quantities, as well as the scales of fishes; but these are the remains of the bird's food, and by no means brought there for the purposes of warmth or convenience. The king-fisher, as Bellonius says, feeds upon fish, but is incapable of digesting the bones and scales, which he throws up again as eagles and owls are seen to do a part of their prey. These fill the bird's nest of course; and, although they seem as if designedly placed there, are only a kind of nuisance.

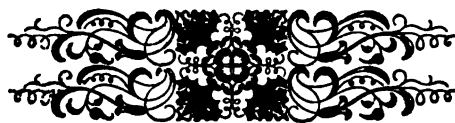
In these holes—which, from the remains of fish brought there, are very foetid—the king-fisher is often found with from five eggs to nine. There the female continues to hatch even though disturbed; and though the nest be robbed she will again return and lay there. "I have had one of these females brought me," says Reaumur, "which was taken from her nest about three leagues from my house. After admiring the beauty of her colours I let her fly again, when the fond creature was seen instantly to return back to the nest where she had just before been made a captive. There joining the male, she began to lay, though it was for the third time, and though the season was very far advanced. At each time she had seven eggs. The older the nest is the greater the quantity of fish-bones and scales does it contain; these are disposed without any order, and sometimes take up a good deal of room."

The female begins to lay early in the season, and excludes her first brood about the beginning of April.

The male, whose fidelity exceeds even that of the turtle, brings her large provisions of fish while she is thus employed; and she, contrary to most other birds, is found plump and fat at that season. The male, that used to twitter before this, now enters the nest as quietly and as privately as possible. The young ones are hatched at the expiration of twenty days; but are seen to differ as well in their size as in their beauty.

As the ancients have had their fables concerning this bird, so have the modern vulgar. It is an opinion generally received among them, that the flesh of the king-fisher will not corrupt, and that it will even banish all vermin. This has no better foundation than that which is said of its always pointing, when hung up dead, with its breast to the north. The only truth which can be affirmed of this bird when killed is, that its flesh is utterly unfit to be eaten; whilst his beautiful plumage preserves its lustre longer than that of any other bird we know.

Having thus given a short history of birds, I own I cannot take leave of this most beautiful part of the creation without reluctance. These splendid inhabitants of air possess all those qualities that can soothe the heart and cheer the fancy—the brightest colours, the roundest forms, the most active manners, and the sweetest music. In sending the imagination in pursuit of these, in following them to the chirruping grove, the screaming precipice, or the glassy deep, the mind naturally lost the sense of its own situation, and attentive to their little sports, almost forgot the task of describing them. Innocently to amuse the imagination in this dream of life is wisdom; and nothing is useless that, by furnishing mental employment, keeps us for a while in oblivion of those stronger appetites that lead to evil. But every rank and state of mankind may find something to imitate in those delightful songsters, and we may not only employ the time, but mend our lives by the contemplation. From their courage in defence of their young, and their assiduity in incubation, the coward may learn to be brave and the rash patient. The inviolable attachment of some to their companions may give lessons of fidelity, and the connubial tenderness of others be a monitor to the incontinent. Even those that are tyrants by nature never spread capricious destruction, and, unlike man, never inflict a pain but when urged by necessity.



PART V.

OF FISHES IN GENERAL.

BOOK I.—CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.—The ocean is the great receptacle of fishes. It has been thought by some that all fish are naturally of that salt element; and that they have mounted up into fresh water by some accidental migration. A few still swim up rivers to deposit their spawn; but of the great body of fishes, of which the size is enormous and the shoals are endless, those all keep to the sea, and would quickly expire in fresh water. In that extensive and undiscovered abode millions reside whose manners are a secret to us, and whose very form is unknown. The curiosity of mankind, indeed, has drawn some from their depths, and he wants many more—with the figure of these at least he is acquainted; but for their pursuits, migrations, societies, antipathies, pleasures, times of gestation, and manner of bringing forth, these all are hidden in the turbulent element that protects them.

The number of fish to which we have given names, and of the figure, at least, of which we know something, according to Linnæus are above four hundred. Thus to appearance, indeed, the history of fish is tolerably copious; but when we come to examine, it will be found that of the greatest part of these we know very little. Those qualities, singularities, or advantages that render animals worth naming still remain to be discovered. The history of fishes, therefore, has little in it entertaining; for our philosophers hitherto, instead of studying their nature, have been employed in increasing their catalogues; and the reader, instead of observations or facts, is presented with a long list of names that disgust him with their barren superfluity. It must displease him to see the language of a science increasing, while the science itself has nothing to repay the increasing tax laid upon his memory.

Most fish offer us the same external form—sharp at either end, and swelling in the middle, by which they are enabled to traverse the fluid which they inhabit with greater celerity and ease. That peculiar shape which Nature has granted to most fishes we endeavour to imitate in such vessels as are designed to sail with the greatest swiftness; however, the progress of a machine moved forward in the water by human contrivance is nothing to the rapidity of an animal destined by nature to reside there. Any of the large fish overtake a ship in full sail with great ease, play round it without effort, and outstrip it at pleasure. Every part of the body seems exerted in this despatch; the fins, the tail, and the motion of the whole back-bone assist progression; and it is to that flexibility of body at which art cannot arrive that fishes owe their great velocity.

The chief instruments in a fish's motion are the fins, which in some fish are much more numerous than in others. A fish completely fitted for sailing is furnished with not less than two pair; also three single fins, two above and one below. Thus equipped, it migrates with the utmost rapidity, and takes voyages of a thousand

leagues in a season. But it does not always happen that such fish as have the greatest number of fins have the swiftest motion; the shark is thought to be one of the swiftest swimmers, yet it wants the ventral or belly-fins; the haddock does not move so swift, yet it is completely fitted for motion.

But the fins serve not only to assist the animal in progression, but in rising or sinking, in turning, or even in leaping out of water. To answer these purposes, the pectoral fins serve, like oars, to push the animal forward; they are placed at some little distance behind the opening of the gills; they are generally large and strong, and answer the same purposes to the fish in the water as wings do to a bird in the air. With the help of these, and by their continued motion, the flying-fish is sometimes seen to rise out of the water, and to fly above a hundred yards; till, fatigued with its exertions, it is obliged to sink down again. These also serve to balance the fish's head when it is too large for the body, and keep it from tumbling to the bottom, as is seen in large-headed fishes when the pectoral fins are cut off. Next these are seen the ventral fins, placed toward the lower part of the body, under the belly; these are always seen to lie flat on the water in whatever situation the fish may be; and they serve rather to depress the fish in its element than to assist progressive motion. The dorsal fin is situated along the ridge of the back, and serves to preserve its equilibrium, as also to assist its progressive motion. In many fishes this is wanting; but in all flat fishes it is very large as the pectoral fins are proportionably small. The anal fin occupies that part of the fish which lies between the anus and the tail; and this serves to keep the fish in its upright or vertical position. Lastly, the tail, which in some fishes is flat and upright in others, seems the grand instrument of motion: the fins are all subservient to it, and give direction to its great impetus, by which the fish seems to dart forward with so much velocity. To explain all this by experiment:—A carp is taken and put into a large vessel. The fish in a state of repose spreads all its fins, and seems to rest upon its pectoral and ventral fins at the bottom: if the fish folds up (for it has the power of folding) either of its pectoral fins it inclines to the same side; folding the right pectoral fin, the fish inclines to that side in turn. When the fish desires to have a retrograde motion, striking with the pectoral fins in a contrary direction effectually produces it. If the fish desires to turn, a blow from the tail sends it about; but if the tail strikes both ways, then the motion is progressive. In pursuance of these observations, if the dorsal and ventral fins be cut off the fish reels to the right and left, and endeavours to supply its loss by keeping the rest of its fins in constant employment. If the right pectoral fin be cut off the fish leans to that side; if the ventral fin on the same side be cut away, then it loses its equilibrium entirely. When the tail is cut off the fish loses all motion, and gives itself up to where the water impels it.

From hence it appears that each of these instruments has a peculiar use assigned it, but, at the same time, that they all conspire to assist each other's motions. Some fish are possessed of all, whose motions are yet not the swiftest; others have but a part, and yet dart through the water with great rapidity. The number, the size, and the situation of the fins, therefore, seem rather calculated to correspond with the animal's figure than closely to answer the purposes of promoting its speed. Where the head is large and heavy, there the pectoral fins are large, and placed forward to keep it from oversetting. Where the head is small, or produced out into a long beak, and therefore not too heavy for the tail, the pectoral fins are small, and the ventral fins totally wanting.

As most animals that live upon land are furnished with a covering to keep off the injuries of the weather, so all that live in the water are covered with a slimy, glutinous matter, that, like a sheath, defends their bodies from the immediate contact of the surrounding fluid. This substance may be considered as a secretion from the pores of the animal's body, and serving not only to defend but to assist the fish's easy progress through the water. Beneath this in many kinds is found a strong covering of scales, which, like a coat of mail, defend it still powerfully; and under that, before we come to the muscular parts of the body, an oily substance, which supplies the requisite warmth and vigour.

The fish, thus protected and fitted for motion in its natural element, seems as well furnished with the means of happiness as quadrupeds or birds; but if we come to examine its faculties more nearly we shall find it very much their inferior. The sense of touching, which beasts and birds have in a small degree, the fish, covered up in its own coat of mail, can have but little acquaintance with.

The sense of smelling, which in beasts is so exquisite, and among birds is not wholly unknown, seems given to fishes in a very moderate proportion. It is true that all fishes have one or more nostrils; and even those that have not the holes perceptible without yet have the proper formation of the bones for smelling within. But as air is the only medium we know of for the distribution of odours, it cannot be supposed that these animals, residing in water, can be possessed of any power of being affected by them. If they have any perception of smells, it must be in the same manner as we distinguish by our taste; and it is probable the olfactory membrane in fish serves them instead of a distinguishing palate: by this they judge of substances that, from tincturing the water with their vapours, are thus sent to the nostrils of fish, and no doubt produce some sort of sensation. This must probably be the use of that organ in those animals, as otherwise there would be the instrument of a sense provided for them without any power in them of enjoyment.

As to tasting, they seem to make very little distinction: the palate of most fish is hard and bony, and consequently incapable of the powers of relishing different substances. This sense among quadrupeds, who possess it in some degree, arises from the soft pliancy of the organ, and the delicacy of the skin which covers the instrument of tasting; it may be considered in them as a more perfect and delicate kind of feeling: in the bony palate of fish, therefore, all powers of distinguishing are utterly taken away; and we have accordingly often seen these voracious animals swallow the fisherman's plummet instead of the bait.

Hearing in fishes is found still more imperfect, if it be found at all. Certain it is that anatomists have not been able to discover, except in the whale kind, the smallest traces of an organ either within or without the head of fishes. It is true, that in the centre of the brain of some fishes are found now and then some little bones, the number and situation of which are entirely

accidental. These bones Mr. Klein has supposed to constitute the organ of hearing; but if we consider their entire dissimilitude to the bones that serve for hearing in other animals we shall be of another opinion. The greatest number of fishes are deprived of these bones entirely; some fish have them in small numbers, and others in abundance; yet neither testify any excellence or defect in hearing. Indeed, of what advantage would this sense be to animals that are incapable of making themselves heard? They have no voice to communicate with each other, and consequently have no need of an organ for hearing. Mr. Gouan, who kept some gold fishes in a vase, informs us that whatever noise he made he could neither disturb nor terrify them; he hallooed as loud as he could, putting a piece of paper between his mouth and the water to prevent the vibrations from affecting the surface, and the fishes still seemed insensible; but when the paper was removed, and the sound had its full play upon the water, the fishes seemed instantly to feel the change, and shrunk to the bottom. From this we may learn that fishes are as deaf as they are mute; and that when they seem to hear the call of a whistle or a bell at the edge of a pond, it is rather the vibrations of the sound that affects the water by which they are excited than any sounds they hear.

Seeing seems to be the sense fishes are possessed of in the greatest degree; and yet even this seems obscure, if we compare it to that of other animals. The eye in almost all fish is covered with the same transparent skin that covers the rest of the head, and which probably serves to defend it in the water, as they are without eyelids. The globe is more depressed anteriorly, and is furnished behind with a muscle which serves to lengthen or flatten it according to the necessities of the animal. The crystalline humour, which in quadrupeds is flat, and of the shape of a button-mould, in fishes is as round as a pea—or sometimes oblong like an egg. From all this it appears that fish are extremely near-sighted, and that even in the water they can see objects at a very small distance. The distance might very easily be ascertained, by comparing the refraction of bodies in the water with that formed by a lens that is spherical. Those unskilled in mathematical calculations will have a general idea of this from the glasses used by near-sighted people. Those whose crystalline humour is too convex—or, in other words, too round—are always very near-sighted; and obliged to use concave glasses to correct the imperfections of Nature. The crystalline humour of fish is so round, that it is not in the power of any glasses, much less of water, to correct their vision. This crystalline humour in fishes all must have seen—being that little hard pea-like substance which is found in their eyes after boiling. In the natural state it is transparent, and not much harder than a jelly.

From all this it appears how far fish fall behind terrestrial animals in their sensations, and consequently in their enjoyments. Even their brain, which is by some supposed to be of a size with every animal's understanding, shows that fish are inferior even to birds in this particular. It is divided into three parts, surrounded with a whitish froth, and gives off nerves as well to the sense of sight as of smelling. In some fish it is grey, in others white; in some it is flatted, in others round; but in all extremely small compared to the bulk of the animal.

Thus Nature seems to have fitted these animals with appetites and powers of an inferior kind, and formed them for a sort of passive existence in the obscure and heavy element to which they are consigned. To preserve their own existence and to continue it to their posterity fill up the whole circle of their pursuits and enjoyments; to these they are impelled rather by necessity than choice, and seem mechanically excited to every fruition. Their senses are incapable of making any distinction;

but they drive forward in pursuit of whatever they can swallow, conquer, or enjoy.

A ceaseless desire of food seems to give the ruling impulse to all their motions. This appetite impels them to encounter every danger; and indeed their rapacity seems insatiable. Even when taken out of the water and almost expiring, they greedily swallow the very bait by which they were allured to destruction.

The maw is in general placed next the mouth, and, though possessed of no sensible heat, is, however, endowed with a surprising faculty of digestion. Its digestive power seems in some measure to increase with the quantity of food it is supplied with—a single pike having been known to devour a hundred roaches in three days. Its faculties, also, are as extraordinary; for it digests not only fish, but much harder substances—prawns, crabs, and lobsters, shells and all. These the cod or the sturgeon will not only devour but dissolve down, though their shells are so much harder than the sides of the stomach which contains them. This amazing faculty in the cold maw of fishes has justly excited the curiosity of philosophers, and has effectually overturned the system of those who supposed that the heat of the stomach was alone a sufficient instrument for digestion. The truth seems to be, and some experiments of the skilful Dr. Hunter seem to evince, that there is a power of animal assimilation lodged in the stomach of all creatures, which we can neither describe nor define, converting the substances they swallow into a fluid fitted for their own peculiar support. This is done neither by trituration, nor by warmth, nor by motion, nor by a dissolving fluid, nor by their united efforts; but by some principle in the stomach yet unknown, which acts in a different manner from all kinds of artificial maceration. The meat taken into the stomach or maw is often seen, though very near being digested, still to retain its original form, and ready for a total dissolution, while it appears to the eye as yet untouched by the force of the stomach. This animal power is lodged in the maw of fishes in a greater degree than in any other creatures; their digestive powers are quick, and their appetites are very craving.

Yet though fish are thus hungry and for ever prowling, no animals can suffer the want of food for so long a time. The gold and silver fish we keep in vases seem never to want any nourishment at all; whether it be that they feed on the water-insects, too minute for our observation, or that water alone is a sufficient supply, is not evident; but they are often seen for months without apparent sustenance. Even the pike, the most voracious of fishes, will live in a pond where there is none but himself, and, what is more extraordinary, will be often found to thrive there.

Still, however, fish are of all other animals the most voracious and insatiable. Whatever any of them is able to swallow, possessed of life, seems to be considered as the most desirable food. Some that have very small mouths feed upon worms and the spawn of other fish; others, whose mouths are larger, seek larger prey—it matters not of what kind, whether of another or their own. Those with the largest mouths pursue almost everything that has life, and often meet each other in fierce opposition, when the fish with the largest swallow comes off with the victory, and devours its antagonist.

Thus are they irritated by the continual desire of satisfying their hunger; and the life of a fish, from the smallest to the greatest, is but one scene of hostility, violence, and evasion. But the smaller fry stand no chance in the unequal combat; and their usual way of escaping is by swimming into those shallows where the greater ones are unable or too heavy to pursue. There they become invaders in turn, and live upon the spawn of larger fish, which they find floating upon the surface of the water; yet there are dangers attending them in every place. Even in the shallows, the muscle, the oyster, and the scallop lie in ambush at the bottom, with

their shells open, and whatever little fish inadvertently approaches into contact, they at once close their shells upon him, and devour the imprisoned prey at their leisure.

Nor is the pursuit of fishes, like that of terrestrial animals, confined to a single region or to one effort; shoals of one species follow those of another through vast tracts of ocean, from the vicinity of the pole even down to the equator. Thus the cod, from the banks of Newfoundland, pursues the whiting, which flies before it even to the southern shores of Spain. The cachalot is said in the same manner to pursue a shoal of herrings, and to swallow thousands at a gulp.

This may be one cause of the annual migrations of fishes from one part of the ocean to the other; but there are other motives which come in aid of this also. Fishes may be induced to change the place of their residence for one more suited to their constitutions, or more adapted to depositing their spawn. It is remarkable that no fish are fond of very cold waters, and generally frequent those places where it is warmest. Thus, in summer they are seen in great numbers in the shallows near the shore, where the sun has power to warm the water to the bottom; on the contrary, in winter they are found towards the bottom in the deep sea; for the cold of the atmosphere is not sufficiently penetrating to reach them at those great depths. Cold produces the same effect upon fresh-water fishes; and when they are often seen dead after severe frosts, it is most probable that they have been killed by the severity of the cold, as well as by their being excluded by the ice from the air.

All fish live in the water; yet they all stand in need of air for their support. Those of the whale kind, indeed, breathe the air in the same manner we do, and come to the surface every two or three minutes to take a fresh inspiration; but those which continue entirely under water are yet under a necessity of being supplied with air, or they will expire in a few minutes. We sometimes see all the fish of a pond killed when the ice everywhere covers the surface of the water, and thus keeps off the air from the subjacent fluid. If a hole be made in the ice the fish will be seen to come all to that part, in order to take the benefit of a fresh supply. Should a carp in a large vase of water be placed under an air-pump and then be deprived of its air, during the operation a number of bubbles will be seen standing on the surface of the fish's body; soon after the animal will appear to breathe swifter, and with great difficulty; it will be seen to rise towards the surface to get more air; the bubbles on its surface begin to disappear; the belly, that was before swollen, will then fall of a sudden, and the animal sinks expiring and convulsed to the bottom.

So very necessary is air to all animals, but particularly to fish, that, as was said, they can live but a few minutes without it; yet nothing is more difficult to be accounted for than the manner in which they obtain this necessary supply. Those who have seen a fish in the water must remember the motion of its lips and its gills, or at least of the bones on each side that cover them. This motion in the animal is without doubt analogous to our breathing; but it is not air, but water, that the fish actually sucks in and spouts out through the gills at every motion. The manner of its breathing is thus:—The fish first takes a quantity of water into the mouth, which is driven to the gills; these close and keep the water so swallowed from returning by the mouth; while the bony covering of the gills prevents it from going through them until the animal has drawn the proper quantity of air from the body of water thus imprisoned: then the bony covers open and give it a free passage; by which means also the gills again are opened, and admit a fresh quantity of water. Should the fish be prevented from the free play of its gills, or should the bony covers be kept from moving by a string tied round them, the animal would soon fall into convulsions, and die in a few minutes.

But though this be the general method of explaining respirations in fishes, the difficulty remains to know what is done with this air which the fish in this manner separates from the water. There seems no receptacle for containing it; the stomach, being the chief cavity within the body, is too much filled with aliment for the purpose. There is indeed a cavity, and that a pretty large one—I mean the air-bladder or swim, which may serve to contain it for vital purposes; but that our philosophers have long destined to a very different use. The use universally assigned to the air-bladder is the enabling the fish to rise or sink in the water at pleasure, as that is dilated or compressed. The use assigned by the ancients for it was to come in aid of the lungs, and to remain as a kind of storehouse of air to supply the animal in its necessities. I own my attachment to this last opinion; but let us exhibit both with their proper share of evidence, and the reader must be left to determine.

The air-bladder is described as a bag filled with air, sometimes composed of one, sometimes of two, and sometimes of three divisions, situated towards the back of the fish, and opening into the maw or the gullet. Those who contend that this bag is designed for raising or depressing the fish in the water build up the following experiment—A carp being put into the air-pump, the bladder is said to expand itself to such a degree, that the fish swells in an extraordinary manner, till the bladder bursts, and then the fish sinks, and ever after continues to crawl at the bottom. On another occasion the air-bladder was pricked and wounded, which let out its air; upon which the fish sunk to the bottom, and was not seen to rise after. From thence it is inferred that the use of the air-bladder must be by swelling at the will of the animal, thus to increase the surface of the fish's body, and thence diminishing its specific gravity, to enable it to rise to the top of the water, and keep there at pleasure. On the contrary, when the fish wants to descend, it is, say they, but to exhaust this bladder of its air; and the fish, being thus rendered allimmer and heavier, consequently sinks to the bottom.

Such is the account given of the use of the air-bladder; no part of which seems to me to be well supported. In the first place, though nothing is more certain than that a carp put into the air-pump will swell, yet so will a mouse or a frog; and these we know to have no air-bladders. A carp will rise to the surface: but so will all fish that want air, whether they have an air-bladder or not. The air bladder is said to burst in the experiment; but that I deny. The air-bladder is indeed found empty, but it has suffered no laceration, and may be distended by being blown into like any other bladder that is found. The fish after the experiment, I grant, continues to creep at the bottom; and so will all fish that are sick and wounded, which must be the case with this after such an operation. Thus these facts prove nothing, but that when the fish is killed in an air-pump, the air-bladder is found exhausted—and that it will naturally and necessarily be; for the drain of air by which the fish is supplied in the natural way will necessarily oblige it to make use of all its hidden stores; and, as there is a communication between the gullet and the air-bladder, the air which the latter contains will thus be obviously drawn away. But still further, how comes the air-bladder, according to their hypothesis, to swell under the experiment of the air-pump? What is it that closes the aperture of that organ in such a manner as at last to burst it; or what necessity has the fish for dilating it to that violent degree? At most, it only wants to rise to the surface; and that the fish can easily do without so great a distension of the air-bladder. Indeed, it would rather seem that the more the air was wanted without the less necessity there was for its being uselessly accumulated within; and to make the modern system consistent, the fish put under the air-pump, in-

stead of permitting its bladder to be burst, would readily give up its contents; which, upon their supposition, all can do at pleasure.

But the truth is, the fish can neither increase nor diminish the quantity of air in its air-bladder at will no more than we can that which is contained in our stomachs. The animal has no one muscle, much less a pair of muscles, for contracting or dilating this organ; its aperture is from the gullet; and what air is put into it must remain there till the necessities, and not the will, of the animal call it forth as a supply.

But, to put the matter past a doubt, many fish are furnished with an air-bladder that continually crawl at the bottom, such as the eel and the flounder; and many more are entirely without any bladder that swim at ease in every depth, such as the anchovy and fresh-water gudgeon. Indeed, the number of fish that want this organ is alone sufficient proof that it is not so necessary for the purposes of swimming; and as the ventral fins, which in all fish lie flat upon the water, seem fully sufficient to keep them at all depths, I see no great occasion for this internal philosophical apparatus for raising and depressing them. Upon the whole, the air-bladder seems adapted for different purposes than that of keeping the fish at different depths in the water; but whether it be to supply them with air when it is wanted from without, or for what other purpose, I will not determine.

Hitherto we have seen a fish in every respect inferior to land animals in the simplicity of their conformation, in their senses, and their enjoyments; but of that humble existence which they have been granted by Nature they have a longer term than any other class of Animated Nature. "Most of the disorders incident to mankind," says Bacon, "arise from the changes and alterations of the atmosphere; but fishes reside in an element little subject to change; theirs is an uniform existence; their movements are without effort, and their life without labour. Their bones, also, which are united by cartilages, admit of indefinite extension; and the different sizes of animals of the same kind among fishes is very various. They still keep growing; their bodies, instead of suffering the rigidity of age, which is the cause of natural decay in land animals, still continue increasing with fresh supplies; and as the body grows, the conduits of life furnish their stores in greater abundance. How long a fish that seems to have scarce any bounds put to its growth continues to live is not ascertained; perhaps the life of a man would not be long enough to measure that of the smallest."

There have been two methods devised for determining the age of fishes, which are more ingenious than certain; the one is by the circles of the scales, the other by the transverse section of the back-bone. The first method is this:—When a fish's scale is examined through a microscope it will be found to consist of a number of circles, one circle within another, in some measure resembling those which appear upon the transverse section of a tree, and supposed to offer the same information; for as in trees we can tell their age by the number of their circles, so in fishes we can tell theirs by the number of their circles in every scale, reckoning one ring for every year of the animal's existence. By this method Mr. Buffon found a carp, whose scales he examined, to be not less than a hundred years old—a thing almost incredible, had we not several accounts in other authors which tend to confirm the discovery. Gesner gives us an instance of one of the same age; and Albertus of one more than double that period.

The age of the skate and the ray, that want scales, may be known by the other method; which is, by separating the joints of the back-bone, and then minutely observing the number of rings which the surface where it was joined exhibits. By this the fish's age is said to be known—and perhaps with as much certainty as in the former instance.

But how unsatisfactory soever these marks may be, we have no reason to doubt the great ages of some fishes. Those that have ponds often know the oldest by their superior size. But the longevity of these animals is nothing when compared to their fecundity. All sorts, a few of the larger ones excepted, multiply their kind, some by hundreds and some by millions. There are some that bring forth their young alive, and some that only produce eggs; the former are rather the least fruitful; yet even these are seen to produce in great abundance. The viviparous blenny, for instance, brings forth two or three hundred at a time, all alive and playing round the parent together. Those who exclude their progeny in a more imperfect state, and produce eggs—which they are obliged to leave to chance, either on the bottom at the edge of the water, or floating on the surface where it is deeper—are all much more prolific, and seem to proportion their stock to the danger there is of its consumption. Of these eggs thus deposited scarce one in a hundred brings forth an animal; they are devoured by all the lesser fry that frequent the shores—by aquatic birds near the margin, and by the larger fish in deep water. Still, however, there are enough for supplying the deep with inhabitants; and, notwithstanding their own rapacity and that of fowls of various tribes, the numbers that escape are sufficient to relieve the wants of a very considerable part of mankind. Indeed, when we consider the numbers that a single fish is capable of producing the amount will seem astonishing. If, for instance, we should be told of a being so very prolific that in a single season it would bring forth as many of its kind as there are inhabitants in England, it would strike us with surprise; yet a single cod produces full that number. The cod spawns in one season, as Lewenhoeck assures us, above nine million eggs or peas contained in one single roe; the flounder is commonly known to produce above one million, and the mackerel above five hundred thousand. Such an amazing increase, if permitted to come to maturity, would overstock Nature, and even the ocean itself would not be able to contain much less to provide for, the half of its inhabitants. But two wise purposes are answered by this amazing increase; it preserves the species in the midst of numberless enemies, and serves to furnish the rest with a sustenance adapted to their nature.

Fishes seem, all except the whale kind, entirely divested of those parental solitudes which so strongly mark the manners of the more perfect terrestrial animals. How far they copulate remains as yet a doubt; for though they seem to join, yet the male is not furnished with any external instrument of generation. It is said by some that this only end in that action is to emit his impregnating milt upon the eggs that at that time fall from the female. He is said to be seen pursuing them as they float down the stream, and carefully impregnating them one after another. On some occasions, also, the females dig holes in the bottom of rivers and ponds, and there deposit their spawn, which is impregnated by the male in the same manner. All this, however, is very doubtful; what we know with certainty of the matter, and that not discovered till very lately, is, that the male has two organs of generation that open into the bladder of urine, and that these organs do not open into the rectum as in birds, but have a particular aperture of their own. These organs of generation in the male are empty at some seasons of the year; but before the time of spawning they are turgid with what is called the milt, and emit the fluid proper for impregnation.

Fish have different seasons for depositing their spawn: some that live in the depths of the ocean are said to choose the winter months; but in general, those which we are acquainted with choose the hottest months in summer, and prefer such water as is somewhat tepid by the beams of the sun. They then leave the deepest parts

of the ocean, which are the coldest, and shoal round the coasts, or swim up the fresh-water rivers, which are warm as they are comparatively shallow. When they have deposited their burtheus they then return to their old stations, and leave their nascent progeny to shift for themselves.

The spawn continues in its egg state in some fish longer than in others, and this in proportion to the animal's size. In the salmon, for instance, the young animal continues in the egg from the beginning of December till the beginning of April; the carp continues in the egg not above three weeks; the little gold-fish from China is produced still quicker. All these when excluded at first escape by their minuteness and agility. They rise, sink, and turn much readier than grown fish; and they can escape into very shallow waters when pursued. But, with all their advantages, scarce one in a thousand survives the numerous perils of its youth. The very male and female that have given them birth are equally dangerous and formidable with the rest, forgetting all relation at their departure.

Such is the general picture of these heedless and hungry creatures: but there are some in this class living in the waters that are possessed of finer organs and higher sensations—that have all the tenderness of birds or quadrupeds for their young—that nurse them with constant care, and protect them from every injury. Of this class are the "cetaceous" tribe, or the fishes of the whale kind. There are others, though not capable of nursing their young, yet that bring them alive into the world, and defend them with courage and activity. These are the "cartilaginous" kinds, or those who have gristles instead of bones. But the fierce, unmindful tribe we have been describing, that leave their spawn without any protection, are called spinous or bony kinds, from their bones resembling the sharpness of thorns.

Thus there are three grand divisions in the fish kind—the "cetaceous," the "cartilaginous," and the "spinous;" all differing from each other in their conformations, their appetites, in their bringing forth, and in the education of their young. These three great distinctions are not the capricious differences formed by a maker of systems, but are strongly and firmly marked by Nature. These are the distinctions of Aristotle; and they have been adopted by mankind ever since his time. It will be necessary, therefore, to give the history of each of these in particular, and then to range under each head those fishes whose history is the most remarkable—or, more properly speaking, those of which we have any history; for we shall find, when we come to any of the species in particular, how little can be said of their habits, their stations, or their method of propagation.

Much, indeed, can be said of them if considered relatively to men; and large books have been written of the manner of taking fish, or of dressing them. Apicius is noted for having first taught mankind to suffocate fish in Carthaginian pickle; and Quin, for giving a sauce to the John-dore: Mrs. Glass is famous for her eel-pie, and Mr. Tull for his invention of spaying carp to give it a finer flavour. In this manner our cooks handle the subject. On the other hand, our physicians assure us that the flesh of fishes yields little nourishment, and soon corrupts; that it abounds in a gross sort of oil and water, and has but a few volatile particles, which render it less fit to be converted into the substance of our bodies. They are cold and moist, and must needs, say they, produce juices of the same kind, and consequently are improper to strengthen the body. In this diversity of opinion it is the wisest way to eat our fish in the ordinary manner, and pay no attention to cooks or doctors.

I cannot conclude this chapter without putting a question to the learned which, I confess, I am not able to resolve. How comes it that fish which are bred in a salt element have yet no salt to the taste, or any that is capable of being extracted from them?

CHAP. II.

OF CETACEOUS FISHES IN GENERAL.

As on land there are some orders of animals that seem formed to command the rest with greater powers and more various instincts, so in the ocean there are fishes which seem formed upon a nobler plan than others, and which to their fishy form join the appetites and the conformation of quadrupeds. These are all of the "cetaceous" kind, and so much raised above their fellows of the deep in their appetites and instincts, that almost all our modern naturalists have fairly excluded them from the finny tribes, and will have them called, not fishes, but "great beasts of the ocean." With them it would be as improper to say men go to Greenland fishing for whale, as it would be to say that a sportsman goes to Blackwall fowling for mackerel.

Yet, notwithstanding philosophers, mankind will always have their own way of talking; and for my own part I think them here in the right. A different formation of the lungs, stomach, and intestines—a different manner of breathing or propagating, are not sufficient to counterbalance the great obvious analogy which these animals bear to the whole finny tribe. They are shaped as other fishes; they swim with fins; they are entirely naked, without hair; they live in the water, though they come up to breathe; they are only seen in the depths of the ocean, and never come upon the shore but when forced thither. These, sure, are sufficient to plead in favour of the general denomination, and acquit mankind of error in ranking them with their lower companions of the deep.

But still they are as many degrees raised above other fishes in their nature as they are in general in their size. This tribe is composed of the whale and its varieties—of the cachalot, the dolphin, the grampus, and the porpoise. All these resemble quadrupeds in their internal structure, and in some of their appetites and affections. Like quadrupeds, they have lungs, a midriff, a stomach, intestines, liver, spleen, bladder, and parts of generation; the heart also resembles that of quadrupeds, with its partitions closed up as in them, and driving red and warm blood in circulation through their body. In short, every internal part bears a most striking similitude; and to keep these parts warm, the whole kind are also covered between the skin and the muscles with a thick coat of fat or blubber, which, like the bacon-fat of a hog, keeps out the cold, renders their muscles glib and pliant, and probably makes them lighter in swimming.

As these animals breathe the air, it is obvious that they cannot bear to be any long time under water. They are constrained, therefore, every two or three minutes to come up to the surface to take breath, as well as to spout out through their nostril (for they have but one) that water which they sucked in while gaping for their prey. This conduit, by which they breathe and also throw out the water, is placed in the head, a little before the brain. Though externally the hole is but single, it is internally divided by a bony partition, which is closed by a sphincter muscle on the inside, that, like the mouth of a purse, shuts it up at the pleasure of the animal. There is also another muscle or valve, which prevents the water from going down the gullet. When, therefore, the animal takes in a certain quantity of water which is necessary to be discharged and separated from its food, it shuts the mouth, closes the valve of the stomach, opens the sphincter that kept the nostril closed, and then breathing strongly from the lungs, pushes the water out by the effort, as we see it rise by the pressure of air in a fire-engine.

The senses of these animals seem also superior to those of other fishes. The eyes of other fishes, we have observed, are covered only with that transparent skin that covers the rest of the head; but in all the cetaceous

kinds it is covered by eye-lids, as in a man. This, no doubt, keeps that organ in a more perfect state, by giving it intervals of relaxation in which all vision is suspended. The other fishes, that are for ever staring, must see, if for no other reason, more feebly, as their organs of sight are always exerted.

As for hearing, these are also furnished with the internal instruments of the ear, although the external orifice nowhere appears. It is most probable that this orifice may open by some canal, resembling the Eustachian tube, into the mouth; but this has not as yet been discovered.

Yet Nature sure has not thus formed a complete apparatus for hearing, and denied the animal the use of it when formed. It is most likely that all animals of the cetaceous kind can hear, as they certainly utter sounds, and bellow to each other. This vocal power would be as needless to animals naturally deaf as glasses to a man that was blind.

But it is the circumstances in which they continue their kind that these animals show an eminent superiority. Other fish deposit their spawn, and leave the success to accident: these never produce above one young, or two at the most; and this the female suckles entirely in the manner of quadrupeds, her breasts being placed, as in the human kind, above the naval. We have read many fabulous accounts of the nursing of the demigods of antiquity—of their feeding on the marrow of lions, and their being suckled by wolves; one might imagine a still more heroic system of nutrition, if we supposed that the young hero was suckled and grew strong upon the breast-milk of a she-whale!

The whale or the grampus are terrible at any time; but they are fierce and desperate in defence of their young. In Waller's beautiful poem of the Summer Islands, we have a story (founded upon fact) which shows the maternal tenderness of these animals for their offspring. A whale and her cub had got into an arm of the sea, where, by the desertion of the tide, they were enclosed on every side. The people from shore soon saw their situation, drove down upon them in boats with such weapons as the urgent occasion offered. The two animals were soon wounded in several places, and the sea around was tintured with their blood. The whales made several attempts to escape; and at last the old one, by its superior strength, forced over the shallow into the depths of the ocean. But though in safety herself, she could not bear the danger that awaited her young one; she therefore rushed in once more where the smaller animal was imprisoned, and resolved, when she could not protect, at least to share its danger. The story ends with a poetical justice; for the tide coming in, brought off both in safety from their enemies, though not without sustaining an infinite number of wounds in every part.

As to the rest, the distinctive marks of this tribe are, that the number of their fins never exceed three—namely, two pectoral fins and one back fin; but in some sorts the last is wanting. These fins differ very much from those of other fishes, which are formed of straight spines: the fins of the cetaceous tribe are made up of bones and muscles; and the skeleton of one of their fins very much resembles the skeleton of a man's hand. Their tails, also, are different from those of all other fish—they are placed so as to lie flat on the surface of the water; while the other kinds have them, as we every day see, upright or edgeways. This flat position of the tail in cetaceous animals enables them to force themselves suddenly to the surface of the water to breathe, which they are continually constrained to do.

Of these enormous animals some are without teeth, and properly called whales; others have the teeth only in the lower jaw, and are called by the French cachalots; the narwhale has teeth only in the upper jaw; the dolphin's teeth, as well as those of the porpoise and

the grampus, are both above and below. These are the marks that serve to distinguish the kinds of this enormous tribe from each other; and these shall serve to guide us in giving their history.

CHAP. III.

ON THE WHALE, PROPERLY SO CALLED, AND ITS VARIETIES.

If we compare land animals in respect to magnitude with those of the deep, they will appear contemptible in the competition. It is probable, indeed, that quadrupeds once existed much larger than we find them at present. From the skeletons of some that have been dug up at different times, it is evident that there must have been terrestrial animals twice as large as the elephant; but creatures of such an immense bulk required a proportionable extent of ground for subsistence, and, by being rivals with men for large territory, they must have been destroyed in the contest.

But it is not only upon man that land has exerted its power of destroying the larger tribes of Animated Nature; it has extended its efforts even in the midst of the ocean, and has cut off numbers of these enormous animals that had, perhaps, existed for ages. We now no longer hear of whales two hundred and two hundred and fifty feet long, which we are certain were often seen about two centuries ago. They have all been destroyed by the skill of mankind, and the species is now dwindled into a race of diminutive animals, from thirty to about eighty feet long.

The northern seas were once the region to which the greatest of these animals resorted; but so great has been the slaughter of whales for more than two ages, that they begin to grow thinner every day; and those that are found there seem, from their size, not to have come to their full dimensions. The greatest whales resort to places where they have the least disturbance—to those seas that are on the opposite side of the globe near the south pole. In that part of the world there are still to be seen whales that are above a hundred and sixty feet long; and perhaps even longer might be found in those latitudes near the south pole to which we have not as yet ventured.

Taking the whale, however, at the ordinary size of eighty feet long and twenty feet high, what an enormous animated mass must it appear to the spectator! With what amazement must it strike him to behold so great a creature gambolling in the deep with the ease and agility of the smallest animal, and making its way with incredible swiftness! This is a sight which is very common to those who frequent the northern or southern ocean. Yet though this be wonderful, perhaps still greater wonders are concealed in the deep which we have not had the opportunities of exploring. These large animals are obliged to show themselves in order to take breath; but who knows the size of those that are fitted to remain for ever under water, and that have been increasing in magnitude for centuries! To believe all that has been said of the sea-serpent, or "kraken," would be credulity; to reject the possibility of their existence would be presumption.

The whale is the largest animal of which we have any certain information; and the various purposes to which, when taken, its different parts are converted have brought us tolerably acquainted with its history. Of the whale, properly so called, there are no less than seven different kinds, all distinguished from each other by their external figure or internal conformation. The great Greenland whale, without a back-fin, and black on the back; the Iceland whale, without a back-fin, and whitish on the back; the New-England whale, with a hump on the back; the whale with six humps on the

back; the fin-fish, with a fin on the back near the tail; the pike-headed whale, and the round-lipped whale. All these differ from each other in figure, as their names obviously imply. They also differ in their manner of living—the fin-fish having a larger swallow than the rest, being more active, slender, and fierce, and living chiefly upon herrings. However, they are none of them very voracious; and, if compared to the cachalot, that enormous tyrant of the deep, they appear harmless and gentle. The history of the rest may be comprised under that of the great common Greenland whale, with which we are best acquainted.

The great Greenland whale is the fish for taking which there are such preparations made in different parts of Europe. It is a large heavy animal, and the head alone makes a third of its bulk. It is usually found from sixty to seventy feet long. The fins on each side are from five to eight feet, composed of bones and muscles, and sufficiently strong to give the great mass of body which they move speed and activity. The tail, which lies flat on the water, is about twenty-four feet broad; and, when the fish lies on one side, its blow is tremendous. The skin is smooth and black, and in some places marbled with white and yellow, which, running over the surface, has a very beautiful effect. This marbling is particularly observable in the fins and the tail. In the figures which are thus drawn by Nature fancy often forms the pictures of trees, landscapes, and houses. In the tail of one that was thus marbled, Ray tells us that the number 122 was figured very evenly and exact, as if done with a pencil.

The whale makes use only of the tail to advance itself forward in the water. This serves as a great oar to push its mass along; and it is surprising to see with what force and celerity its enormous bulk cuts through the ocean. The fins are only made use of for turning in the water, and giving a direction to the velocity impressed by the tail. The female also makes use of them when pursued to bear off her young, clapping them on her back, and supporting them by the fins on each side from falling.

The outward or scarf skin of the whale is no thicker than parchment; but this removed, the real skin appears, of about an inch thick, and covering the fat or blubber that lies beneath; this is from eight to twelve inches in thickness, and is, when the fish is in health, of a beautiful yellow. The muscles lie beneath; and these, like the flesh of quadrupeds, are very red and tough.

The cleft of the mouth is above twenty feet long, which is nearly one-third of the animal's whole length; and the upper jaw is furnished with barbs, that lie like the pipes of an organ—the greatest in the middle and the smallest to the sides. These compose the whale-bone, the longest spars of which are found to be not less than eighteen feet—the shortest, being of no value, are thrown away. The tongue is almost immovably fixed to the lower jaw, seeming one great lump of fat; and, in fact, it fills several hogsheds with blubber. The eyes are not larger than those of an ox; and when the crystalline humour is dried they do not appear larger than a pea. They are placed towards the back of the head, being the most convenient situation for enabling them to see before and behind, as also to see over them, where their food is principally found. They are guarded by eyelids and eyelashes, as in quadrupeds; and they seem to be very sharp-sighted.

Nor is their sense of hearing in less perfection; for they are warned at a great distance of any danger preparing against them. It would seem as if Nature had designedly given these advantages, as they multiply little, in order to continue their kind. It is true, indeed, that the external organ of hearing is not perceptible, for this might not only embarrass them in their natural element; but as soon as the thin scarf

Whale Fishing

By J. J. Smith





skin above-mentioned is removed a black spot is discovered behind the eye, and under this is the auditory canal, that leads to a regular apparatus for hearing. In short, the animal hears the smallest sound at very great distances and at all times, except when it is spouting water, which is the time that the fishers approach to strike it.

These spout-holes or nostrils in all the cetaceous tribe have been already described; in the whale there are two—one on each side the head before the eyes, and crooked, somewhat like the holes on the belly of a violin. From these holes this animal blows the water very fiercely, and with such a noise that it roars like a hollow wind, and may be heard at three miles' distance. When wounded it then blows more fiercely than ever, so that it sounds like the roaring of the sea in a great storm.

We have already observed that the substance called whalebone is taken from the upper jaw of the animal, and is very different from the real bones of the whale. The real bones are hard, like those of great land animals—are very porous, and filled with marrow. Two great strong bones sustain the under lip, lying against each other in the shape of a half-moon: some of these are twenty feet long; they are seen in several gardens set up against each other, and are usually mistaken for the ribs of this animal.

Such is the general conformation and figure of this great inhabitant of the deep, the precise anatomy of which has not yet been ascertained. In those places where they are caught in greatest abundance the sailors are not very curious as to the structure of the viscera; and few anatomists care to undertake a task, where the operator, instead of separating with a lancet, must cut his way with an axe. It is as yet doubted, therefore, whether the male, that in most points internally resembles a quadruped, may not have one great bowel fitted entirely for the reception of air, to supply it when constrained to keep longer than usual at the bottom. The sailors universally affirm that it has; and philosophers have nothing but the analogy of its parts to oppose to their general assertions.

As these animals resemble quadrupeds in conformation, so they bear a strong resemblance in some of their appetites and manners. The female joins with the male, as it is asserted, "more humano," and once in two years feels the accessions of desire.

Their fidelity to each other exceeds whatever we are told of even the constancy of birds. Some fishers, as Anderson informs us, having struck one of two whales, a male and a female, that were in company together, the wounded fish made a long and terrible resistance; it struck down a boat with three men in it with a single blow of the tail, by which all went to the bottom. The other still attended its companion, and lent it every assistance, till at last the fish that was struck sunk under the number of its wounds; while its faithful associate, disdaining to survive the loss, with great bellowing stretched itself upon the dead fish and shared its fate.

The whale goes with young nine or ten months, and is then fatter than usual, particularly when near the time of bringing forth. It is said that the embryo when first perceptible is about seventeen inches long, and white; but the cub when excluded is black, and about ten feet long. She generally produces one young one, and never above two. When she suckles her young she throws herself on one side on the surface of the sea, and the young one attaches itself to the teat. The breasts are two, generally hid within the belly; but she can produce them at pleasure, so as to stand forward a foot and a half, or two feet; and the teats are like those of a cow. In some the breasts are white; in others speckled; in all, filled with a large quantity of milk, resembling that of land animals.

Nothing can exceed the tenderness of the female for her offspring; she carries it with her wherever she goes,

and, when hardest pursued, keeps it supported between her fins. Even when wounded she still clasps her young one, and, when she plunges to avoid danger, takes it to the bottom, but rises sooner than usual to give it breath again.

The young ones continue at the breast for a year, during which time they are called by the sailors "short-heads." They are then extremely fat, and yield above fifty barrels of blubber. The mother at the same time is equally lean and emaciated. At the age of two years they are called "stunts," as they do not thrive much immediately after quitting the breast; they then scarce yield above twenty or twenty-four barrels of blubber: from that time forward they are called "skull-fish," and their age is wholly unknown.

Every species of whale propagates only with those of its own kind, and does not at all mingle with the rest; however, they are generally seen in shoals of different kinds together, and make their migrations in large companies from one ocean to another. They are a gregarious animal, which implies their want of mutual defence against the invasions of smaller but more powerful fishes. It seems astonishing, therefore, how a shoal of these enormous animals find subsistence together, when it would seem that the supplying even one with food would require greater plenty than the ocean could furnish. To increase our wonder, we not only see them herding together, but usually find them fatter than any other animals of whatsoever element. We likewise know that they cannot swallow large fishes, as their throat is so narrow, that an animal larger than a herring could not enter. How then do they subsist and grow so fat? A small insect, which is seen floating in those seas, and which Linnæus terms the *Medusa*, is sufficient for this supply. These insects are black, of the size of a small bean, and are sometimes seen floating in clusters on the surface of the water. They are of a round form, like snails in a box, but they have wings, which are so tender that it is scarce possible to touch them without breaking. These serve rather for swimming than flying; and the little animal is called by the Icelanders the "walfischoas," which signifies the whale's provender. They have the taste of raw muscles, and have the smell of burnt sugar. These are the food of the whale, which it is seen to draw up in great numbers with its huge jaws, and to bruise between its barbs, which are always found with several of these sticking among them.

This is the simple food of the great Greenland whale; it pursues no other animal, leads an inoffensive life in its element, and is harmless in proportion to its strength to do mischief. There seems to be an analogy between its manners and those of the elephant. They are both the strongest and the largest animals in their respective elements; neither offer injury, but are terrible when provoked to resentment. The fin-fish, indeed, in some measure differs from the great whale in this particular, as it subsists chiefly upon herrings, great shoals of which it is often seen driving before it. Yet even the swallow of this fish is not very large if compared to the cachalot tribe; and its ravages are but sports in comparison. The stomach and intestines of all these animals when opened seldom have anything in them, except a soft unctuous substance of a brownish colour; and their excrements are of a shining red.

As the whale is an inoffensive animal, it is not to be wondered that it has many enemies willing to take advantage of its disposition and inaptitude for combat. There is a small animal of the shell-fish kind, called the "whale-louse," that sticks to its body as we see shells sticking to the foul bottom of a ship. This insinuates itself chiefly under the fins; and whatever efforts the great animal makes it still keeps its hold, and lives upon the fat, which it is provided with instruments to arrive at.

The sword-fish, however, is the whale's most terrible enemy. "At the sight of this little animal," says Ander-

son, "the whale seems agitated in an extraordinary manner, leaping from the water as if with affright; wherever it appears the whale perceives it at a distance, and flies from it in the opposite direction. I have been myself," continues he, "a spectator of their terrible encounter. The whale has no instrument of defence except the tail; with that it endeavours to strike the enemy; and a single blow taking effect, would effectually destroy its adversary: but the sword-fish is as active as the other is strong, and easily avoids the stroke; then bounding into the air, it falls upon its great subjacent enemy, and endeavours, not to pierce with its pointed beak, but to cut it with its toothed edges. The sea all about is soon dyed with blood, proceeding from the wounds of the whale; while the enormous animal vainly endeavours to reach its invader, and strikes with its tail against the surface of the water, making a report at each blow louder than the noise of a cannon."

There is still another and more powerful enemy, called by the fishermen of New-England the "killer." This is itself a cetaceous animal, armed with strong and powerful teeth. A number of these are said to surround the whale in the same manner as dogs get round a bull. Some attack it with their teeth behind; others attempt it before; until, at last, the great animal is torn down, and its tongue is said to be the only part they devour when they have made it their prey. They are said to be of such great strength, that one of them alone was known to stop a dead whale that several boats were towing along, and drag it from among them to the bottom.

But of all the enemies of these enormous fishes, man is the greatest: he alone destroys more in a year than the rest in any age, and has actually thinned their numbers in that part of the world where they are chiefly sought. The great resort of these animals was found to be on the inhospitable shores of Spitzbergen, where the distance of the voyage, the coldness of the climate, the terrors of the icy sea, and, still more, their own formidable bulk, might have been expected to protect them from human injury. But all these were but alight barriers against man's arts, his courage, and his necessities. The European ships, soon after the improvement of navigation, found the way into those seas; and as early as the beginning of the fourteenth century, the Biscayans were in possession of a very considerable trade to the coasts of Greenland. The Dutch and the English followed them thither, and soon took the branch of commerce out of their hands. The English commenced the business about the beginning of the seventeenth century; and the town of Hull had the honour of first attempting that profitable branch of trade.

We may perhaps be allowed to insert here a short extract, copied from a paper compiled by a scientific and medical gentleman in Hull (H. Munroe, Esq.), and read before the members of the British Association on their recent visit to that town, showing the total number of men and ships employed in the Greenland and Davis' Straits fisheries from the year 1772 up to the present time (1853):—Number of men, 85,664; ships, 1,949; ships lost, 80; tons of oil, 171,907; value of oil, at the average price of £30 per tun, £5,158,080; average tons of oil per ship, 5,995; tons of bone at the average of 1 cwt. per tun of oil, 8,556; value of bone at the average price of £200 per ton, £1,691,200; total value of oil and bone, £6,847,580.

At present the trade seems upon the decline, as the quantity of fish is so greatly reduced by the constant capture for such a vast length of time. A great many fishers, from a defect of whales, apply themselves to the seal-fishery, a thousand of which are said to be equal to a full-grown whale. The poor natives of Greenland themselves, who used to feed upon the whale, are diminishing in proportion as their sustenance is removed; and it is probable that the revolution of a few years will see that extensive coast totally deserted by its original

inhabitants, as it is already nearly deserted by the whales.

The art of taking whales, like most others, is much improved by time, and differs in many respects from that practised by the Biscayans when they first frequented the icy sea. But as the description of their methods is the least complicated, and consequently the easiest understood, it will be best suited to our purpose.

For this navigation, the Biscayans in favourable seasons fitted out thirty ships, of two hundred and fifty tons each, with fifty choice men a piece and a few boys. These were stored with six months' provisions; and each ship had its boats, which were to be serviceable when arrived at the place of duty. When located in the part where the whales are expected to pass to the southward, they always keep their sails set, and a sailor is placed at the mast-head to give information when he spies a whale. As soon as he discovers one the whole crew are instantly in employment; they fit out their boats, and row away to where the whale was seen. The harpooner, who is to strike the fish, stands at the prow of the boat, with a harpoon or javelin in his hand, five or six feet long, pointed with steel like the barb of an arrow, of a triangular shape. As this person's place is that of the greatest dexterity, so also it is the greatest danger: the whale sometimes overturns the boat with a blow of its tail, and sometimes drives against it with fury. In general, however, the animal seems to sleep on the surface of the water; while the boat approaching, the harpooner stands aloft, and with his harpoon tied to a cord of several hundred fathoms' length, darts it into the animal, and then the boat is rowed as fast as possible away. It is some time before the whale seems to feel the blow; the instrument has usually pierced no deeper than the fat, and that being insensible, the animal continues for a while motionless; but soon roused from its seeming lethargy as the shaft continues to pierce deeper and deeper into the muscular flesh, it flies off with amazing rapidity. In the meantime the harpoon sticks in its side, while the rope, which is coiled up in the boat, and runs upon a swivel, lengthens as the whale recedes, but still shows the part of the deep to which it has retreated. The cord is coiled up with great care; for such is the rapidity with which it runs off, that if it was but the least checked as it yields with the animal's retreat, it would infallibly overset the boat, and the crew would go to the bottom. It sometimes happens, also, that the rapidity with which the rope runs over the swivel at the edge of the boat heats it, and it would infallibly take fire did not a man stand continually with a wet mop in his hand to cool the swivel as the cord runs. The whale, having dived to a considerable depth, remains at the bottom, sometimes for near half an hour, with the harpoon in its body, and then rises to take breath, expecting the danger over; but the instant it appears they are all ready with their boats to receive it, and fling their harpoons into its body; the animal again dives and again rises, while they repeat their blows. The ship follows in full sail, like all the rest never losing sight of the boats, and ready to lend them assistance: the whole ocean seems dyed in blood. Thus they renew their attack, till the whale begins to be quite enfeebled and spent, when they plunge their long spears into various parts of its body, and the enormous animal expires. When it is dead, to prevent it from sinking, they tie it with a strong iron chain to the boat, and either cut it up in pieces and carry it home in that manner, or extract the oil from the blubber on ship-board.

Such is the manner in which these fish were taken in the beginning: but succeeding arts have improved the method, and the harpoon is now frequently thrown by, a machine being used which inflicts a deeper wound, and strikes the animal with much greater certainty: there are better methods for extracting the oil, and proper

machines for cutting the animal up than were used in the early fisheries. But as an account of this belongs to the History of Art, and not of Nature, we must be contented with observing that several parts of this animal, and all but the intestines and the bones, are turned to very good account—not only the oil, but the greaves from which it is separated. The barbs, also, were an article of great profit, but have sunk in their price since women no longer use them to swell out their petticoats with whalebone. The flesh of this animal is also a dainty to some nations; and even the French seamen are now and then found to dress and use it as their ordinary diet at sea. It is said by the English and Dutch sailors to be hard and ill-tasted; but the French assert the contrary; and the savages of Greenland, as well as those near the south pole, are fond of it to distraction. They eat the flesh and drink the oil, which is a first-rate delicacy. The finding a dead whale is an adventure considered among the fortunate circumstances of their wretched lives. They make their abode beside it, and seldom remove till they have left nothing but the bones.

Jacobson—whom we quoted before in the History of Birds, where he describes his countrymen of the island of Feroe as living a part of the year on salted gulls—tells us also that they are very fond of salted whale's flesh. The fat of the head they season with bay salt, and then hang it up to dry in the chimney. He thinks it tastes as well as fat bacon, and the lean, which they boil, is, in his opinion, not inferior to beef. I fancy poor Jacobson would make but an indifferent taster at one of our city feasts!

CHAP. IV.

OF THE NARWHALE.

From whales that entirely want teeth we come to such as have them in the upper-jaw only; and in this class there is found but one—the narwhale, or sea-unicorn. This fish is not so large as the whale, not being above sixty feet long. Its body is slenderer, and its fat not in so great abundance. But this great animal is sufficiently distinguished from all others by its tooth, or its teeth, which stand pointing directly forward from the upper-jaw, and are from nine to fourteen feet long. In all the variety of weapons with which Nature has armed her various tribes, there is not one so large or so formidable as this. This terrible weapon is generally found single, and some are of opinion that the animal is furnished but with one by Nature; but there is at present the skull of a narwhale at the Stadthouse at Amsterdam with two teeth; which plainly proves that in some animals at least this instrument is double. It is even a doubt whether it may not be so in all; and that the narwhale's wanting a tooth is only an accident which it has met with in the encounters it is obliged daily to be engaged in. But it must be owned of those that are taken with only one tooth, there seems no socket nor no remains of any other upon the opposite side of the jaw, but all is plain and even. However this be, the tooth, or, as some are pleased to call it, the horn of the narwhale is the most terrible of all natural instruments of destruction. It is as straight as an arrow, about the thickness of the small of a man's leg, wreathed in the manner we sometimes see twisted bars of iron; it tapers to a sharp point; and is whiter, heavier, and harder than ivory. It is generally seen to spring from the left side of the head directly forward in a straight line with the body; and its root enters into the socket above a foot and a half. In a skull to be seen at Hamburg there are two teeth, which are each above seven feet long, and are eight inches in circumference. When

the animal possessed of these formidable weapons is urged to employ them, it drives directly forward against the enemy with its teeth, that, like protended spears, pierce whatever stands before them.

The extreme length of these instruments have induced some to consider them rather as horns than teeth; but they in every respect resemble the tusks of the boar and the elephant. They grow, as in them, from sockets in the upper jaw; they have the solidity of the hardest bone, and far surpass ivory in all its qualities. The same error has led others to suppose, that as among quadrupeds the female was often found without horns, so these instruments of defence were only to be found in the male; but this has been more than once refuted by actual experience; both sexes are found armed in this manner; the horn is sometimes found wreathed and sometimes smooth; sometimes a little bent and sometimes straight; but always strong, deeply fixed, and sharply pointed.

Yet, notwithstanding all these appointments for combat, these long and pointed tusks, amazing strength, and unmatchable celerity, the narwhale is one of the most harmless and peaceable inhabitants of the ocean. It is seen constantly and inoffensively sporting among the other great monsters of the deep, no way attempting to injure them, but pleased in their company. The Greenlanders call the narwhale the fore-runner of the whale; for wherever it is seen the whale is shortly after sure to follow. This may arise as well from the natural passion for society in these animals as from both living upon the same food, which are the insects described in the preceding chapter. These powerful fishes make war upon no other living creature; and, though furnished with instruments to spread general destruction, are as innocent and as peaceful as a drove of oxen. Nay, so regardless are they of their own weapons, and so utterly unmindful to keep them in repair for engagement, that they are constantly seen covered over with weeds, slough, and all the filth of the sea; they seem rather considered as an impediment than a defence.

The manners and appetites both of the narwhale and the great whale are entirely similar; they both alike want teeth for chewing, and are obliged to live upon insects; they both are peaceable and harmless, and always rather fly than seek the combat. The narwhale, however, has a much narrower gape than the great whale, and, therefore, does not want the use of barbs to keep in its food when once sucked into the mouth. It is also much swifter, and would never be taken by the fisherman but for those very tusks which at first appear to be its principal defence. These animals, as was said, being fond of living together, are always seen in herds of several at a time; and whenever they are attacked, they crowd together in such a manner that they are mutually embarrassed by their tusks. By these they are often locked together, and are prevented from sinking to the bottom. It seldom happens, therefore, but the fishermen make sure of one or two of the hindmost, which very well reward their trouble.

It is from the extraordinary circumstance of the teeth, therefore, that this fish demands a distinct history; and such has been the curiosity of mankind, and their desire to procure them, that a century ago they were considered as the greatest rarity in the world. At that time the art of catching whales was not known; and mankind saw few, except such as were stranded on the coasts by accident. The tooth of the narwhale, therefore, was ascribed to a very different animal from that which really bore it. Among other fossil substances they were sometimes dug up; and the narwhale being utterly unknown, naturalists soon found a terrestrial owner. They were thought to be the horns of unicorns—an animal described by Pliny as resembling a horse, and with one straight horn darting forward from the middle of its forehead. These teeth were therefore considered as a strong testimony in

favour of that historian's veracity, and were shown among the most precious remains of Antiquity. Even for some time after the narwhale was known the deceit was continued, as those who were possessed of a tooth sold it to great advantage. But at present they are too well known to deceive any, and are only shown for what they really are—their curiosity increasing in proportion to their weight and their size.

CHAP. V.

OF THE CACHALOT AND ITS VARIETIES.

The cachalot, which has generally gone under the name of the spermaceti-whale, till Mr. Pennant very properly made the distinction by borrowing its name from the French, has several teeth in the under-jaw, but none in the upper. As there are no less than seven distinctions among whales, so also there are the same number of distinctions in the tribe we are describing—the cachalot with two fins and a black back—the cachalot with two fins and a whitish back—that with a spout in the neck—that with a spout in the snout—that with three fins and sharp-pointed teeth—that with three fins and sharp-edged teeth—and, lastly, the cachalot with three fins and flatted teeth.

This tribe is not of such enormous size as the whale, properly so called, not being above sixty feet long, and sixteen feet high. In consequence of their being more slender, they are much more active than the common whale; they remain a longer time at the bottom, and afford a smaller quantity of oil. As in the common whale the head was seen to make a third part of its bulk, so in this species the head is so large as to make one half of the whole. The tongue of this animal is small, but the throat is very formidable; and with very great ease it could swallow an ox. In the stomach of the whale scarce anything is to be found; but in that of the cachalot there are loads of fish of different kinds—some whole, some half-digested, some small, and others eight or nine feet long. The cachalot is therefore as destructive among lesser fishes as the whale is harmless; and can at one gulp swallow a shoal of fishes down its enormous gullet. Linnæus tells us that this fish pursues and terrifies the dolphins and porpoises so much as often to drive them on shore.

But how formidable soever this fish may be to its fellows of the deep, it is by far the most valuable and the most sought after by man, as it contains two very precious drugs—spermaceti and ambergris. The use of these, either for the purposes of luxury or medicine, is so universal, that the capture of this animal (which alone supplies them) turns out to very great advantage, particularly since the art has been found out of converting all the oil of this animal as well as the brain into that substance called spermaceti.

This substance as it is naturally formed is found in the head of the animal, and is no other than the brain. The outward skin of the head being taken off, a covering of fat offers about three inches thick; and under that, instead of a bony skull, the animal has only another thick skin that serves for a covering and defence of the brain. The first cavity or chamber of the brain is filled with that spermaceti which is supposed of the greatest purity and highest value. From this cavity there is generally drawn about seven barrels of the clearest spermaceti, which, thrown upon water, coagulates like cheese. Below this there is another chamber just over the gullet, which is about seven feet high; and this also contains the drug, but of less value. It is distributed in this cavity, like honey in a hive, in small cells, separated from each other by a membrane like the inner-skin of an egg. In proportion as the oily substance is drawn away

from this part it fills anew from every part of the body; and from this is generally obtained about nine barrels of oil. Besides this, the spinal-marrow, which is about as thick as a man's thigh, and reaches all along the back-bone to the tail, where it is no thicker than one's finger, affords no inconsiderable quantity.

This substance, which is used in the composition of many medicines rather to give them consistence than efficacy, was at first sold at a very high price, both from the many virtues ascribed to it and the small quantity that the cachalot was capable of supplying; at present the price is greatly fallen; first, because its efficacy in medicine is found to be very small, and again, because the whole oil of the fish is very easily convertible into spermaceti. This is performed by boiling it with a lea of pot-ash, and hardening it in the manner of soap. Candles are now made of it, which are substituted for wax and sold much cheaper; so that we need not fear having our spermaceti adulterated in the manner some medical books caution us to beware of; for they carefully guard us against having our spermaceti adulterated with virgin's wax.

As to the ambergris which is sometimes found in this whale, it was long considered as a substance found floating on the surface of the sea; but time, that reveals the secrets of the mercenary, has discovered that it chiefly belongs to this animal. The name, which has been improperly given to the former substance, seems more justly to belong to this; for the ambergris is found in the place where the seminal vessels are usually situated in other animals. It is found in a bag of three or four feet long, in round lumps from one to twenty pounds weight, floating in a fluid rather thinner than oil, and of a yellowish colour. There are never seen more than four at a time in one of these bags; and that which weighed twenty pounds, and which was the largest ever seen, was found single. These balls of ambergris are not found in all fishes of this kind, but chiefly in the oldest and strongest. The uses of this medicine for the purpose of luxury and as a perfume are well known; though upon some subjects ignorance is preferable to information.

CHAP. VI.

ON THE DOLPHIN, THE GRAMPUS, AND THE PORPOISE, WITH THEIR VARIETIES.

All these fish have teeth both in the upper and the lower jaw, and are much less than the whale. The grampus, which is the largest, never exceeds twenty feet. It may also be distinguished by the flatness of its head, which resembles a boat upside down. The porpoise resembles the grampus in most things except the snout, which is not above eight feet long; its snout also more resembles that of a hog. The dolphin has a strong resemblance to the porpoise, except that its snout is longer and more pointed. They have all fins on the back; they all have heads very large, like the rest of the whale kind, and resemble each other in their appetites, their manners, and their conformations, being equally voracious, active, and roving.

The great agility of these animals prevents their often being taken. They seldom remain a moment above water; sometimes, indeed, their too eager pursuits expose them to danger; and a shoal of herrings often allures them out of their depth. In such a case the hungry animal continues to flounder in the shallows till knocked on the head, or till the returning tide seasonably comes to its relief. But all this tribe, and the dolphin in particular, are not less swift than destructive. No fish could escape them but from the awkward position of the mouth, which is placed in a manner under the

head; yet, even with these disadvantages, their depredations are so great that they have been justly styled the plunderers of the deep.

What could induce the ancients to a predilection in favour of these animals, particularly the dolphin, it is not easy to account for. Historians and philosophers seem to have contended who should invent the greatest number of fables concerning them. The dolphin was celebrated in the earliest time for its fondness to the human race, and was distinguished by the epithets of the boy-loving and philanthropist. Scarce an accident could happen at sea but the dolphin offered himself to convey the unfortunate to shore. The musician flung into the sea by pirates—the boy taking an airing into the midst of the sea, and returning again in safety, were obliged to the dolphin for its services. It is not easy, I say, to assign a cause why the ancients should thus have invented so many fables in their favour. The figure of these animals is far from prejudicing us in their interest; their extreme rapacity tends still less to endear them; I know nothing that can reconcile them to man and excite his prejudices, except that when taken they sometimes have a plaintive moan, with which they continue to express their pain till they expire. This at first might have excited human pity; and that might have produced affection. At present these fishes are regarded even by the vulgar in a very different light; their appearance is far from being esteemed a favourable omen by the seamen; and from their boundings, springs, and frolics in the water, experience has taught the mariners to prepare for a storm.

But it is not to one circumstance only that the ancients have confined their fabulous reports concerning these animals; as from their leaps out of their element they assume a temporary curvature, which is by no means their natural figure in the water, the old painters and sculptors have universally drawn them wrong. A dolphin is scarce ever exhibited by the ancients in a straight shape, but curved, in the position which they sometimes appear in when exerting their force; and the poets, too, have adopted the general error. Even Pliny, the best naturalist, has asserted that they instantly die when taken out of the water; but Rondelet, on the contrary, assures us that he has seen a dolphin carried alive from Montpellier to Lyons.

The moderns have more just notions of these animals, and have got over the many fables which every day's experience contradicts. Indeed, their numbers are so great, and, though shy, they are so often taken, that such peculiarities, if they were possessed of any, would have been long since ascertained. They are found, the porpoise especially, in such vast numbers in all parts of the sea that surrounds this kingdom, that they are sometimes noxious to seamen when they sail in small vessels. In some places they almost darken the water as they rise to take breath, and particularly before bad weather are much agitated, swimming against the sea as they rise to take breath, and particularly before wind, and tumbling about with unusual violence.

Whether these motions be the gambols of pleasure or the agitations of terror is not well known. It is most probable that they dread those scenes of turbulence, when the lesser fishes shrink to the bottom, and their prey no longer offers in sufficient abundance. In times of fairer weather they are seen herding together, and pursuing shoals of various fish with great impetuosity. Their method of hunting their game, if it may be so called, is to follow in a pack, and thus give each other mutual assistance. At that season when the mackerel, the herring, the salmon, and other fish of passage begin to make their appearance, the cetaceous tribes are seen fierce in pursuit, urging their prey from one creek or bay to another, deterring them from the shallows, driving them towards each other's ambush, and using a greater variety of arts than hounds are seen to exert

in pursuing the hare. However, the porpoise not only seeks for prey near the surface, but often descends to the bottom in search of sand-eels and sea-worms, which it roots out of the sand with its nose, in the manner hogs harrow up the fields for food. For this purpose the nose projects a little, is shorter and stronger than that of the dolphin; and the neck is furnished with very strong muscles, which enable it the readier to turn up the sand.

But it sometimes happens that the impetuosity or the hunger of these animals in their usual pursuits urges them beyond the limits of safety. The fishermen, who extend their long nets for pilchards on the coasts of Cornwall, have sometimes an unwelcome capture in one of these. Their feeble nets, which are calculated only for taking smaller prey, suffer an universal laceration from the efforts of this strong animal to escape; and if it be not knocked on the head before it has had time to flounder, the nets are destroyed and the fishery interrupted. There is nothing, therefore, that they so much dread as the entangling a porpoise; and they do everything to intimidate the animal from approaching.

Indeed, these creatures are so violent in the pursuit of their prey, that they sometimes follow a shoal of small fishes up a fresh-water river, from whence they find no small difficulty to return. We have often seen them taken in the Thames at London, both above the bridges and below them. It is curious enough to observe with what activity they avoid their pursuers, and what little time they require to fetch breath above the water. The manner of killing them is for four or five boats to spread over a part of the river in which they are seen, and with fire-arms to shoot at them the instant they rise above the water. The fish being thus for some time kept in agitation, requires to come to the surface at quicker intervals, and thus affords the marksmen more frequent opportunities.

When the porpoise is taken it becomes no inconsiderable capture, as it yields a very large quantity of oil; and the lean of some, particularly if the animal be young, is said to be as well tasted as veal. The inhabitants of Norway prepare from the eggs found in the body of this fish a kind of caviare, which is said to be very delicate sauce, or good when even eaten with bread. There is a fishery for porpoises along the western isles of Scotland during the summer season, when they abound on that shore; and this branch of industry turns to good advantage.

As for the rest, we are told that these animals go with young ten months; that, like the whale, they seldom bring forth above one at a time, and that in the midst of summer; that they live to a considerable age, though some say not above twenty-five or thirty years; and they sleep with the snout above water. They seem to possess, in a degree proportioned to their bulk, the manners of whales; and the history of one species of cetaceous animals will in a great measure serve for all the rest.

BOOK II.—CHAP. I.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FISHES IN GENERAL.

We have seen the fishes of the cetaceous kind bear a strong resemblance to quadrupeds in their conformation; those of the cartilaginous kinds are one remove separated from them: they form the shade that completes the imperceptible gradations of Nature.

The first great distinction they exhibit is, in having cartilages or gristles instead of bones. The cetaceous tribes have their bones entirely resembling those of quadrupeds—thick, white, and filled with marrow; those of the spinous kind, on the contrary, have small ones, with points resembling thorns, and generally solid throughout. Fishes of the cartilaginous kinds have

their bones always soft and yielding; and age, that hardens the bones of other animals, rather contributes still more to soften theirs. The size of all fishes increase with age; but from the pliancy of the bones in this tribe they seem to have no bound placed to their dimensions; and it is supposed that they grow larger every day till they die.

They have other differences, more obviously discernible. We have observed that the cetaceous tribes had lungs like quadrupeds, a heart with its partition in the same manner, and apparatus for hearing; on the other hand, we mentioned that the spinous kinds had no organs of hearing, no lungs to breathe through, and no partition in the heart; but that their cold red blood was circulated by means of the impulse made upon their gills by the water. Cartilaginous fishes unite both these systems in their conformation: like the cetaceous tribes, they have organs of hearing, and lungs; like the spinous kinds they have gills, and a heart without a partition. Thus possessed of a two-fold power of breathing—sometimes by means of their lungs, sometimes by that of their gills—they seem to unite all the advantages of which their situation is capable, and draw from both elements every aid to their necessities or their enjoyments.

This double capacity of breathing in these animals is one of the most remarkable features in the history of Nature. The apertures by which they breathe are placed somewhere about the head—either beneath, as in a flat fish; on the sides, as in sharks; or on the top of the head, as in pipe-fish. To these apertures the gills are affixed, but without any bone to open or shut them as in spinous fishes, from which by this mark they can easily be distinguished, though otherwise very much alike in appearance. From these are bending cylindrical ducts, that run to the lungs, and are supposed to convey the air that gives the organs their proper play. The heart, however, has but one valve; so that their blood wants that double circulation which obtains in the cetaceous kinds; and the lungs seem to me rather as an internal assistant to the gills than fitted for supplying the same offices in quadrupeds, for they want the pulmonary vein and artery.

From this structure, however, the animal is enabled to live a longer time out of water than those whose gills are more simple. The cartilaginous shark, or ray, live some hours after they are taken; while the spinous herring or mackarel expire in a few minutes after they are brought on shore. From hence this tribe seems possessed of powers that other fishes are wholly deprived of; they can remain continually under water without even taking breath: while they can venture their heads above the deep, and continue for hours out of their native element.

We observed in a former chapter that spinous fishes have not, or at least appear not to have, externally any instruments of generation. It is very different with those of a cartilaginous kind, for the male always has these instruments double. The fish of this tribe are not unfrequently seen to copulate; and their manner is belly to belly—such as may naturally be expected from animals whose parts of generation are placed forward. They in general choose colder seasons and situations than other fish for propagating their kind; and many of them bring forth in the midst of winter.

The same duplicity of character which marks their general conformation obtains also with regard to their manner of bringing forth. Some bring forth their young alive, and some bring forth eggs which are afterwards brought to maturity. In all, however, the manner of gestation is nearly the same; for upon dissection it is ever found that the young while in the body continue in the egg till a very little time before they are excluded; these eggs they may properly be said to hatch within their body; and as soon as their young quit the

shell they begin to quit the womb also. Unlike to quadrupeds or the cetaceous tribes, that quit the egg a few days after their first conception, and continue in the womb several months after, these continue in the body of the female in their egg state for weeks together; and the eggs are found linked together by a membrane, from which, when the fetus gets free, it continues but a very short time till it delivers itself from its confinement in the womb. The eggs themselves consist of a white and a yolk, and have a substance instead of shell that aptly may be compared to softened horn. These, as I observed, are sometimes hatched in the womb as in the shark and ray kinds; and they are sometimes excluded, as in the sturgeon, before the animal comes to its time of disengaging. Thus we see that there seems very little difference between the viviparous and the oviparous kinds in this class of fishes; the one hatch their eggs in the womb, and the young continue no long time there; the others exclude their eggs before hatching, and leave it to time and accident to bring their young to maturity.

Such are the peculiar marks of the cartilaginous class of fishes, of which there are many kinds. To give a distinct description of every fish is as little my intention as perhaps it is the wish of the reader: but the peculiarities of each kind deserve notice, and the most striking of these it would be unpardonable to omit.

Cartilaginous fish may be divided, first, into those of the shark kind, with a body growing less towards the tail, a rough skin, with the mouth placed far beneath the end of the nose, five apertures on the sides of the neck for breathing, and the upper part of the tail longer than the lower. This class chiefly comprehends the great white shark, the balance-fish, the hound-fish, the monk-fish, the dog-fish, the basking shark, the zygena, the tope, the cat-fish, the blue shark, the sea-fox, the smooth hound-fish, and the porbeagle. These are all of the same nature, and differ more in size than in figure or conformation.

The next division is that of the flat fish; and these, from their broad, flat, thin shape, are sufficiently distinguishable from all others of this kind. They may be easily distinguished, also, from spinous flat fish by the holes through which they breathe, which are uncovered by a bone, and which in this kind are five on each side. In this tribe we may place the torpedo, the skate, the sharp-nosed ray, the rough ray, the thornback, and the fire-flare.

The third division is that of the slender snake-shaped kind; such as the lamprey, the pride, and the pipe-fish.

The fourth division is of the sturgeon and its variety, the ingslass fish.

The last division may comprise fish of different figures and natures that do not rank under the former divisions. These are the sun-fish, the tetrodon, the lump-fish, the sea-snail, the chimæra, and the fishing-frog. Each of these has something peculiar in its powers or its form that deserves to be remarked. The description of these at least may compensate for our general ignorance of the rest of their history.

CHAP. II.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FISHES OF THE SHARK KIND.

Of all the inhabitants of the deep, those of the shark kind are the fiercest and most voracious. The smallest of the tribe is not less dreaded by greater fish than many that to appearance seem more powerful; nor do any of them seem fearful of attacking animals far above their size; but the great white shark, which is the largest of the kind, joins to the most amazing rapidity the strongest appetites for mischief: he far surpasses the

whale in strength and celerity, in the formidable arrangement of his teeth, and in his insatiable desire of plunder.

The white shark is sometimes seen to rank even among whales for magnitude, and is found from twenty to thirty feet long. Some assert that they have seen them of four thousand pounds weight; and we are told particularly of one that had a human corpse in his belly. The head is large, and somewhat flattened; the snout long, and the eyes large. The mouth is enormous, as is the throat, and capable of swallowing a man with great ease. But its furniture of teeth is still more terrible; of these there are six rows, extremely hard, sharp-pointed, and of a wedge-like figure. It is asserted that there are seventy-two in each jaw, which make one hundred and forty-four in the whole; yet others think that their number is uncertain; and that, in proportion as the animal grows older, these terrible instruments of destruction are found to increase. With these the jaws both above and below appear planted all over; but the animal has a power of erecting or depressing them at pleasure. When the shark is at rest they lie quite flat in his mouth; but when he prepares to seize his prey, he erects all this dreadful apparatus by the help of a set of muscles that join them to the jaw; and the animal he seizes dies, pierced with a hundred wounds in a moment.

Nor is this fish less terrible to behold as is the rest of his form: his fins are larger in proportion; he is furnished with great goggle-eyes, which he turns with ease on every side, so as to see his prey behind him as well as before; and his whole aspect is marked with a character of malignity: his skin, also, is rough, hard, and prickly—from which that substance which covers instrument cases, called shagreen, is manufactured.

As the shark is thus formidable in his appearance, so is he also dreadful from his courage and activity. No fish can swim so fast as he—none so constantly employed in swimming: he outstrips the swiftest ships, plays round them, darts out before them, returns, seems to gaze at the passengers, and all the while does not seem to exhibit the smallest symptoms of an effort to proceed. Such amazing powers, with such great appetites for destruction, would quickly unpeople even the ocean, but, providentially, the shark's upper-jaw projects so far above the lower, that he is obliged to turn on one side (not on his back, as is generally supposed) to seize his prey. As this takes some small time to perform, the animal pursued seizes that opportunity to make its escape.

Still, however, the depredations he commits are frequent and formidable. The shark is the dread of sailors in all hot climates; where, like a greedy robber, he attends the ships, in expectation of what may drop over-board. A man who unfortunately falls into the sea at such a time is almost sure to perish without mercy. A sailor that was bathing in the Mediterranean, near Antibes, while he was swimming about fifty yards from the ship, perceived a monstrous fish making towards him, and surveying him on every side, as fish are often seen to look round a bait. The poor man, struck with terror at its approach, cried out to his companions in the vessel to take him on board. They accordingly threw him a rope with the utmost expedition, and were drawing him up by the ship's side, when the shark darted after him from the deep and snapped off his leg.

Mr. Pennant tells us that the master of a Guinea-ship, finding a rage for suicide prevail among his slaves (from a notion the unhappy creatures had that after death they should be restored again to their families, friends, and country), to convince them at least that some disgrace should attend them here, he ordered one of their dead bodies to be tied by the heels to a rope, and so let down into the sea; and, though it was drawn up again with great swiftness, yet in that short space

the sharks had bitten off all but the feet. Whether this story is prior to an accident of the kind which happened at Belfast, in Ireland, a few years ago, I will not take upon me to determine; but certain it is, there are some circumstances alike in both, though more terrible in that I am going to relate. A Guinea captain was, by stress of weather, driven into the harbour of Belfast with a lading of very sickly slaves, who, in the manner above-mentioned, took every opportunity to throw themselves over-board when brought upon-deck, as is usual, for the benefit of the fresh air. The captain, perceiving, among others, a woman-slave attempting to drown herself, pitched upon her as a proper example to the rest. As he supposed that they did not know the terrors attending death, he ordered the woman to be tied with a rope under the armpits, and so let her down into the water. When the poor creature was thus plunged in, and when about half way down, she was heard to give a terrible shriek, which at first was ascribed to her fears of drowning; but soon after the water appearing red all round her, she was drawn up, and it was found that a shark, which had followed the ship, had bit her off from the middle.

Such is the frightful rapacity of this animal; nothing that has life is rejected. But it seems to have a peculiar enmity to man: when once it has tasted human flesh it never desists from haunting those places where it expects the return of its prey. It is even asserted that along the coasts of Africa, where these animals are found in great abundance, numbers of the Negroes, who are obliged to frequent the waters, are seized and devoured by them every year. The people of these coasts are firmly of opinion that the shark loves the black man's flesh in preference to the white, and that when men of different colours are in the water together it always makes choice of the former.

However this be, men of all colours are equally afraid of this animal, and have contrived different methods to destroy him. In general, they derive their success from the shark's own rapacity. The usual method of our sailors to take him is by baiting a great hook with a piece of beef or pork, which is thrown out into the sea by a strong cord, strengthened near the hook with an iron chain. Without this precaution the shark would quickly bite the cord in two, and thus set himself free. It is no unpleasant amusement to observe this voracious animal coming up to survey the bait, particularly when not pressed by hunger. He approaches it, examines it, swims round it, seems for a while to neglect it, perhaps apprehensive of the cord and the chain: he quits it for a little; but his appetite pressing, he returns again; appears preparing to devour it, but quits it once more. When the sailors have sufficiently diverted themselves with his different evolutions, they then make a pretence by drawing the rope, as if intending to take the bait away; it is then that the glutton's hunger excites him; he darts at the bait and swallows it, hook and all. Sometimes, however, he does not so entirely gorge the whole but that he once more gets free; yet even then, though wounded and bleeding with the hook, he will again pursue the bait until he is taken. When he finds the hook lodged in his maw his utmost efforts are then excited, but in vain, to get free; he tries with his teeth to cut the chain; he pulls with all his force to break the line; he almost seems to turn his stomach inside out to disgorge the hook: in this manner he continues his formidable though fruitless efforts, till, quite spent, he suffers his head to be drawn above water, and the sailors, confining his tail by a noose, in this manner draw him on ship-board and despatch him. This is done by beating him on the head till he dies; yet even this is not effected without difficulty and danger; the enormous creature, terrible even in the agonies of death, still struggles with his destroyers; nor is there an animal in the world that is harder to be killed. Even

when cut to pieces the muscles still preserve their motion, and vibrate for some minutes after being separated from the body. Another method of taking him is by striking a barbed instrument called the *fizgig* into his body as he brushes along by the side of the ship. As soon as he is taken up, to prevent his flouncing, they cut off the tail with an axe with the utmost expedition.

This is the manner in which Europeans destroy the shark; but some of the Negroes along the African coast take a bolder and more dangerous method to combat their terrible enemy. Armed with nothing more than a knife, the Negro plunges into the water, where he sees the shark watching for his prey, and boldly swims forward to meet him; though the great animal does not come to provoke the combat, he does not avoid it, and suffers the man to approach him; but just as he turns upon his side to seize the aggressor, the Negro watches the opportunity, plunges his knife into the fish's belly, and pursues his blows with such success, that he lays the ravenous tyrant dead at the bottom. The Negro then fixes the fish's head in a noose, and drags him to shore, where he makes a noble feast for the adjacent villages.

Nor is man alone the only enemy this fish has to fear: the remora, or sucking-fish, is probably a still greater, and follows the shark everywhere. This fish has got a power of adhering to whatever it sticks against in the same manner as a cupping-glass sticks to the human body. It is by such an apparatus that this animal sticks to the shark and drains away its moisture. The seamen, however, are of opinion that it is seen to attend on the shark for more friendly purposes, to point him to his prey, and to apprise him of his danger. For this reason it has been called the shark's pilot.

The shark so much resembles the whale in size, that some have injudiciously ranked it in the class of cetaceous fishes: but its real rank is in the place here assigned it—among those of the cartilaginous kind. It breathes with gills and lungs; its bones are gristly, and it bringeth forth several living young; Belonius assures us that he saw a female shark produce eleven live young ones at a time. But I will not take upon me to vouch for the veracity of Rondeletius, who, when talking of the blue shark, says that the female will permit her small brood when in danger to swim down her mouth, and take shelter in her belly. Mr. Pennant, indeed, seems to give credit to the story, and thinks that this fish, like the opossum, may have a place fitted by Nature for the reception of her young. To his opinion much deference is due, and is sufficient at least to make us suspend our assent; for nothing is so contemptible as that affectation of wisdom which some display by universal incredulity.

Upon the whole, a shark when living is a very formidable animal, and when dead is of very little value. The flesh is hardly digestible by any but the Negroes, who are fond of it to distraction; the liver affords three or four quarts of oil; some imaginary virtues have been ascribed to the brain; and its skin is by great labour asherished into that substance called shagreen. Mr. Pennant is of opinion that the female is larger than the male in all this tribe; which would, if confirmed by experience, make a striking agreement between them and birds of prey. It were to be wished that succeeding historians would examine into this observation, which is offered only as a conjecture.



CHAP. III.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FLAT FISH OF THE RAY KIND.

The same rapacity which impels the shark along the surface of the water actuates the flat fish at the bottom. Less active and less formidable, they creep in security along the bottom, and seize everything that comes in their way; neither the hardest shell nor the sharpest spines give protection to the animals that bear them; their insatiable hunger is such that they devour all; and the force of their stomach is so great that it easily digests them.

The whole of this kind resemble each other very strongly in their figure; nor is it easy without experience to distinguish one from another. The stranger to this dangerous tribe may imagine he is only handling a skate, when he is instantly struck numb by the torpedo; he may suppose he has caught a thornback, till he is stung by the fireflare. It will be proper, therefore, after describing the general figure of these animals, to mark their differences.

All fish of the ray kind are broad, cartilaginous, swimming flat on the water, and having spines on different parts of their body, or at the tail. They all have their eyes and mouth placed quite under their body, with apertures for breathing either about or near them. They all have teeth, or a rough bone, which answers the same purpose. Their bowels are very wide towards the mouth, and go on diminishing to the tail. The tail is very differently shaped from that of other fishes, and at first sight more resembling that of a quadruped, being narrow, and ending either in a bunch or a point. But what they are chiefly distinguished by is their spines or prickles, which the different species have on different parts of their body. Some are armed with spines both above and below; others have them on the upper part only; some have their spines at the tail; some have three rows of them, and others but one. These prickles in some are comparatively soft and feeble—those of others strong and piercing. The smallest of these spines are usually inclining towards the tail—the larger towards the head.

It is by the spines that these animals are distinguished from each other. The skate has the middle of the back rough, and a single row of spines on the tail; the sharp-nosed ray has ten spines that are situated towards the middle of the back; the rough ray has its spines spread indiscriminately over the whole back; the thorn-back has its spines disposed in three rows upon the back; the fireflare has but one spine, but that indeed a terrible one. This dangerous weapon is placed on the tail, about four inches from the body, and is not less than five inches long. It is of a flinty hardness, the sides thin, sharp pointed, and closely and sharply bearded the whole way. The last of this tribe that I shall mention is the torpedo; and this animal has no spines that can wound; but in the place of them it is possessed of one of the most potent and extraordinary faculties in Nature.

Such are the principal differences that may enable us to distinguish animals, some of which are of very great use to mankind, from others that are terrible and noxious. With respect to their uses, indeed, as we shall soon see, they differ much; but the similitude among them, as to their nature, appetites, and conformations, is perfect and entire. They are all as voracious as they are plentiful, and as dangerous to a stranger as useful to him who can distinguish their difference.

Of all the larger fish of the sea these are the most numerous; and they owe their numbers to their size. Except the white shark and cachalot alone, there is no other fish that has a swallow large enough to take them in; and their spines make them a still more dangerous morsel. Yet the size of them is such, that even the

shark himself is unable to devour them: we have seen some of them in England weigh above two hundred pounds; but that is nothing to their enormous bulk in other parts of the world. Labat tells us of a prodigious ray that was speared by the Negroes at Guadaloupe, which was thirteen feet eight inches broad, and above ten feet from the snout to the insertion of the tail. The tail itself was in proportion, for it was not less than fifteen feet long, twenty inches broad at its insertion, and tapering to a point. The body was two feet in depth; the skin as thick as leather, and marked with spots; which spots, in all of this kind, are only glands that supply a mucous to lubricate and soften the skin. This enormous fish was utterly unfit to be eaten by the Europeans; but the Negroes chose out some of the nicest bits, and carefully salted them up as a most favourite provision.

Yet, large as they may seem, it is very probable that we have seen only the smallest of the kind; as they generally keep at the bottom, the largest of the kind are seldom seen; and, as they may probably have been growing for ages, the extent of their magnitude is unknown. It is generally supposed, however, that they are the largest inhabitants of the deep; and, were we to credit the Norway Bishop, there are some above a mile (?) over. But to suppose an animal of such magnitude is absurd; yet the over-stretching the supposition does not destroy the probability that animal of this tribe grow to an enormous size.

The ray generally chooses for its retreat such parts of the sea as have a black muddy bottom; the large ones keep at greater depths; but the smaller approach the shores, and feed upon whatever living animals they can surprise, or whatever putrid substances they meet with. As they are ravenous, they easily take the bait, yet will not touch it if it be taken up and kept up a day or two out of water. Almost all fish appear much more delicate with regard to a baited hook than their ordinary food. They appear by their manner to perceive the line and to dread it; but the impulse of their hunger is too great for their caution; and, even though they perceive the danger, if thoroughly hungry they devour the destructive morsel.

These fish generate in March and April, at which time only they are seen swimming near the surface of the water, several of the males pursuing one female. They adhere so fast together in coition, that the fishermen frequently draw up both together, though only one has been hooked. The females are prolific in the extreme degree—there having been no less than three hundred eggs taken out of the body of a single ray. These eggs are covered with a tough horny substance, which they acquire in the womb; for before they descend into that, they are attached to the ovary pretty much in the same manner as in the body of a pullet. From this ovary, or egg-bag, as it is vulgarly called, the fish's eggs drop one by one into the womb, and there receive a shell by the concretion of the fluids of that organ. When come to the proper maturity they are excluded, but never above one or two at a time, and often at intervals of three or four hours. These eggs, or purses as the fishermen call them, are usually cast about the beginning of May, and they continue casting during the whole summer. In October, when their breeding ceases, they are exceedingly poor and thin; but in November they begin to improve, and grow gradually better till May, when they are in the highest perfection.

It is chiefly during the winter season that our fishermen take them; but the Dutch, who are indefatigable, begin their operations earlier, and fish with better success than we. The method practised by the fishermen of Scarborough is thought to be the best among the English; and, as Mr. Pennant has given a very succinct account of it, I will take leave to present it to the reader.

"When they go out to fish, each person is provided with three lines; each man's lines are fairly coiled upon a flat, oblong piece of wicker-work, the hooks being baited and placed very regularly in the centre of the coil. Each line is furnished with two hundred and eighty hooks, at the distance of six feet two inches from each other. The hooks are fastened to lines of twisted horse-hair twenty-seven inches in length.

"When fishing, there are always three men in each coble; and consequently nine of these lines are fastened together and used as one line, extending in length near three miles, and furnished with above two thousand five hundred hooks. An anchor and a buoy are fixed at the first end of the line, and one more at each end of each man's lines—in all, four anchors, and four buoys made of leather or cork. The line is always laid across the current. The tides of flood and ebb continue an equal time upon our coast, and, when undisturbed by winds, run each way about six hours. They are so rapid that the fishermen can only shoot and haul their lines at the turn of the tide; and therefore the lines always remain upon the ground about six hours. The same rapidity of tide prevents their using hand-lines; and, therefore, two of the people commonly wrap themselves in the sail and sleep, while the other keeps a strict look-out for fear of being run down by ships, and to observe the weather; for storms often rise so suddenly, that it is sometimes with extreme difficulty they escape to the shore, though they leave the lines behind them.

"The coble is twenty feet six inches long, and five feet extreme breadth. It is about one ton burthen, rowed with three pairs of oars, and admirably constructed for the purpose of encountering a mountainous sea. They hoist sail when the wind suits.

"The five-men-boat is forty feet long, fifteen broad, and twenty-five tons burthen. It is so called, though navigated by six men and a boy; because one of the men is hired to cook, and does not share in the profits of the other five. All our able fishermen go in these boats to the herring-fishery at Yarmouth the latter end of September, and return about the middle of November. The boats are laid up until the beginning of Lent, at which time they go off in them to the edge of the Dogger and other places, to fish for turbot, cod, ling, skate, &c. They always take two cobbles on board, and, when they come upon their ground, anchor the boat, throw out the cobbles, and fish in the same manner as those do who go from the shore in a coble; with this difference only, that here each man is provided with double the quantity of lines, and, instead of waiting the return of the tide in the coble, returns to the boat and baits his other lines—thus hawling one set and shooting another every turn of tide. They commonly run into the harbour twice a-week to deliver their fish. The five-men-boat is decked at each end, but open in the middle, and has two long sails.

"The best bait for all kinds of fish is fresh herring cut in pieces of a proper size; and, notwithstanding what has been said to the contrary, they are taken there at any time in the winter, and all the spring, whenever the fishermen put down their nets for that purpose: the five-men-boats always take some nets for that end. Next to herrings for bait are the lesser lampreys. The next baits in esteem are small haddocks cut in pieces, sand-worms, muscles, and limpets; and, lastly, when none of these can be found, they use bullocks' liver. The hooks used there are much smaller than those employed at Iceland and Newfoundland. Experience has shown that the larger fish will take a living small one upon the hook sooner than any bait that can be put on; therefore they use such as the fish can swallow. The hooks are two inches and a half long in the shank, and near an inch wide between the shank and the point. The line is made of small cording, and is always tanned before it is used. All the rays and turbot are extremely

before it is used. All the rays and turbot are extremely delicate in their choice of baits: if a piece of herring or haddock has been twelve hours out of the sea, and then used as a bait, they will not touch it."

Such is the manner of fishing for those fish that usually keep near the bottom on the coasts of England; and Duhamel observes, that the best weather for succeeding is a half-calm, when the waves are just curled with a silent breeze.

But this extent of line, which runs, as we have seen, three miles along the bottom, is nothing to what the Italians throw out in the Mediterranean. Their fishing is carried on in a tartan, which is a vessel much larger than ours; and they bait a line of no less than twenty miles long, with above ten or twelve thousand hooks. This line is called the "parasina," and the fishing goes by that of the "pielago." This line is not regularly drawn six hours, as with us, but remains for some time in the sea; and it requires the space of twenty-four hours to take it up. By this apparatus they take rays, sharks, and other fish; some of which are above a thousand pounds weight. When they have caught any of this magnitude they strike them through with a harpoon to bring them on board, and kill them as fast as they can.

This method of catching fish is obviously fatiguing and dangerous; but the value of the capture generally repays the pain. The skate and the thornback are very good food, and their size, which is from ten pounds to two hundred-weight, well rewards the trouble of fishing for them. But it sometimes happens that the lines are visited by very unwelcome intruders—by the rough ray, the fireflare, or the torpedo. To all these the fishermen have the most mortal antipathy; and, when discovered, shudder at the sight; however, they are not always so much upon their guard but that they sometimes feel the different resentments of this angry tribe, and, instead of a prize, find they have caught a vindictive enemy. When such is the case, they take care to throw them back into the sea with the swiftest expedition.

The rough ray inflicts but slight wounds with the prickles with which its whole body is furnished. To the ignorant it seems harmless, and a man would at first sight venture to take it in his hand without any apprehension; but he soon finds that there is not a single part of its body that is not armed with spines; and that there is no way of seizing the animal but by the little fin at the end of the tail.

But this animal is harmless when compared to the fireflare, which seems to be the dread of even the boldest and most experienced fishermen. The weapon with which Nature has armed this animal, which grows from the tail, and which we described as barbed and five inches long, has been an instrument of terror to the ancient fishermen as well as the modern; and they have delivered many tremendous fables of its astonishing effects. Pliny, Ælian, and Oppian have supplied it with a venom that affects even the inanimate creation: trees that are struck by it instantly lose their verdure, and rocks themselves are incapable of resisting the potent poison. The enchantress Circe armed her son with a spear headed with the spine of the trygon, as the most irresistible weapon she could furnish him with—a weapon that soon after was to be the death of his own father.

"That spears and darts," says Mr. Pennant, "might in very early times have been headed with this bone instead of iron we have no doubt. The Americans head their arrows with the bones of fishes to this day; and from their hardness and sharpness they are no contemptible weapons. But that this spine is possessed of those venomous qualities ascribed to it we have every reason to doubt; though some men of high reputation, and the whole body of fishermen, contend for its venomous effects. It is, in fact, a weapon of offence belonging to this

animal, and capable from its barbs of inflicting a very terrible wound, attended with dangerous symptoms; but it cannot be possessed of any poison, as the spine has no sheath to preserve the supposed venom on its surface, and the animal has no gland that separates the noxious fluid; besides, all those animals that are furnished with envenomed fangs or stings seem to have them strongly connected with their safety and existence; they never part with them; there is an apparatus of poison prepared in the body to accompany their exertions; and when the fangs or stings are taken away the animal languishes and dies. But it is otherwise with the spine of the fireflare; it is fixed to the tail, as a quill into the tail of a fowl, and is annually shed in the same manner; it may be necessary for the creature's defence, but it is no way necessary for its existence. The wound inflicted by an animal's tail has something terrible in the idea, and may from thence alone be supposed to be fatal. From hence terror might have added poison to the pain, and called up imagined dangers: the Negroes universally believe that the sting is poisonous; but they never die of the wound; for, by opening the fish and laying it to the part injured it effects a speedy cure. The slowness of the remedy proves the innocence of the wound."

The torpedo is an animal of this kind, equally formidable and well known with the former; but the manner of its operating is to this hour a mystery to mankind. The body of this fish is almost circular, and thicker than others of the ray kind; the skin is soft, smooth, and of a yellowish colour, marked, as are all the kind, with large annular spots; the eyes are very small; the tail tapering to a point; and the weight of the fish from a quarter to fifteen pounds. Redi found one twenty-four pounds weight. To all outward appearance it is furnished with no extraordinary powers; it has no muscles formed for particularly great exertions—no internal conformation perceptibly differing from the rest of its kind; yet such is that unaccountable power it possesses, that the instant it is touched it numbs not only the hand and arm, but sometimes also the whole body. The shock received, by all accounts, most resembles the stroke of an electrical machine—sudden, tingling, and painful. "The instant," says Kempfer, "I touched it with my hand I felt a terrible numbness in my arm, and as far up as the shoulder. Even if one treads upon it with the shoe on, it affects not only the leg but the whole thigh upwards. Those who touch it with the foot are seized with a stronger palpitation than even those who touched it with the hand. This numbness bears no resemblance to that which we feel when a nerve is a long time pressed, and the foot is said to be asleep; it rather appears like a sudden vapour, which, passing through the pores in an instant, penetrates to the very springs of life, from whence it diffuses itself over the whole body, and gives real pain. The nerves are so affected, that the person struck imagines all the bones of his body, and particularly those of the limb that received the blow, are driven out of joint. All this is accompanied with an universal tremour, a sickness of the stomach, a general convulsion, a total suspension of the faculties of the mind. In short," continues Kempfer, "such is the pain, that all the force of our promises and authority could not prevail upon a seaman to undergo the shock a second time. A Negro, indeed, who was standing by, readily undertook to touch the torpedo, and was seen to handle it without feeling any of its effects. He informed us, that his whole secret consisted in keeping in his breath; and we found upon trial that this method answered with ourselves. When we held in our breath the torpedo was harmless; but when we breathed ever so little its efficacy took place"

Kempfer has very well described the effects of this animal's shock; but succeeding experience has abundantly

dantly convinced us that holding in the breath no way guards against its violence. Those, therefore, who, depending on that receipt, should play with a torpedo, would soon find themselves painfully undeceived: not but that this fish may be many times touched with perfect security; for it is not upon every occasion that it exerts its potency. Reaumur, who made several trials upon this animal, has at least convinced the world that it is not necessarily, but by an effort, that the torpedo numbs the hands of him that touches it. He tried several times, and could easily tell when the fish intended the stroke it flattened the back, raised the head and tail, and then, by a violent contraction in the opposite direction, struck with its back against the pressing finger, and the body, which before was flat, became humped and round.

But we must infer, as he has done, that the whole effect of this animal's exertions arise from the greatness of the blow which the fingers receive at the instant they are struck. We will, with him, allow that the stroke is very powerful, equal to that of a musket-ball, since he will have it so; but it is very well known that a blow, though never so great, on the points of the fingers, diffuses no numbness over the whole body: such a blow might break the ends of the fingers indeed, but would hardly numb the shoulder. Those blows that numb must be applied immediately to some great and leading nerve, or to a large surface of the body; a powerful stroke applied to the ends of the fingers will be excessively painful indeed, but the numbness will not reach beyond the fingers themselves. We must, therefore, look for another cause producing the powerful effects wrought by the torpedo.

Others have ascribed it to a tremulous motion which this animal is found to possess, somewhat resembling that of a horse's skin when stung by a fly. This operating under the touch with an amazing quickness of vibration, they suppose, produces the uneasy sensation described above—something similar to what we feel when we rub plush cloth against the grain. But the cause is quite disproportioned to the effect, and so much beyond our experience that this solution is as difficult as the wonder we want to explain.

The most probable solution seems to be, that the shock proceeds from an animal electricity, which this fish has some hidden power of storing up and producing on its most urgent occasions. The shocks are entirely similar; the duration of the pain is the same; but how the animal contrives to renew the charge—how it is prevented from evaporating it on contiguous objects—how it is originally procured—these are difficulties which time alone can elucidate.

But to know even the effects is wisdom. Certain it is that the powers of this animal seem to decline with its vigour; for as its strength ceases, the force of the shock seems to diminish; till, at last, when the fish is dead, the whole power is destroyed, and it may be handled or eaten with perfect security: on the contrary, when immediately taken out of the sea its force is very great, and not only affects the hand, but if even touched with a stick the person finds himself sometimes affected. This power, however, is not to be extended to the degree that some would have us believe—as reaching the fishermen at the end of the line, or numbing fishes in the same pond. Godignus, in his history of Abyssinia, carries this quality to a most ridiculous excess; he tells us of one of these that was put into a basket among a number of dead fishes, and that the next morning the people, to their utter astonishment, perceived that the torpedo had actually numbed the dead fishes into life again.

To conclude, it is generally supposed that the female torpedo is much more powerful than the male. Lorenzini, who has made several experiments upon this animal, seems convinced that its power only resides in two

thin muscles that cover a part of the back. These he calls the trembling fibres; and he asserts that the animal may be touched with safety in any other part. It is now known, also, that there are more fish than this of the ray kind possessed of the numbing quality, which has acquired them the name of the torpedo. These are described by Atkins and Moore, and found in great abundance along the coasts of Africa. They are shaped like a mackerel, except that the head is much larger; the effects of these seem also to differ in some respects. Moore talks of keeping his hand upon the animal; which in the ray torpedo it is actually impossible to do. "There was no man in the company," says he, "that could bear to keep his hand on this animal the twentieth part of a minute, it gave him so great pain; but upon taking the hand away the numbness went off, and all was well again. This numbing quality continued in this torpedo even after it was dead; and the very skin was still possessed of its extraordinary power till it became dry." Condamine informs us of a fish possessed of the power of the torpedo of a shape very different from the former, and everyway resembling a lamprey. This animal, if touched by the hand, or even with a stick, instantly benumbs the hand and arm to the very shoulder; and sometimes the man falls down under the blow. These animals, therefore, must affect the nervous system in a different manner from the former, both with respect to the manner and the intention; but how this effect is wrought, we must be content to dismiss in obscurity.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE LAMPREY AND ITS AFFINITIES.

There is a species of the lamprey served up as a great delicacy among the modern Romans very different from ours. Whether theirs be the *murena* of the ancients I will not pretend to say; but there is nothing more certain than that our lamprey is not. The Roman lamprey agrees with the ancient fish in being kept in ponds, and considered by the luxurious as a very great delicacy.

The lamprey known among us is differently estimated according to the season in which it is caught, or the place where it has been fed. Those that leave the sea to deposit their spawn in fresh waters are the best; those that are entirely bred in our rivers, and that have never been at sea, are considered as much inferior to the former. Those that are taken in the months of March, April, or May, just upon their leaving the sea, are reckoned very good; those that are caught after they have cast their spawn are found to be flabby and of little value. Those caught in several of the rivers in Ireland the people will not venture to touch; those of the English Severn are considered as the most delicate of all other fish whatever.

The lamprey much resembles an eel in its general appearance, but is of a lighter colour, and rather of a clumsy make. It differs, however, in the mouth, which is round, and placed rather obliquely below the end of the nose. It more resembles the mouth of a leech than an eel; and the animal has a hole on the top of the head through which it spouts water, as in the cetaceous kind. There are seven holes on each side for respiration; and the fins are formed rather by a lengthening out of the skin than any set of bones or spines for that purpose. As the mouth is formed resembling that of a leech, so it has a property resembling that animal of sticking close to and sucking any body it is applied to. It is extraordinary the power they have of adhering to stones, which they do so firmly as not to be drawn off without some difficulty. We are told of one that weighed but three pounds; and yet it stuck so firmly to a stone of

twelve pounds that it remained suspended at its mouth, from which it was separated with no small difficulty. This amazing power of suction is supposed to arise from the animal's exhausting the air within its body by the hole over the nose, while the mouth is closely fixed to the object, and permits no air to enter. It would be easy to determine the weight this animal is thus able to sustain; which will be equal to the weight of a column of air of equal diameter with the fish's mouth.

From some peculiarity of formation, this animal swims generally with its body as near as possible to the surface; and it might easily be drowned by being kept by force for any time under water. Muralto has given us the anatomy of this animal; but, in a very minute description, makes no mention of lungs. Yet I am very apt to suspect that two red glands, tissue with nerves, which he describes as lying towards the back of the head, are no other than the lungs of this animal. The absolute necessity it is under of breathing in the air convinces me that it must have lungs, though I do not know of any anatomist that has described them.

The adhesive quality in the lamprey may be in some measure increased by that flimsy substance with which its body is all over smeared—a substance that serves at once to keep it warm in its cold element, and also to keep its skin soft and pliant. This mucous is separated by two long lymphatic canals, that extend on each side from the head to the tail, and that furnish it in great abundance. As to its intestines, it seems to have but one great bowel, running from the mouth to the vent, narrow at both ends, and wide in the middle.

So simple a conformation seems to imply an equal simplicity of appetite. In fact, the lamprey's food is either slime and water, or such small water-insects as are scarce perceivable. Perhaps its appetite may be more active at sea, of which it is properly a native; but when it comes up into our rivers it is hardly perceived to devour anything.

Its usual time of leaving the sea, which it is annually seen to do in order to spawn, is about the beginning of spring; and after a stay of a few months it returns again to the sea. Their preparation for spawning is peculiar. Their manner is to make holes in the gravelly bottom of rivers; and on this occasion their sucking power is particularly serviceable; for if they meet with a stone of a considerable size they will remove it and throw it out. Their young are produced from eggs in the manner of flat fish; the female remains near the place where they are excluded, and continues with them till they come forth. She is sometimes seen with her whole family playing about her; and after some time she conducts them in triumph back to the ocean.

But some have not sufficient strength to return; and these continue in the fresh water till they die. Indeed, the life of this fish, according to Rondeletius, who has given its history, is but of very short continuance; and a single brood is the extent of the female's fertility. As soon as she has returned after casting her eggs she seems exhausted and flabby. She becomes old and worn out before her time; and two years is generally the limit of her existence.

However this may be, they are very different eating after they have cast their eggs, and particularly at the approach of hot weather. The best season for them is the months of March, April, and May; and they are usually taken in nets with salmon, and sometimes in baskets at the bottom of the river. It used to be the custom for the city of Gloucester annually to present the king with a lamprey-pie; and as the gift was made at Christmas, it was not without great difficulty the corporation procured the proper quantity, though they gave a guinea a piece for taking them.

But of all places where this animal is to be found, it appears nowhere in such numbers as in the Lakes of Frischehauff and Curischeauff, near the city of Pillau.

In the rivers also that empty themselves into the Euxine Sea this fish is caught in great numbers, particularly at the mouth of the river Don. In all these places the fishermen regularly expect their arrival from the sea, and have their nets and salt ready prepared for their reception.

How much they were valued among the ancients, or a fish bearing some resemblance to them, appears from all the classics that have praised good living or ridiculed gluttony. One story we are told of this fish, with which I will conclude its history. A senator of Rome, whose name does not deserve being transmitted to posterity, was famous for the delicacy of his lampreys. Tigellinus, Manucius, and all the celebrated epicures of Rome, were loud in his praises: no man's fish had such a flavour, was so nicely fed, or so exactly pickled. Augustus, hearing so much of this man's entertainments, desired to be his guest; and soon found that fame had been just to his merits; the man had indeed very fine lampreys, and of an exquisite flavour. The emperor was desirous of knowing the method by which he fed his fish to so fine a relish; and the glutton, making no secret of his art, informed him that his way was to throw into his ponds such of his slaves that had at any time displeased him. Augustus, we are told, was not much pleased with his receipt, and instantly ordered all his ponds to be filled up. The story would have ended better if he had ordered the owner to be flung in also.

CHAP. V.

THE STURGEON AND ITS VARIETIES.

The sturgeon, with a form as terrible and a body as large as the shark, is yet as harmless as the fish we have been just describing; incapable and unwilling to injure others, it flies from the smallest fishes, and generally falls a victim to its own timidity.

The sturgeon in its general form resembles a freshwater pike. The nose is long; the mouth is situated beneath, being small, and without jaws or teeth. But though it is so harmless and ill-provided for war, the body is formidable enough in appearance. It is long, pentagonal, and covered with five rows of large bony knobs, one row on the back and two on each side, and a number of fins to give it greater expedition. Of this there are three kinds—the common sturgeon, the caviare sturgeon, and the huso, or isinglass-fish. The first has eleven knobs or scales on the back, the second has fifteen, and the latter thirteen on the back and forty-three on the tail. These differences seem slight to us who only consider the animal's form; but those who consider its uses find the distinction of considerable importance. The first is the sturgeon, the flesh of which is sent pickled into all parts of Europe. The second is the fish from the roe of which that noted delicacy called caviare is made; and the third, besides supplying the caviare, furnishes also the valuable commodity of isinglass. The yall grow to a very great size; and some of them have been found above eighteen feet long.

There is not a country in Europe but what this fish visits at different seasons; it annually ascends the largest rivers to spawn, and propagates in an amazing number. The inhabitants along the banks of the Po, the Danube, and the Wolga make great profit yearly of its incursions up the stream, and have their nets prepared for its reception. The sturgeon, also, is brought daily to the markets of Rome and Venice, and they are known to abound in the Mediterranean Sea. Yet those fish that keep entirely either in salt or fresh water are but comparatively small. When the sturgeon enjoys the vicissitude of fresh and salt water, it is then that it grows to an enormous size, so as almost to rival even the whale.

Nor are we without frequent visits from this much-esteemed fish in England. It is often accidentally taken in our rivers in salmon nets, and particularly in those parts that are not far remote from the sea. The largest we have heard of caught in Great Britain was a fish taken in the Eske, where they are most frequently found, which weighed four hundred and sixty pounds—an enormous size to those who have only seen our fresh-water fishes.

North America also furnishes the sturgeon; their rivers in May, June, and July supply them in very great abundance. At that time they are seen sporting in the water, and leaping from its surface several yards into the air. When they fall again on their sides, the concussion is so violent that the noise is heard in still weather at some miles' distance.

As the sturgeon is a harmless fish and no way voracious, it is never caught by a bait in the ordinary manner of fishing, but always in nets. From the description given above of its mouth, it is not to be supposed that the sturgeon would swallow any hook capable of holding so large a bulk and so strong a swimmer. In fact, it never attempts to seize any of the finny tribe, but lives by rooting at the bottom of the sea, where it makes insects and sea-plants its whole subsistence. From this quality of floundering at the bottom it has received its name; which comes from the German verb "stoeren," signifying to wallow in the mud. That it lives upon no large animals is obvious to all those who cut it open, where nothing is found in its stomach but a kind of slimy substance, which has induced some to think it lives only upon water and air. From hence there is a German proverb, which is applied to a man who is extremely temperate when they say he is as moderate as a sturgeon.

As the sturgeon is so temperate in its appetites, so is it equally timid in its nature. There would be scarce any method of taking it did not its natural desire of propagation induce it to incur so great a variety of dangers. The smallest fish is alone sufficient to terrify a shoal of sturgeons; for, being unfurnished with any weapons of defence, they are obliged to trust to their swiftness and their caution for security. Like all animals that do not make war upon others, sturgeons live in society among themselves, rather for the purpose of pleasure than from any power of mutual protection. Gessner even asserts that they are delighted with sounds of various kinds; and that he has seen them shoal together at the notes of a trumpet.

The usual time, as was said before, for the sturgeon to come up rivers to deposit its spawn is about the beginning of summer, when the fishermen of all great rivers make a regular preparation for its reception. At Pillau, particularly, the shores are formed into districts, and allotted to companies of fishermen, some of which are rented for about three hundred pounds a-year. The nets in which the sturgeon is caught are made of small cord, and placed across the mouth of the river, but in such a manner that, whether the tide ebbs or flows, the pouch of the net goes with the stream. The sturgeon thus caught while in the water is one of the strongest fish that swims, and often breaks the net to pieces that encloses it; but the instant it is raised with its head above water all its activity ceases; it is then a lifeless, spiritless lump, and suffers itself to be tamely dragged on shore. It has been found prudent, however, to draw it to shore gently; for, if excited by any unnecessary violence, it has been found to break the fishermen's legs with a blow of its tail. The most experienced fishers, therefore, when they have drawn it to the brink keep the head still elevated, which prevents its doing any mischief with the hinder part of the body; others, by a noose, fasten the head and the tail together; and thus, without immediately despatching it, bring it to the market, if there be one near, or keep it till their number is completed for exportation.

The flesh of this animal pickled is very well known at all the tables of Europe, and is even more prized in England than in any of the countries where it is usually caught. The fishermen have two different methods of preparing it. The one is by cutting it in long pieces lengthwise, and, having salted them, by hanging them up in the sun to dry: the fish thus prepared is sold in all the countries of the Levant, and supplies the want of better provision. The other method, which is usually practised in Holland, and along the shores of the Baltic, is to cut the sturgeon crosswise into short pieces, and put it into small barrels with a pickle made of salt and saumure. This is the sturgeon which is sold in England, and of which great quantities came from the North, until we gave encouragement to the importation of it from North America. From thence we are very well supplied; but it is said not with such good fish as those imported from the north of Europe.

A very great trade is also carried on with the roe of the sturgeon, preserved in a particular manner, and called caviare; it is made from the roe of all kinds of sturgeon, but particularly the second. This is much more in request in other countries of Europe than with us. To all these high-relished meats the appetite must be formed by degrees; and though formerly even in England it was very much in request at the politest tables, it is at present sunk entirely into disuse. It is still, however, a considerable merchandise among the Turks, Greeks, and Venetians. Caviare somewhat resembles soft soap in consistence; but it is of a brown, uniform colour, and is eaten as cheese with bread. The manner of making it is this:—They take the spawn from the body of the sturgeon—for it is to be observed that the sturgeon differs from other cartilaginous fish, in that it has spawn, like a cod, and not eggs like a ray. They take the spawn, I say, and freeing it from the small membranes that connect it together, they wash it with vinegar, and afterwards spread it to dry upon a table; they then put it into a vessel with salt, breaking the spawn with their hands, and not with a pestle; this done, they put it into a canvas bag, letting the liquor drain from it; lastly, they put it into a tub, with holes in the bottom, so that, if there be any moisture still remaining, it may run out: then it is pressed down, and covered up close for use.

But the nuso or isinglass-fish furnishes a still more valuable commodity. This fish is caught in great quantities in the Danube from the months of October to January: it is seldom under fifty pounds' weight, and often above four hundred: its flesh is soft, glutinous, and flabby; but it is sometimes salted, which makes it better tasted, and then it turns red like salmon. It is for the commodity it furnishes that it is chiefly taken. Isinglass is of a whiteish substance, inclining to yellow, done up into rolls, and so exported for use. It is very well known as serviceable, not only in medicine but many arts. The varnisher, the wine-merchant, and even the clothier know its uses; and very great sums are yearly expended upon this single article of commerce. The manner of making it is this:—They take the skin, the entrails, the fins, and the tails of this fish, and cut them into small pieces; these are left to macerate in a sufficient quantity of warm water, and they are all boiled shortly after with a slow fire, until they are dissolved and reduced to a jelly; this jelly is spread upon instruments made for the purpose, so that on being dried it assumes the form of parchment, and then it is rolled in the form which we see it in the shops.

This valuable commodity is principally furnished from Russia, where they prepare great quantities surprisingly cheap. Mr. Jackson, an ingenious countryman of our own, found out an obvious method of making a glue at home that answered all the purposes of isinglass; but when with the trouble of making it, and perhaps the art spent in practice to undersell him, he was,

as I am told, obliged to discontinue the improvement of his discovery. Indeed, it is a vain attempt to manufacture among ourselves those things which may be more naturally and cheaply supplied elsewhere. We have many trades that are unnaturally, if I may so express it, employed among us, who furnish more laboriously those necessities with which other countries could easily and cheaply supply us. It would be wiser to take what they can produce; and to turn our artizans to the increase and manufacture of such productions as thrive more readily among us.

CHAP. IX.

OF ANOMALOUS CARTILAGINOUS FISHES.

Of all others, the cartilaginous class seems to abound with the greatest variety of ill-formed animals: and, if philosophy could allow the expression, we might say the cartilaginous class was the class of monsters; in fact, it exhibits a variety of shapeless beings, the deviations of which from the usual form of fishes are beyond the power of words to describe, and scarcely of the pencil to draw. In this class we have the pipe-fish, that almost tapers to a thread, and the sun-fish, that has the appearance of a bulky head, but the body cut off in the middle; the hippocampus, with a head somewhat like that of a horse, and the water-bat, whose head can scarcely be distinguished from the body. In this class we find the fishing-frog, which from its deformity some have called the sea-devil; the chimæra, the lump-fish, the sea-porcupine, and the sea-snail. Of all these the history is but little known; and naturalists supply the place with description.

The sun-fish sometimes grows to a very large size; one taken near Plymouth was five hundred-weight. In form it resembles a bream, or some deep fish cut off in the middle; the mouth is very small, and contains in each jaw two broad teeth, with sharp edges; the colour of the back is dusky and dappled, and the belly is of a silvery white. When boiled, it has been observed to turn to a glutinous jelly, and would most probably serve for all the purposes of isinglass were it found in sufficient plenty.

The fishing-frog in shape very much resembles a tadpole or young frog—but then a tadpole of enormous size, for it grows to above five feet long, and its mouth is sometimes a yard wide. Nothing can exceed its deformity. The head is much bigger than the whole body; the under-jaw projects beyond the upper, and both are armed with rows of sharp slender teeth; the palate and the tongue are furnished with teeth in like manner; the eyes are placed on the top of the head, and are encompassed with prickles; immediately above the nose are two long beards or filaments, small in the beginning, but thicker at the end, and round; these, as it is said, answer a very singular purpose; for being made somewhat resembling a fishing-line, it is asserted that the animal converts them to the purposes of fishing. With these extended, as Pliny asserts, the fishing-frog hides in muddy waters, and leaves nothing but the beards to be seen; the curiosity of the smaller fish brings them to view these filaments, and their hunger induces them to seize the bait; upon which the animal in ambush instantly draws in its filaments with the little fish that had taken the bait, and devours it without mercy. This story, though apparently improbable, has found credit among some of our best naturalists; but what induces me to doubt the fact is, that there is another species of this animal that has no beard, which it would not want if they were necessary to the existence of the kind. Rondeletius informs us that if we take out the bowels the body will appear with a kind of transparence; and

that if a lighted candle be placed within the body, as in a lantern, the whole has a very formidable appearance. The fishermen, however, have in general a great regard for this ugly fish, as it is an enemy to the dog-fish, the bodies of those fierce and voracious animals being often found in its stomach; whenever they take it, therefore, they always set it at liberty.

The lump-fish is trifling in size compared to the former; its length is but sixteen inches, and its weight about four pounds; the shape of the body is like that of a bream, deep, and it swims edgeways; the back is sharp and elevated, and the belly flat; the lips, mouth, and tongue of this animal are of a deep red; the whole skin is rough, with bony knobs; the largest row is along the ridge of the back; the belly is of a bright crimson colour; but what makes the chief singularity in this fish is an oval aperture in the belly, surrounded with a soft fleshy substance that seems bearded all round; by means of this part it adheres with vast force to anything it pleases. If flung into a pail of water it will stick so close to the bottom, that on taking the fish by the tail one may lift up pail and all, though it holds several gallons of water. Great numbers of these fish are found along the coasts of Greenland in the beginning of summer, where they resort to spawn. Their roe is remarkably large, and the Greenlanders boil it to a pulp for eating. They are extremely fat, but not admired in England, being both flabby and insipid.

The sea-snail takes its name from the soft and unctuous texture of its body, resembling the snail upon land. It is almost transparent, and soon dissolves and melts away. It is but a little animal, being not above five inches long. The colour when fresh taken, is of a pale brown, the shape of the body round, and the back fin reaches all the way from the head to the tail. Beneath the throat is a round depression of a whitish colour, surrounded by twelve round spots placed in a circle. It is taken in England at the mouths of rivers four or five miles distant from the sea.

The body of the pipe-fish in the thickest part is not thicker than a swan-quill, while it is above sixteen inches long. This is angular, but the angles being not very sharp, they are not discernable until the fish is dried. Its general colour is an olive-brown, marked with numbers of blueish lines pointing from the back to the belly. It is viviparous; for on crushing one that was just taken hundreds of very minute young ones were observed to crawl about.

The hippocampus—which, from the form of its head, some call the sea-horse—never exceeds nine inches in length. It is about as thick as a man's thumb, and the body is said while alive to have hair on the fore-part, which falls off when it is dead. The snout is a sort of a tube with a hole at the bottom, to which there is a cover, which the animal can open and shut at pleasure. Behind the eyes there are two fins which look like ears; and above them are two holes which serve for respiration. The whole body seems to be composed of cartilaginous rings, on the intermediate membranes of which several small prickles are placed. It is found in the Mediterranean, and also in the Western Ocean; and upon the whole more resembles a great caterpillar than a fish. The ancients considered it as extremely venomous—probably induced by its peculiar figure.

From these harmless animals, covered with a slight coat of mail, we may proceed to others more thickly defended and more formidably armed, whose exact station in the scale of fishes is not yet ascertained. While Linnæus ranks them among the cartilaginous kinds, a later naturalist places them among the spinous class. With which tribe they most agree, succeeding observations must determine. At present we seem better acquainted with their figure than their history; their deformity is obvious; and the venomous nature of the greatest number has been confirmed by fatal experience.

This circumstance, as well as the happy distance at which they are placed from us, being all found in the Oriental or American seas, may have prevented a more critical inquiry; so that we know but little of the nature of their malignity, and still less of their pursuits and enmities in the deep.

In the first of this tribe we may place the sea-orb, which is almost round, has a mouth like a frog, and is from seven inches to two feet long. Like the porcupine, from whence it sometimes takes its name (being also called the sea-porcupine), it is covered over with long thorns or prickles, which point on every side; and when the animal is enraged it can blow up its body as round as a bladder. Of this extraordinary creature there are many kinds—some threatening only with spines, as the sea-hedgehog; others defended with a bony helmet that covers the head, as the ostracion; others with a coat of mail from the head to the tail, where it terminates in a point, as the centriscus; and others still armed offensively and defensively with bones and spines, as the shield orb.

Of these scarce one is without its peculiar weapon of offence. The centriscus wounds with its spine—the ostracion poisons with its venom—the orb is impregnable, and absolutely poisonous if eaten. Indeed, their figure is not such as would tempt one to make the experiment; and the natives of those countries where they are found are careful to inform foreigners of their danger; yet a certain sailor at the Cape of Good Hope, not believing what the Dutch told him concerning their venom, was resolved to make the experiment, and break through a prejudice which he supposed was founded on the animal's deformity. He tried and ate one, but his rashness cost him his life; he instantly fell sick, and died a few days after.

These frightful animals are of different sizes—some not bigger than a foot-ball, and others as large as a bushel. They almost all flatten and erect their spines at pleasure, and increase the terrors of their appearance in proportion to the approach of danger. At first they seem more inoffensive—their body oblong, with all their weapons pointing towards the tail; but upon being provoked or alarmed the body, that before seemed small, swells to the view; the animal visibly grows rounder and larger, and all its prickles stand upright, and threaten the invader on every side. The Americans often amuse themselves with the barren pleasure of catching these frightful creatures by a line or hook baited with a piece of sea-crab. The animal approaches the bait with its spine flattened; but when hooked and stopped by the line, straight all its spines are erected—the whole body being armed in such a manner at all points that it is impossible to lay hold of it on any part. For this reason it is dragged to some distance from the water, and there it quickly expires. In the middle of the belly of all these there is a sort of bag or bladder filled with air, and by the inflation of which the animal swells itself in the manner already mentioned.

In describing the deformed animals of this class, one is sometimes at a loss whether it be a fish or an insect that lies before him. Thus the hippocampus and the pipe-fish bear a strong resemblance to the caterpillar and the worm; while the lesser orb bears some likeness to the class of sea-eggs to be described after. I will conclude this account of cartilaginous fishes with the description of an animal which I would scarcely call a fish, but that Labat dignifies it with the name. Indeed, this class teems with such a number of odd-shaped animals, that one is prompted to rank everything extraordinary of the finny species among the number; but besides, Labat says its bones are cartilaginous, and that may entitle it to a place here.

The animal I mean is the galley-fish, which Linnæus degrades into the insect tribe under the title of the "Medusa," but which I choose to place in this tribe

from its habits, which are somewhat similar. To the eye of an unmindful spectator this fish seems a transparent bubble swimming on the surface of the sea, or like a bladder variously and beautifully painted with vivid colours, where red and violet predominate, as variously opposed to the beams of the sun. It is, however, an actual fish, the body of which is composed of cartilages, and a very thin skin filled with air, which thus keeps the animal floating on the surface as the waves and the wind nappen to drive. Sometimes it is seen thrown on the shore by one wave, and again washed back into the sea by another. Persons who happen to be walking along the shore often happen to tread upon these animals; and the bursting of their body yields a report like that when one treads upon the swim of a fish. It has eight broad feet with which it swims, or which it expands to catch the air as with a sail. It fastens itself to whatever it meets by means of its legs, which have an adhesive quality. Whether they move when on shore Labat could never perceive, though he did everything to make them stir; he only saw that it strongly adhered to whatever substances he applied it. It is very common in America, and grows to the size of a goose-egg, or somewhat more. It is perpetually seen floating; and no efforts that are used to hurt it can sink it to the bottom. All that appears above water is a bladder clear and transparent as glass, and shining with the most beautiful colours of the rainbow. Beneath, in the water, are four of the feet already mentioned that serve as oars, while the other four are expanded to sail with. But what is most remarkable in this extraordinary creature is the violent pungency of the flimsy substance with which its legs are smeared. If the smallest quantity but touch the skin, so caustic is its quality that it burns like hot oil dropped on the part affected. The pain is worst in the heat of the day, but ceases in the cool of the evening. It is from feeding on these that he thinks the poisonous quality contracted by some West Indian fish may be accounted for. It is certain these animals are extremely common along all the coasts in the Gulf of Mexico; and whenever the shore is covered with them in an unusual manner, it is considered as a certain fore-runner of a storm.

BOOK III.—CHAP. I.

THE DIVISION OF SPINOUS FISHES.

The third general division of fishes is into that of the spinous or bony kind. These are obviously distinguished from the rest by having a complete bony covering to their gills—by their being furnished with no other method of breathing but gills only—by their bones, which are sharp and thorny—and their tails, which are placed in a situation perpendicular to the body. This is that class which alone our later naturalists are willing to admit as fishes. The cetaceous class with them are but beasts that have taken up their abode in the ocean; the cartilaginous class are an amphibious band, that are but half denizens of that element: it is fishes of the spinous kind that really deserve the appellation.

This distinction the generality of mankind will hardly allow; but whatever be the justice of this preference in favour of the spinous class, it is certain that the cetaceous and cartilaginous classes bear no proportion to them in number. Of the spinous classes are already known above four hundred species; so that the numbers of the former are trifling in comparison, and make not above a fifth part of the finny creation.

From the great variety in this class, it is obvious how difficult a task it must have been to describe or remember even a part of what it contains. When six hundred different sorts of animals offer themselves for considera-

tion, the mind is bewildered in the multiplicity of objects, all of which lay some claim to its attention. To obviate this confusion, systems have been devised, which, throwing several fishes that agree in many particulars into one group, and thus uniting all into so many particular bodies, the mind that was incapable of separately considering each is enabled to comprehend all when thus offered in larger masses to its consideration.

Indeed, of all the beings in Animated Nature fishes most demand a systematical arrangement. Quadrupeds are but few, and can be well known; birds, from their seldom varying in their size, can be very tolerably distinguished without system; but among fishes, which no size can discriminate—where the animal ten inches and the animal ten feet long are just the same, there must be some other criterion by which they are to be distinguished—something that gives precision to our ideas of the animal whose history we desire to know.

Of the real history of fishes very little is yet known; but of very many we have full and sufficient account as to their external form. It would be unpardonable, therefore, in a history of these animals not to give the little we know, and at least arrange our forces though we cannot tell their destination. In this art of arrangement Artedi and Linnæus have long been conspicuous; they have both taken the view of the animal's form in different lights, and from the parts which most struck them have founded their respective systems.

Artedi, who was foremost, perceiving that some fishes had hard, prickly fins, as the pike—that others had soft, pliant ones, as the herring—and that others still wanted that particular fin by which the gills are opened and shut, as the eel, made out a system from these varieties. Linnæus, on the other hand rejecting this system, which he found liable to too many exceptions, considered the fins, not with regard to their substance, but their position. The ventral fins seem to be the great object of his system; he considers them in fishes supplying the same offices as feet in quadrupeds; and from their total absence, or from their being situated nearer the head or the tail in different fishes, he takes the differences of his system.

These arrangements, which are totally arbitrary, and which are rather a method than a science, are always fluctuating; and the last is generally preferred to that which went before. There has lately appeared, however, a system composed by Mr. Gouan, of Montpellier, that deserves applause for more than its novelty. It appears to me the best arrangement of this kind that ever was made; and in it the divisions are not only precisely systematical, but in some measure adopted by Nature herself. This learned Frenchman has united the systems of Artedi and Linnæus together; and, by bringing one to correct the other, has made out a number of tribes that are marked with the utmost precision. A part of his system, however, we have already gone through in the cartilaginous, or, as he calls a part of them, the "branchiostegous" tribe of fishes. In the arrangement of these I have followed Linnæus, as the number of them was but small and his method simple. But in that which is more properly called the "spinous" class of fishes I will follow Mr. Gouan's system; the terms of which, as well as of all the former systems, require some explanation, I do not love to multiply the technical terms of a science; but it often happens that names, by being long used, are as necessary to be known as the science itself.

If we consider the substance of the fin of a fish, we shall find it composed, besides the skin, either of straight hard, pointed, bony prickles or spines, as in the pike, or of soft, crooked, or forked bones or cartilages, as in the herring. The fishes that have bony, prickly fins are called "prickly-finned fish;" the latter, that have soft or cartilaginous fins, are called "soft-finned fish." The prickly-finned fish have received the Greek new-formed

name of "*Acanthopterygii*;" the soft-finned fish have likewise their barbarous Greek name of "*Malacopterygii*." Thus far Artedi has supplied Mr. Gouan with names and divisions. All spinous fish are divided into prickly-finned fish and soft-finned fish.

Again Linnæus has taught him to remark the situation of the fins; for the ventral or belly-fins, which are those particularly to be remarked, are either wholly wanting—as in the eel, and then the fish is called "Apodal" (a Greek word signifying without feet)—or the ventral-fins are placed more forward than the pectoral-fins, as in the haddock, and then the animal is called a "jugular-fish;" or the ventral fins are placed directly under the pectoral-fins, as in the father-lasher, and then it is called a "thoracic-fish;" or, lastly, the ventral-fins are placed nearer the tail than the pectoral-fins, as in the minnow, and then it is an "abdominal-fish."

Possessed of these distributions, the French naturalist mixes and unites them into two grand divisions. All the prickly-finned fish make one general division—all the soft-finned fish another. These first are distinguished from each other as being either "apodal," "jugular," "thoracic," or "abdominal." Thus there are prickly-finned apodal fishes; prickly-finned jugular fishes, prickly-finned thoracic fishes, and prickly-finned abdominal fishes. On the other hand, the soft-finned fishes fall under a similar distribution, and make the general division. Thus there are soft-finned apodal fishes, soft-finned jugular fishes, soft-finned thoracic fishes, and soft-finned abdominal fishes. These general characters are strongly marked and easily remembered. It only remains, therefore, to divide these into such tribes as are most strongly marked by Nature, and to give the distinct characters of each to form a complete system with greater simplicity. This Mr. Gouan has done; and the tribes into which he has distributed each of these divisions exactly amount to fifty. Thus the reader, who can contain in his memory the characteristic marks of fifty kinds, will have a tolerable idea of the form of every kind of spinous fish. I say, of the form; for as to the history and nature of the animal itself, that can only be obtained by experience and information.

SEC. I.—PRICKLY-FINNED FISHES.

PRICKLY-FINNED APODAL FISH.

The Trichurus.—The body of a sword form, the head oblong, the teeth sword-like, bearded near the points, the fore-teeth largest; the fin that covers the gills with seven spines, the tail ending in a point without fins; an inhabitant near the oriental and American shores; of a silvery white, frequently leaping into the fishermen's boats in China.

The Xiphias or Sword-fish.—The body round; the head long; the upper-jaw terminating by a long beak, in form of a sword; the fin that covers the gills with six spines; an inhabitant of Europe; an enemy to the whale.

The Ophidium or Gilt-head.—The body sword-like; the head blunt; the fin covering the gills with seven spines; the opening of the mouth side-ways; the fins of the back, the anus, and the tail all joining together; the most beautiful of all fishes, covered over with green, gold, and silver; it is by sailors called the dolphin, and gives chase to the flying-fish.

PRICKLY-FINNED JUGULAR FISH.

The Trachinotus or Weaver.—The body oblong; the head obtuse; the bones covering the gills jagged at the bottom; the fins covering the gills with six spines; the anus near the breast; buries itself in the sands, leaving only its nose out; and if trod upon, imme-

diately strikes with the spines that form its dorsal fins, which are venomous and dangerous.

The Uraoscopus.—The body wedge-like; the head almost round, and larger than the body; the mouth flat; the eyes on the top of the head; the fin covering the gills with five spines; the anus in the middle of the body; an inhabitant of the Mediterranean Sea.

The Callyonmus or Dragonet.—The body almost wedge-like; the head broad, and larger than the body; the mouth even with the body; the bony covering of the gills close shut; the opening to the gills behind the head, the fin covering the gills with six spines: an inhabitant of the Atlantic Ocean.

The Blennius or Blenny.—The body oblong; the head obtusely bevil; the teeth a single range; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the ventral fins have two small blunt bones in each; a species of this animal is viviparous.

PRICKLY-FINNED THORACIC FISHES.

The Gobius or Gudgeon.—The body round and oblong; the head with two little holes between the eyes, one before the other; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the ventral fins joined together.

The Cepola.—The body sword-like; the head blunt; the mouth flat; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the fins distinct; an inhabitant of the Mediterranean Sea.

The Coryphæna or Razor-fish.—The body wedge-like; the head very bevil; the fin covering the gills with five spines.

The Scomber or Mackerel.—The body oblong; the line running down the side zigzagged towards the tail; the head sharp and small; the fins covering the gills with six spines; several false fins towards the tail.

The Labrus or Wrasse.—The body oval; the head middling; the lips doubled inward; both cutting and grinding teeth; the covers of the gills scaly; the fin covering the gills with five spines; the pectoral fins pointed.

The Sparus or Sea-bream.—The body oblong; the head middling; the lips not inverted; the teeth cutting and grinding; the cover of the gills scaly; the fins covering the gills with five rays; the pectoral fins pointed.

The Chatodon or Oat-fish.—The body oblong; the head small; the teeth slender and bending; the fin covering the gills with five or six spines; the fins of the back and anus scaly.

The Sclæna.—The body nearly elliptical; the head bevil; the covers of the fins scaly; the fin covering the gills with six rays; the fins of the back jagged, and hidden in a furrow in the back.

The Perch.—The body oblong; the head bevil; the covers of the gills scaly and toothed; the fin covering the gills with seven spines; the fins in some jagged.

The Scorpena or Father-lasher.—The body oblong; the head large, with beards; the covers of the gills armed with prickles; the fin covering the gill with seven spines.

The Mullus or Surmulet.—The body slender; the head almost four-cornered; the fin covering the gills with three spines; some of these have beards; a fish highly prized by the Romans, and still considered as a very great delicacy.

The Trigla or Gurnard.—The body slender; the head nearly four-cornered, and covered with a bony coat; the fin covering the gills with seven spines; the pectoral and ventral fins strengthened with additional muscles and bones, and very large for the animal's size.

The Cetus or Bull-head.—The body wedge-like; the head flat and broader than the body; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the head furnished with prickles, knobs, and beards.

The Zeus or Doræ.—The body oblong; the head bevil; the fin covering the gills with seven rays; the fins jagged: the upper-jaw with a loose floating skin into the mouth.

The Thraichipterus or Sabre.—The body sword-like; the head bevil; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the lateral line straight; the scales in a single order; a loose skin in both the jaws.

The Gasterosteus or Stickleback.—The body broadest towards the tail; the head oblong; the fin covering the gills with three spines; prickles starting backward before the back fins of the anus.

PRICKLY-FINNED ABDOMINAL FISH.

The Silurus or Sheatfish.—The body oblong; the head large; the fin covering the gills from four to fourteen spines; the leading bones or spines in the back and pectoral fins toothed.

The Mugil or Mullet.—The body oblong; the head almost conical; the upper-jaw with a furrow, which receives the prominence of the under one; the fin covering the gills with seven rays.

The Polynemus.—The body oblong; the head with a beak; the fin covering the gills with from five to seven spines; the bones that move the pectoral fins not articulated to those fins.

The Theutus.—The body almost elliptical; the head abruptly shortened; the fin covering the gills with five rays; the teeth in a single row, close, strong, and even.

The Elops or Sea-Serpent.—The body slender; the head large; the fin covering the gills double with thirty spines, and armed externally with five bones resembling teeth.

SEC. II.—SOFT-FINNED FISHES.

SOFT-FINNED APODAL FISHES.

The Muræna or Eel.—The body round and slender; the head terminating in a beak; the fin covering the gills with ten rays; the opening to the gills pipe-fashion, placed near the pectoral fins; the fins of the back, the anus, and the tail united in one.

The Gymnotus or Carapo.—The body broadest on the back, like the blade of a knife; the head small; the fin covering the gills with five rays; the back without a fin; two beards or filaments from the upper lip; an inhabitant of Brazil.

The Anarchias or Wolf-fish.—The body roundish and slender; the head large and blunt; the fore-teeth above and below conical; the grinding-teeth and those in the palate round; the fin covering the gill has six rays.

The Stromateus.—The body oblong; the head small; the teeth moderately sharp; the fin covering the gills with five or six rays.

The Ammodytes or Lancee.—The body slender and roundish; the head terminated by a beak; the teeth of a hair-like fineness: the fin covering the gills with seven rays.

SOFT-FINNED JUGULAR FISHES.

The Lepodogaster.—The body wedge-like; the head oblong, forwarder than the body, flattish, the beak resembling that of a duck; the pectoral fins double, two on each side; the ventral fins joined together; a kind of bony breast-plate between the pectoral fins; the fin covering the gills with five rays; the opening to the gills pipe-fashion.

The Gadus or Cod-fish.—The body oblong; the head wedge-like; the fin covering the gills with seven rays; several back and anal fins.

SOFT-FINNED THORACIC FISHES.

The Plemonecles or Flumide.—The body elliptical; the head small; both eyes on one side of the head; the fin covering the gills with from four to seven rays.

The Echeneis or Sucking-fish.—The body almost wedge-like, moderately round; the head broader than the body; the fin covering the gill with ten rays; an oval breast-plate, streaked in form of a ladder, toothed.

The Lipidopus or Garter-fish.—The body sword-like; the head lengthened out; the fins covering the gills with seven rays; three scales only on the whole body—two in the place of the ventral fins, the third from that of the anus.

SOFT-FINNED ABDOMINAL FISH.

The Loricaria.—The body crusted over; the head broad with a beak; no teeth; the fin covering the gills with six rays.

The Atherina or Atherine.—The body oblong; the head of a middling size; the lips indented; the fin covering the gills with six rays; the line on the sides resembling a silver band.

The Salmo or Salmon.—The body oblong; the head a little sharp; the fin covering the gills from four to ten rays; the last fin on the back without its correspondent muscle; fat.

The Fistularia.—The body angular, in form of a spindle; the head pipe-fashion, with a beak; the fin covering the gills with seven rays: the under-jaw covering the upper one.

The Esox or Pike.—The body round; the head with a beak; the under-jaw pierced longitudinally with small holes; the fin covering the gills with from seven to twelve rays.

The Argentina or Argentine.—The body a little round and slender; the head with a beak, broader than the body: the fin covering the gills with eight rays; a spurious back-fin.

The Clupea or Herring.—The body a little oblong; the head with a small beak; the fin covering the gills with eight rays.

The Exocoetis or Flying-fish.—The body oblong; the head almost three-cornered; the fin covering the gills with ten rays; the pectoral fins placed high, and as long as the whole body; the back fin at the extremity of the back.

The Cyprinus or Carp.—The body elongated almost round; the head with a small beak; the hinder part of the bone covering the gills, marked with a crescent; the fin covering the gills with three rays.

The Cobitis or Loach.—The body oblong; almost equally broad throughout; the head small, a little elongated; the eyes in the hinder part of the head; the fin covering the gills from four to six rays; the covers of the gills closed below.

The Amia or Bonito.—The body round and slender; the head, forehead, and breast without skin; the fin covering the gills with twelve rays; two beards from the nose.

The Mormyrus.—The body oblong; the head elongated; the fin covering the gills with a single ray; the opening to the gills is linear, and has no bone covering them.

Such is the system of Mr. Gouan; by reducing to which any fish that offers we can know its rank, its affinities, and partly its anatomy, all which make a considerable part in its natural history. But to show the use of this system still more apparently, suppose I meet with a fish, the name to me unknown, of which I desire to know something more. The way is first to see whether it be a cartilaginous fish, which may be known by its wanting fins to open and shut the gills, which the cartilaginous kind are wholly without. If I find that

it has them, then it is a spinous fish; and in order to know its kind I examine its fins, whether they be prickly or soft: I find them soft; it is therefore to be ranked among the soft-finned fishes. I then examine its ventral or belly fins, and finding that the fish has them, I look for their situation, and find they lie nearer to the tail than the pectoral fins. By this I find the animal to be a soft-finned abdominal fish. Then to know which of the kinds of these fishes it is, I examine its figure and the shape of its head; I find the body rather oblong; the head with a small beak; the lower-jaw like a saw; the fin covering the gills with eight rays. This animal must therefore be the herring, or one of that family, such as the pilchard, the sprat, the shad, or the anchovy. To give another instance:—Upon examining the fins of a fish to me unknown, I find them prickly; I then look for the situation of the ventral fins, I find them entirely wanting; this then must be a prickly-finned apodal-fish. Of this kind there are but three, and by comparing the fish with the description, I find it either of the trichurus kind, the sword fish, or the gilt-head. Upon examining, also, its internal structure, I shall find a very great similitude between my fish and that placed at the head of the family.

CHAP. II.

OF SPINOUS FISHES IN GENERAL.

Having given a method by which spinous fishes may be distinguished from each other, the history of each in particular might naturally be expected to follow; but such a distinct account of each would be quite unnecessary, from the unavoidable uniformity of description. The history of any one of this class very much resembles that of all the rest: they breathe air and water through the gills—they live by rapine, each devouring such animals as its mouth is capable of admitting—and they propagate, not by bringing forth their young alive, as in the cetaceous tribes, nor by distinct eggs, as in the generality of the cartilaginous tribes, but by spawn, or peas as they are generally called, which they produce by hundreds of thousands. These are the leading marks which run through their whole history, and which have so much swelled books with tiresome repetition.

It will be sufficient, therefore, to draw this numerous class into one point of view; to mark how they differ from the former classes; and what they possess peculiarly striking so as to distinguish them from each other. The first object that presents itself, and that by which they differ from all others, are the bones. These, when examined but slightly, appear to be entirely solid; yet when viewed more closely, every bone would be found hollow, and filled with a substance less rancid and oily than marrow. These bones are very numerous, and pointed; and, as in quadrupeds, are props or stays to which the muscles are fixed which moves the different parts of the body.

The number of bones in all spinous fishes of the same kind is always the same. It is a vulgar way of speaking to say that fishes are at some seasons more bony than at others; but this scarce requires contradiction. It is true, indeed, that fish are at some seasons much fatter than at others; so that the quantity of the flesh being diminished, and that of the bones remaining the same, they appear to increase in number as they actually bear a greater proportion.

All fish of the same kind, as was said, have the same number of bones: the skeleton of a fish, however irregularly the bones may fall in our way at table, has its members very regularly disposed; and every bone has its fixed place, with as much precision as we find in the orders of a regular fabric. But then spinous fish differ

in the number of bones according to the species; for some have a greater number of fins by which they move in the water. The number of each is always in proportion to the number and size of these fins; for every fish has a regular apparatus of bones and muscles by which the fins are moved; and all those fish where they are numerous or large must of consequence be considerably bony. Indeed, in the larger fish the quantity of flesh is so much, and the bones themselves are so large, that they are easily seen and separated; but in the smaller kinds with many fins the bones are as numerous as in the great; yet being so very minute, they lurk almost in every part of the flesh, and are dangerous as well as troublesome to be eaten. In a word, those fish which are large, fat, and have few fins are found to be the least bony; those which are small, lean, and have many fins are the most bony of all others. Thus, for instance, a roach appears more bony than a carp, because it is leaner and smaller; and it is actually more bony than an eel, because it has a greater number of fins.

As the spinous fish partake less of the quadruped in their formation than any others, so they can bear to live out of their own element a shorter time. In general, when taken out of the water they testify their change by panting most violently and at closer intervals, the thin air not furnishing their gills the proper play; and in a few minutes they expire. Some, indeed, are more vivacious in air than others; the eel will live several hours out of water; and the carp has been known to be fattened in a damp cellar. The method is by placing it in a net well wrapped up in wet moss, the mouth only being out, and then being hung up in a vault. The fish is fed with white bread and milk, and the net now and then plunged into water. The animal thus managed has been known not only to live for a fortnight, but to grow exceedingly fat and of a superior flavour. From this it would seem that the want of moisture in the gills is the chief cause of the death of these animals; and could that be supplied, their lives might be prolonged in the air almost as well as in their own element.

Yet it is impossible to account for the different operations of the same element upon animals that, to appearance, have the same conformation. To some fishes bred in the sea fresh water is immediate destruction; on the other hand, some fishes that live in our lakes and ponds cannot bear the salt water. Whence this difference can arise is not easy to be accounted for. The saline quantity of the water cannot properly be given as the cause; since no fishes imbibe any of the sea's saltiness with their food, or in respiration. The flesh of all fishes is equally fresh, both in the river and in the saltiest depths of the ocean—the salt of the element in which they live no way mixing with their constitution. Whence, then, is it that animals will live only there, and will quickly expire when carried into fresh water? It may probably arise from the superior weight of the seawater; as from the great quantity of salt dissolved in its composition it is much heavier than fresh water, so it is probable it lies with greater force upon the organs of respiration, and gives them their proper and necessary play: on the other hand, those fish which are used only to fresh water cannot bear the weight of the saline fluid, and expire in a manner suffocated in the grossness of the strange element.

But though there are some tribes that live only in the sea and others in fresh water, yet there are some whose organs are equally adapted to either element, and that spend a part of their season in one and a part in the other. Thus the salmon, the shad, the smelt, and the flounder annually quit their native ocean, and come up our rivers to deposit their spawn. This seems the most important business of their lives; and there is no danger which they will not encounter, even to the surmounting precipices, to find a proper place for the deposition of their future offspring. The salmon upon these occasions

is seen to ascend rivers five hundred miles from the sea, and to brave not only the danger of various enemies, but also to spring up cataracts as high as a house. As soon as they come to the bottom of the torrent they seem disappointed to meet the obstruction, and swim some paces back; they then take a view of the danger that lies before them, survey it motionless for some minutes, advance, and again retreat; till at last, summoning up all their force, they take a leap from the bottom, their body straight, and strongly in motion; and thus most frequently clear every obstruction. It sometimes happens, however, that they want strength to make the leap: and then in our fisheries they are taken in their descent. But this is one of the smallest dangers that attend these adventuring animals in their progress; numberless are the methods of taking them, as well by the hook as by nets, baskets, and other inventions, which it is not our business here to describe. Their capture makes in several countries a great article of commerce; and being cured in different manners, either by salting, pickling, or drying, they are sent to the European markets.

As these mount up the rivers to deposit their spawn, others, particularly the eel, descend the fresh-water stream, as Redi assures us, to bring forth their young in the sea. About the month of August these animals annually take the opportunity of the most obscure nights, and, when the rivers are flooded by accidental rains, seek the ocean. When they have reached the sea and produced their young (for they are viviparous) they again ascend the stream at different times as opportunity offers, or as the season is favourable or tempestuous. Their passage begins usually about the end of January, and continues till about the end of May, when they are taken in the river Arno by millions, and so small that a thousand of them goes to a pound. There is nothing more certain than that they descend in our own rivers after floods in great abundance, and are thus caught in nets to very great advantage. They are possessed of a power of climbing over any obstacle; for, by applying their glutinous and flimsy bodies to the surface of the object they desire to surmount, they can thus creep up locks, weirs, and everything that would prevent their ascending the current of the stream.

But the length of the voyage performed by these fishes is sport, if compared to what is annually undertaken by some tribes that constantly reside in the ocean. These are known to take a course of three or four thousand miles in a season, serving for prey to whales, sharks, and the numerous flocks of water-fowl that regularly wait to intercept their progress. These may be called fish of passage, and bear a strong analogy to birds of passage, both from their social disposition and the immensity of their numbers. Of this kind are the cod, the haddock, the whiting, the mackerel, the tunny, the herring, and the pilchard. Other fish live in our vicinity and reside on our coasts all the year round, or keep in the depths of the ocean and are but seldom seen; but these at stated seasons visit their accustomed haunts with regular certainty, generally returning the same week in the succeeding year, and often the same day.

The stated returns and the regular progress of these fish of passage is one of the most extraordinary circumstances in the History of Nature. What it is that impels them to such distant voyages—what directs their passage—what supports them by the way—and what sometimes prompts them to quit for several seasons one shore for another, and then return to their accustomed harbour, are questions that Curiosity may ask, and Philosophy can hardly resolve. We must dismiss inquiry, satisfied with the certainty of the facts.

The cod seems to be the foremost of this wandering tribe, and is only found in our northern part of the world. This animal's chief place of resort is on the banks of Newfoundland, and the other sand-banks that lie off Cape Breton. That extensive flat seems to be no

other than the broad top of a sea-mountain, extending for above five hundred miles long, and surrounded with a deep sea. Hither the cod annually repair in numbers beyond the power of calculation, to feed on the quantity of worms that are to be found there in the sandy bottom. Here they are taken in such quantities that they supply all Europe with a considerable share of provision. The English have stages erected all along the shore for salting and drying them; and the fishermen, who take them with the hook and line, draw them in as fast as they can throw out. This immense capture, however, makes but a very small diminution when compared to their numbers; and when their provision there is exhausted, or the season for propagation returns, they go off to the polar seas, where they deposit their roes in full security. From thence want of food forces them, as soon as the first more southern seas are open, to repair southward for subsistence. Nor is this fish an unfrequent visitant upon our own shores: but the returns are not so regular, nor does the capture bear any proportion to that at Newfoundland.

The haddock, the whiting, and the mackerel are thought by some to be driven upon our coast rather by their fears than their appetites; and it is to the pursuit of the larger fishes we owe their welcome visits. It is much more probable that they come for that food which is found in more plenty near the shore than farther out at sea. One thing is remarkable, that their migrations seem to be regularly conducted. The grand shoal of haddocks that comes periodically on the Yorkshire coasts appeared there in a body on the tenth of December, 1776, and exactly on the same day the following year. This shoal extended from the shore near three miles in breadth, and in length for more than forty. The limits of a shoal are precisely known; for if the fishermen put down their lines at the distance of more than three miles from shore, they catch nothing but dog-fish—a proof that the haddock is not there.

But of all migrating fish the herring and the pilchard take the most adventurous voyages. Herrings are found in the greatest abundance in the highest northern latitudes. In those inaccessible seas, which are covered with ice for a great part of the year, the herring and pilchard find a quiet and sure retreat from all their numerous enemies: thither neither man, nor their still more destructive enemy the fin-fish or the cachalot dares to pursue them. The quantity of insect-food which those seas supply is very great; whence, in that remote situation, defended by the icy rigour of the climate, they live at ease, and multiply beyond expression. From this most desirable retreat Anderson supposes they would never depart, but that their numbers render it necessary for them to migrate; and, as with bees from a hive, they are compelled to seek for other retreats.

For this reason the great colony is seen to set out from the icy sea about the middle of winter, composed of such numbers, that if all the men in the world were to be loaded with herrings they would not carry the thousandth part away. But they no sooner leave their retreats but millions of enemies appear to thin their squadrons. The fin-fish and cachalot swallow barrels at a yawn; the porpoise, the grampus, the shark, and the whole numerous tribe of dog-fish find them an easy prey, and desist from making war upon each other; but, still more, the unnumbered flocks of sea-fowl that chiefly inhabit near the pole watch the outset of their dangerous migration, and spread extensive ruin.

In this exigence the defenceless emigrants find no other safety but by crowding closer together, and leaving to the outmost bands the danger of being the first devoured; thus, like sheep when frightened—who always run together in a body, and, each finding some protection in being but one of many that are equally liable to invasion—they are seen to separate into shoals, one body of which moves to the west, and pours down along

the coasts of America as far south as Carolina, and but seldom farther. In Chesapeake Bay, the annual inundation of these fish is so great that they cover the shores in such quantities as to become a nuisance. Those that hold more to the east, and come down towards Europe, endeavour to save themselves from their merciless pursuers by approaching the first shore they can find; and that which first offers in their descent is the coast of Iceland in the beginning of March. Upon their arrival on that coast their phalanx, which has already suffered considerable diminution, is, nevertheless, of amazing extent, depth, and closeness, covering an extent of shore as large as the island itself. The whole water seems alive, and is so black with them to a great distance that the number seems inexhaustible. There the porpoise and the shark continue their depredations; and the birds devour what quantities they please. By these enemies the herrings are cooped up into so close a body, that a shovel or any hollow vessel put into the water takes them up without farther trouble.

The body which comes upon our coasts begins to appear off the Shetland Isles in April. These are the forerunners of the grand shoal which descends in June; while its arrival is easily announced by the numbers of its greedy attendants, the gannet, the gull, the shark, and the porpoise. When the main body is arrived, its breadth and depth is such as to alter the very appearance of the ocean. It is divided into distinct columns of five or six miles in length and three or four broad, while the water before them curls up as if forced out of its bed. Sometimes they sink for the space of ten or fifteen minutes, then rise again to the surface and, in bright weather, reflect a variety of splendid colours, like a field bespangled with purple, gold, and azure. The fishermen are ready prepared to give them a proper reception; and, by nets made for the occasion, they take sometimes above two thousand barrels at a single draught.

From the Shetland Isles another body of this great army, where it divides, goes off to the western coasts of Ireland, where they meet with a second necessity of dividing. The one takes to the Atlantic, where it is soon lost in that extensive ocean; the other passes into the Irish Sea, and furnishes a very considerable capture to the natives.

In this manner, the herrings expelled from their native seas seek those bays and shores where they can find food, and the best defence against their unmerciful pursuers of the deep. In general, the most inhabited shores are the places where the larger animals of the deep are the least fond of pursuing; and these are chosen by the herring as an asylum from great dangers. Thus, along the coasts of Norway, the German shores, and the northern shores of France, these animals are found punctual in their visitations. In these different places they produce their young; which, when come to some degree of maturity, attend the general motions. After the destruction of such numbers the quantity that attempts to return is but small; Anderson doubts whether they ever return.

Such is the account given of the migration of these fishes, by one who of all others was best acquainted with their history; and yet many doubts arise in every part of the migration. The most obvious which has been made is, that though such numbers perish in their descent from the north, yet in comparison to those that survive the account is trifling; and it is supposed that of those taken by man the proportion is not one to a million. Their regularly leaving the shore, also, at a stated time would imply that they are not in their visits under the impulse of necessity. In fact, there seems one circumstance that shows these animals are governed by a choice with respect to the shores they pitch upon, and are not blindly driven from one shore to another. What I mean is, their fixing upon some shores for several seasons, or indeed for several ages, together; and, after

having regularly visited them every year, then capriciously forsaking them never more to return. The first great bank for herrings was along the shores of Norway. Before the year 1584, the number of ships from all parts of Europe that resorted to that shore amounted to some thousands. The quantity of herrings that were then assembled there was such, that a man who should put a spear in the water, as Olaus Magnus asserts, would see it stand on end, being prevented from falling. But soon after that period these animals were seen to desert the Norway shores, and took up along the German coast, where the Hanse-towns drove a very great trade by their capture and sale; but for above a century the herrings have in a great measure forsaken them, and their greatest colonies are seen in the British Channel and upon the Irish shores. It is not easy to assign a cause for this seemingly capricious desertion: whether the number of their finny enemies increasing along the northern coasts may have terrified the herring tribe from their former place of resort, or whether the quantity of food being greater in the British Channel, may not allure them thither is not easy to determine.

The pilchard, which is a fish differing little from the herring, makes the coast of Cornwall its place of principal resort. Their arrival on that coast is soon proclaimed by their attendants, the birds and larger fishes; and the whole country prepares to take the advantage of this treasure providentially thrown before them. The natives sometimes enclose a bay of several miles extent with their nets, called *saines*. To direct them in their operations, there were some years ago (but I believe they are discontinued) several men placed on eminences near the shore, called "huers," who, with brooms in their hands, gave signals where the nets were to be extended and where the shoal of fishes lay: this they perceived by the colour of the water, which assumed a tincture from the shoals beneath. By these means they sometimes take twelve or fifteen hundred barrels of pilchards at a draught, and place them in heaps on the shore. It often happens that the quantity caught exceeds the salt or the utensils for curing them; and then they are carried off to serve for the purposes of manure. This fishery employs not only great numbers of men at sea, training them to naval affairs, but also numbers of women and children on land in salting and curing the fish—in making boats, nets, ropes, and casks, for the purposes of taking or fitting them for sale. The poor are fed with the superfluity of the capture—the land is manured with the offals; the merchant finds the gain of commission and honest commerce—the fisherman a comfortable subsistence from his toil. "Ships," says Dr. Borlase, "are often freighted here with salt, and into foreign countries with the fish, carrying off at the same time a part of our tin. The usual produce of the number of hogsheds exported amounts to near thirty thousand a year; every hogshed has amounted upon an average to the price of one pound thirteen shillings and threepence. Thus the money paid for pilchards exported has annually amounted to near fifty thousand pounds."

Whence these infinite numbers are derived still remains obscure; but it will increase our wonder to be told that so small a fish as the stickleback, which is seldom above two inches long, and that one would think could easily find support in any water, is yet obliged to colonize, and leave its native fens in search of new habitations. Once every seventh or eighth year amazing shoals of these appear in the river Welland, near Spalding, and come up the stream, forming one great column. There are supposed to be multitudes collected in some of the fens, till, overcharged with numbers, they are periodically obliged to migrate. An idea may be had of their numbers, when we are informed that a man, employed by a farmer to take them for the purpose of manuring his grounds, has got for a

considerable time four shillings a day by selling them at a halfpenny a bushel!

Thus we see the amazing propagation of fishes along our own coasts and rivers; but their numbers bear no proportion to the vast quantities found among the islands of the Indian Ocean. The inhabitants of these countries are not under the necessity even of providing instruments for fishing; it is but going down to the shore, and there the fish are found in great numbers in the places that still continue to have water in them. In some of these places the quantity is so great, that they are left in shoals on the swamps, dried up by the sun, and their putrefaction contributes to render the country unhealthy.

This power of increasing in these animals exceeds our idea, as it would in a very short time outstrip all calculation. A single herring, if suffered to multiply unmolested and undiminished for twenty years, would show a progeny greater in bulk than ten such globes as that we live upon. But happily the balance of Nature is exactly preserved, and their consumption is equal to their fecundity. For this reason we are to consider the porpoise, the shark, or the cod-fish not in the light of plunderers and rivals, but of benefactors to mankind. Without their assistance the sea would soon become overcharged with the burthen of its own productions; and that element, which at present distributes health and plenty to the shore, would but load it with putrefaction.

In the propagation of all fish some degree of warmth seems absolutely necessary, not only to their preservation, but to the advancement of their posterity. Their spawn is always deposited in those places where the sun-beams may reach them, either at the bottom of shallow shores or floating on the surface in deeper waters. A small degree of heat answers all the purposes of incubation, and the animal issues from the egg in its state of perfect formation, never to undergo any succeeding change.

But still I have some strong doubts whether most fish come from the egg completely formed. We know that in all the frog tribe, and many of the lizard kind, they are produced from the egg in an imperfect form. The tadpole, or young frog, with its enormous head and slender tail, are well known; a species of the lizard, also, which is excluded from the shell without legs, only acquires them by degrees, and not till after some time does it put off its serpent form. It is probable that some kinds of fish in like manner suffer a change; and though it be too inconsiderable to strike the fisherman or the inattentive spectator, yet it makes a very material difference to the naturalist, and would perhaps disarrange his most favourite systems. A slight alteration in the fins or bones that cover the gills would overturn the whole fabric of the most applauded ichthyologist; and yet, as I observed, it is most probable that these minute alterations often take place.

As a proof of this, during the months of July there appear near Greenwich innumerable shoals of small fishes, which are known to the Londoners by the name of "white bait." It is universally agreed that they are the young of some fish; they are never seen but at this time of the year, and never found to have any roe—a circumstance that proves their not being come to maturity. The quantity is amazing; and the fish that produces them in such numbers must be in plenty, though it is not yet known what that fish is, as they correspond with no other species whatever. They most resemble the smelt in form; and yet they want a fin, which that animal is never without. They cannot be the bleak, as they are never found in other rivers where the bleak breeds in great abundance. It is most probable, therefore, that they are the young of some animal not yet come to their perfect form, and therefore reducible to no present system.

The time that spinous fishes continue in the pea is in proportion to the size of the kind. It is a rule that chiefly holds through all Nature, that the larger the animals are the longer they continue before exclusion. This I say holds generally through all Nature; though it is not easy to assign a cause for such a well-known truth. It may probably be, that as all large bodies take a longer time to grow hot than small ones, so the larger the egg the longer influence of vital warmth it requires to roach through all its recesses, and to unfold the dormant springs that wait to be put in motion.

The manner in which the eggs of fish are impregnated is wholly unknown. All that obviously offers is, that in ponds the sexes are often together among the long grass at the edge of the water; that there they seem to struggle; and that during this time they are in a state of suffering; they grow thin; they lose their appetite, and their flesh becomes flabby; the scales of some grow rough, and they lose their lustre. On the contrary, when the time of coupling is over their appetite returns; they re-assume their natural agility, and their scales become brilliant and beautiful.

Although the usual way with spinous fishes is to produce by spawn, yet there are some, such as the eel and the blenny, that are known to bring forth their young alive. Bowker, who has written a treatise upon fishing, seems to determine the question relative to the viviparous production of eels, upon the authority of one or two credible witnesses. An eel, opened in the presence of several persons of credit, was found to have an infinite number of little creatures, closely wrapped up together in a lump about the size of a nutmeg, which, being put into a basin of water, soon separated and swam about; yet still, whether these may not have been worms generated in the animal's body remains a doubt; for there are scarce any fishes that are infested with worms in that manner.

With respect to the growth of fishes, it is observed that among carps, particularly the first year, they grow to about the size of the leaf of a willow-tree; at two years they are about four inches long. They grow but one inch more the third season, which is five inches. Those of four years old are about six inches, and seven after the fifth. From that to eight years old they are found to be large in proportion to the goodness of the pond—from eight to twelve inches. With regard to sea-fish, the fishermen assure us that a fish must be six years old before it is fit to be served up to table. They instance it in the growth of a mackerel. They assure us that those a year old are as large as one's finger; that those of two years are about twice that length; at three and four years they are that small kind of mackerel that have neither melts nor roes; and between five and six they are those full-grown fish that are served up to our tables. In the same manner, with regard to flat fishes, they tell us that the turbot and barble at one year are about the size of a crown-piece; the second year as large as the palm of one's hand; and at the fifth and sixth year they are large enough to be served up to table. Thus it appears that fish are a considerable time in coming to their full growth, and that they are a long time destroyed before it comes to their turn to be destroyers.

All fish live upon each other in some state of their existence. Those with the largest mouths attack and devour the larger kinds; those whose mouths are less lie in wait for the smaller fry—and even these chiefly subsist upon spawn. Of those which live in the ocean of the spinous kinds the dorado is the most voracious. This is chiefly found in the tropical climates, and is at once the most active and the most beautiful of the finny region. It is about six feet long; the back all over enamelled with spots of a blueish green and silver; the tail and fins of a gold colour; and all have a brilliancy

of tint that nothing but Nature's pencil can attain to: the eyes are placed on each side of the head, large and beautiful, surrounded with circles of shining gold. In the seas where they are found these fish are always in motion, and play round ships in full sail with ease and security; for ever either pursuing or pursued, they are seen continually in a state of warfare—either defending themselves against the shark or darting after the smaller fishes. Of all others the flying-fish most abounds in these seas; and as it is a small animal, seldom growing above the size of a herring, it is chiefly sought by the dorado. Nature has furnished each respectively with the powers of pursuit and evasion. The dorado being above six feet long, yet not thicker than a salmon, and furnished with a full complement of fins, cuts its way through the water with amazing rapidity; on the other hand, the flying-fish is furnished with two pair of fins longer than the body, and these also moved by a stronger set of muscles than any other. This equality of power seems to furnish one of the most entertaining spectacles those seas can exhibit. The efforts to seize on the one side, and the arts of escaping on the other, are perfectly amusing. The dorado is seen upon this occasion darting after its prey, which will not leave the water, while it has the advantage of swimming in the beginning of the chase. But, like a hunted hare, being tired at last, it then has recourse to another expedient for safety by flight. The long fins, which began to grow useless in the water, are now exerted in a different manner and different direction to that in which they were employed in swimming: by this means the timid little animal rises from the water, and flutters over its surface for two or three hundred yards, till the muscles employed in moving the wings are enfeebled by that particular manner of exertion. By this time, however, they have acquired a fresh power of renewing their efforts in the water, and the animal is capable of proceeding with some velocity by swimming; still, however, the active enemy keeps it in view, and drives it again from the deep; till at length the poor little creature is seen to dart to shorter distances, to flutter with greater effort, and to drop down at last into the mouth of its fierce pursuer. But not the dorado alone—all Animated Nature seems combined against this little fish, which seems possessed of double powers only to be subject to greater dangers. For though it should escape from its enemies of the deep, yet the tropic bird and the albatross are for ever upon the wing to seize it. Thus pursued in either element, it sometimes seeks refuge from a new enemy; and it is not unfrequent for whole shoals of them to fall on shipboard, where they furnish man with an object of useless curiosity.

The warfare in fresh water is not carried on with such destructive activity, nor are the inhabitants of that element so numerous. It would seem that there is something more favourable to the fecundity of fishes in the ocean than in an element less impregnated with salt. It has been the opinion of some philosophers that all fish are natives of that great reservoir; and that only colonies have been sent up rivers, either through accident or the necessity of procuring subsistence. They have been led to this opinion by the superior fecundity of sea-fish, which breed twenty to one; as well as by their superiority in strength and size over those of the same kind found in lakes and rivers. This is a matter too remotely speculative to be worth pursuing; but certain it is that in fresh water fishes seem to abate much of their courage and rapacity, pursue each other with less violence, and seem to be less powerfully actuated by all their appetites. The greediness with which sea-fish devour the bait is prodigious, if compared with the manner they take it in fresh water. The lines of such fishermen as go off to sea are coarse, thick, and clumsy, compared to what are used by those who fish near shore. Their baits are seldom more than a piece

of a fish or the flesh of some quadruped, stuck on the hook in a bungling manner; and scarce any art is employed to conceal the deception. But it is otherwise in fresh water; the lines must often be drawn to a hair-like fineness; they must be tintured of the peculiar colour of the stream; the bait must be formed with the nicest art, and even, if possible, to exceed the perfection of Nature: yet still the fishes approach it with diffidence, and often swim round it with disdain. The cod on the banks of Newfoundland, the instant the hook, (which is only baited with the guts of the animal last taken), is dropped into the water, darts to it at once, and the fishermen have but to pull up as fast as they throw down. But it is otherwise with those who fish in fresh water; they must wait whole hours in fruitless expectation; and the "patience of a fisherman" is proverbial among us.

This comparative neglect of food, which is found in all the tribes of fresh-water fishes, renders them less turbulent and less destructive among each other. Of all these the pike is the most active and voracious; and our poets, whose business it is to observe the surface of Nature, have called it the tyrant of the watery plain. In fact, in proportion to its strength and celerity, the pike does some mischief; but what are its efforts compared to those of the cachalot or the shark! they resemble the petty depredations of a robber put in competition with the ravages of a conqueror! However, the pike will attack every fish less than itself; and it is sometimes seen choked by attempting to swallow such as are too large a morsel. It is immaterial of what species the animal it pursues appears to be, whether of another or its own, all are indiscriminately devoured; so that every fish owes its safety to its minuteness, its celerity, or its courage: nor does the pike confine itself to feed on fish and frogs; it will draw down the water-rat and the young ducks as they are swimming about. Gesner tells us of a mule that stooped to drink in the water, when a famished pike that was near seized it by the nose, nor was it disengaged till the beast flung it on shore. So great is their rapacity that they will contend with the otter for its prey, and even endeavour to force it from him. For this reason it is dreaded by all other fish; and the small ones show the same uneasiness and detestation at the presence of their tyrant as the little birds do at the sight of a hawk or an owl. When the pike lies asleep near the surface, as is frequently the case, the lesser fish are observed to swim around it in vast numbers, with a mixture of caution and terror.

The other tribes of fresh-water fish are much inferior to this animal in courage and rapacity; they chiefly subsist upon worms and insects, pursuing them at the bottom, or jumping after them to the surface of the water. In winter, also, their appetite seems entirely to forsake them—at least they continue in so torpid a state that few baits will tempt them to their destruction. At that season they forsake the shallow water, and seek those deep holes to be found in every river, where they continue for days together without appearing to move. The cold seems to affect them; for at that time they lie close to the bottom, where the water is warm, and seldom venture out except the day be peculiarly fine, and the shallows at the edges of the stream become tepid by the powerful rays of the sun. Indeed, I have been assured that some fishes may be rendered so torpid by the cold in the northern rivers as to be frozen up in great masses of ice, in which they continue for several months together, seemingly without life or sensation, the prisoners of congelation, and waiting the approach of a warmer sun to restore them at once to life and liberty. Thus that cheerful luminary not only distributes health and vegetation to the productions of the earth, but is ardently sought even by the gelid inhabitants of the water.

As fish are enemies one to another, so each species is

infested with worms of different kinds peculiar to itself. The great fish abound with them; and the little ones are not entirely free. These troublesome vermin lodge themselves either in the jaws and the intestines internally, or near the fins without. When fish are healthy and fat they are not annoyed by them; but in winter, when they are lean or sickly, they then suffer very much.

Nor does the reputed longevity of this class secure them from their peculiar disorders. They are not only affected by too much cold, but there are frequently certain dispositions of the element in which they reside unfavourable to their health and propagation. Some ponds they will not breed in, however artfully disposed for supplying them with fresh recruits of water as well as provision. In some seasons they are found to feel epidemic disorders, and are seen dead by the water side without any apparent cause: yet still they are animals of all others the most vivacious, and they often live and subsist upon such substances as are poisonous to the more perfect classes of Animated Nature.

It is not easy to determine whether the poisonous qualities which many of them are found to possess, either when they wound our bodies externally with their spines or when they are unwarily eaten at our tables, arises from this cause. That numbers of fishes inflict poisonous wounds, in the opinion of many cannot be doubted: the concurrent testimony of mankind, they think sufficient to contradict any reasonings upon this head, taken from anatomical inspection. The great pain that is felt from the sting given by the back fin of the weaver bears no proportion to the smallness of the instruments that inflict the wound. How the poison is preserved, or how it is conveyed by the animal, it is not in our power to perceive; but its actual existence has been often attested by painful experience. In this instance we must decline conjecture, satisfied with history.

The fact of their being poisonous when eaten is equally notorious, and the cause equally inscrutable. My poor worthy friend, Dr. Grainger, who resided for many years at St. Christopher's, assured me that of the fish caught of the same kind at one end of the island, some were the best and most wholesome in the world; while others taken at a different end were always dangerous, and most commonly fatal. We have a paper in the Philosophical Transactions giving an account of the poisonous qualities of those found at New Providence, one of the Bahama islands. The author assures us that the greatest part of the fish of that dreary coast are all of a deadly nature—their smallest effects being to bring on a terrible pain in the joints, which, if terminating favourably, leaves the patient without any appetite for several days after. It is not those of the most deformed figure or the most frightful to look at that are alone to be dreaded; all kinds at different times are alike dangerous; and the same species which has this day served for nourishment is the next, if tried, found to be fatal!

This noxious quality has given rise to much speculation and many conjectures. Some have supposed it to arise from the fishes on these shores eating of the machinel apple—a deadly vegetable poison that sometimes grows pendant over the sea; but the quantity of those trees growing in this manner bears no proportion to the extensive infection of the fish. Labat has ascribed it to their eating the gally-fish, which is itself most potently poisonous; but this only removes our wonder a little farther back; for it may be asked, with as just a cause for curiosity, how comes the gally-fish itself to procure its noxious qualities? Others have ascribed the poison of these fishes to their feeding upon copperas beds; but I do not know of any copperas mines found in America. In short, as we cannot describe the alembic by which the rattlesnake distils its malignity, nor the process by which the scorpion, that lives among roses, converts their

sweets to venom, so we cannot discover the manner by which fishes become thus dangerous; and it is well for us of Europe that we can thus wonder in security. It is certain that with us, if fishes, such as carp or tench, acquire any disagreeable flavour from the lakes in which they have been bred, this can be removed by their being kept some time in finer and better water; there they soon clear away all those disagreeable qualities their flesh had contracted, and become as delicate as if they had been always fed in the most cleanly manner. But this expedient is with us rather the precaution of luxury than the effect of fear; we have nothing to dread from the noxious qualities of our fish, for all the animals our waters furnish are wholesome.

Happy England! where the sea furnishes an abundant and luxurious repast, and the fresh waters an innocent and harmless pastime; where the angler, in cheerful solitude, strolls by the edge of the stream, and fears neither the coiled snake nor the lurking crocodile; where he can retire at night with his few trouts, to borrow the pretty description of old Walton, to some friendly cottage, where the landlady is good and the daughter innocent and beautiful: where the room is cleanly, with lavender in the sheets, and twenty ballads stuck about the wall! There he can enjoy the company of a talkative brother sportsman, have his trouts dressed for supper, tell tales, sing old tunes, or make one in a catch! There he can talk of the wonders of Nature with learned admiration, or find some harmless sport to content him, and pass away a little time without offence to God or injury to man!

BOOK IV.—CHAP. I.

THE DIVISION OF SHELL FISH.

In describing the inhabitants of the water, a class of animals occur that mankind, from the place of their residence, have been content to call fish; but that naturalists, from their formation, have justly agreed to be unworthy of the name. Indeed, the affinity many of this kind bear to the insect tribe may very well plead for the historian who ranks them rather as insects. However, the common language of a country must not be slightly invaded; the names of things may remain, if the philosopher be careful to give precision to our ideas of them.

There are two classes of animals, therefore, inhabiting the water, which commonly receive the name of fishes, entirely different from those we have been describing, and also very distinct from each other. These are divided by naturalists into "crustaceous" and "testaceous" animals: both, totally unlike fishes to appearance, seem to invert the order of Nature; and as those have their bones on the inside, and their muscles hung upon them for the purpose of life and motion, these, on the contrary, have all their bony parts on the outside and all their muscles within. Not to talk mysteriously—all who have seen a lobster or an oyster perceive that the shell in these bears a strong analogy to the bones of other animals, and that by these shells the animal is sustained and defended.

Crustaceous fish, such as the crab and the lobster, have a shell not quite of a stony hardness, but rather resembling a firm crust, and in some measure capable of yielding. Testaceous fish, such as the oyster or cockle, are furnished with a shell of stony hardness—very brittle, and incapable of yielding. Of the crustaceous kinds are the lobster, the crab, and the tortoise; of the testaceous, that numerous tribe of oysters, mussels, cockles, and sea-snails, which offer with infinite variety.

The crustaceous tribe seems to hold the middle rank

between fishes, properly so called, and those snail-like animals that receive the name of testaceous fishes. Their muscles are strong and firm, as in the former; their shell is self-produced, as among the latter. They have motion, and hunt for food with great avidity, like the former. They are incapable of swimming, but creep along the bottom, like the latter: in short, they form the link that unites these two classes, that seem so very opposite in their natures.

Of the testaceous fishes we will speak hereafter. As to animals of the crustaceous kind, they are very numerous; their figure offers a hundred varieties; but as to their nature, they are obviously divided into two very distinct kinds, differing in their habits and their conformation. The chief of one kind is the lobster; the chief of the other the tortoise. Under the lobster we rank the prawn, the craw-fish, the shrimp, the sea-crab, the land-crab, and all their varieties. Under the sea-tortoise, the turtle, the hawkbill-turtle, the land-tortoise, and their numerous varieties.

CHAP. II.

CRUSTACEOUS ANIMALS OF THE LOBSTER KIND.

However different in figure the lobster and crab may seem, their manners and conformation are nearly the same. With all the voracious appetites of fishes, they are condemned to lead an insect life at the bottom of the water; and, though pressed by continual hunger, they are often obliged to wait till accident brings them their prey. Though without any warmth in their bodies, or even without red blood circulating through their veins, they are animals wonderfully voracious. Whatever they seize upon that has life is sure to perish, though never so well defended; they even devour each other; and, to increase our surprise still more, they may in some measure be said to eat themselves—as they change their shell and their stomach every year, and their old stomach is generally the first morsel that serves to glut the new.

The lobster is an animal of so extraordinary a form, that those who first see it are apt to mistake the head for the tail; but it is soon discovered that the animal moves with its claws foremost, and that the part which plays within itself by joints, like a coat of armour, is the tail. The two great claws are the lobster's instruments of provision and defence; these, by opening like a pair of nippers, have great strength, and take a firm hold; they are usually notched like a saw, which still more increases their tenacity. Beside these powerful instruments, which may be considered as arms, the lobster has eight legs, four on each side, and these, with the tail, serve to give the animal its progressive and sideling motion. Between the two claws is the animal's head, very small, and furnished with eyes that seem like two black horny specks on each side; and these it has a power of advancing out of the socket and drawing in at pleasure. The mouth, like that of insects, opens the long way of the body, not crossways, as with man and the higher race of animals. It is furnished with two teeth for the comminution of its food; but as these are not sufficient, it has three more in the stomach—one on each side and the other below. Between the two teeth there is a fleshy substance in the shape of a tongue. The intestines consist of one long bowel, which reaches from the mouth to the vent; but what this animal differs in from all others is, that the spinal-marrow is in the breast-bone. It is furnished with two long feelers or horns, that issue on each side of the head, and seem to correct the dimness of its sight, and apprise the animal of its danger or of its prey. The tail, or that jointed instrument at the other end, is the grand instrument of motion; and with this it can raise

itself in the water. Under this we usually see lodged the spawn in great abundance—every pea adhering to the next by a very fine filament, which is scarcely perceptible. Every lobster is a hermaphrodite, and is supposed to be self-impregnated! The ovary, or place where the spawn is first produced, is backwards towards the tail, where a red substance is always found, and which is nothing but a cluster of peas that are yet too small for exclusion. From this receptacle there go two canals, that open on each side at the jointures of the shell, at the belly; and through these passages the peas descend to be excluded, and placed under the tail, where the animal preserves them from danger for some time, until they come to maturity; when, being furnished with limbs and motion, they drop off into the water.

When the young lobsters leave the parent they immediately seek for refuge in the smallest clefts of rocks, and in such like crevices at the bottom of the sea where the entrance is but small, and the opening can be easily defended. There, without seeming to take any food, they grow larger in a few weeks' time, from the mere accidental substances which the water washes to their retreats. By this time, also, they acquire a hard, firm shell, which furnishes them with both offensive and defensive armour. They then begin to issue from their fortresses, and boldly creep along the bottom, in hopes of meeting with more diminutive plunder. The spawn of fish, the smaller animals of their own kind, but chiefly the worms that keep at the bottom of the sea, supply them with plenty. They keep in this manner close among the rocks, busily employed in scratching up the sand with their claws for worms, or surprising such heedless animals as fall within their grasp; thus they leave little to apprehend except from each other; for in them, as among fishes, the large are the most formidable of all other enemies of the small.

But this life of abundance and security is soon to have a most dangerous interruption; for the body of the lobster still continues to increase, whilst its shell remains unalterably the same; the animal becomes too large for its habitation, and, imprisoned within the crust that has naturally gathered round it, there comes on a necessity of getting free. The young of this kind, therefore, which grow faster, as I am assured by the fishermen, change their shell oftener than the old, who come to their full growth, and who remain in the same shell often for two years together. In general, however, all these animals change their shell once a-year; and this is not only a most painful operation, but also subjects them to every danger. Their molting season is generally about the beginning of summer, at which time their food is in plenty, and their strength and vigour in the highest perfection. But soon all their activity ceases; they are seen forsaking the open parts of the deep and seeking some retired situation among the rocks, or some outlet where they may remain in safety from the attacks of their various enemies. For some days before they change, the animal discontinues its usual voraciousness; it is no longer seen laboriously harrowing up the sand at the bottom, or fighting with others of its kind, or hunting its prey; it lies torpid and motionless, as if in anxious expectation of the approaching change. Just before casting its shell it throws itself upon its back, strikes its claws against each other, and every limb seems to tremble; its feelers are agitated, and the whole body is in violent motion; it then swells itself in an unusual manner, and at last the shell is seen beginning to divide at its junctures; particularly, it opens at the junctures of the belly, where, like a pair of jumps, it was before but seemingly united. It also seems turned inside out, and its stomach comes away with its shell. After this, by the same operation, it disengages itself of the claws, which burst at the joints—the animal, with a tremulous motion, casting them off as a man would a miss-fitting boot.

Thus, in a short time this wonderful creature finds itself at liberty; but in so weak and enfeebled a state, that it continues for several hours motionless. In deed, so violent and painful is the operation that many of them die under it; and those who survive are in such a weakly state for some time, that they neither take food nor venture from their retreats. Immediately after this change they have not only the softness but the timidity of a worm. Every animal of the deep is then a powerful enemy, which they can neither escape nor oppose; and this, in fact, is the time when the dog-fish, the cod, and the ray devour them by hundreds. But this state of defenceless imbecility continues for a very short time: the animal, in less than two days, is seen to have the skin that covered its body grown almost as hard as before; its appetite is seen to increase; and, strange to behold! the first object that tempts its gluttony is its own stomach, which it so lately was disengaged from. This it devours with great eagerness; and some time after eats even its former shell. In about forty-eight hours, in proportion to the animal's health and strength, the new shell is perfectly formed, and as hard as that which was but just thrown away.

To contribute to the speedy growth of the shell, it is supposed by some that the lobster is supplied with a very extraordinary concretion within its body, that is converted into the shelly substance. It is a chalky substance, found in the lower part of the stomach of all lobsters, improperly called crabs'-eyes, and sold under that title in the shops. About the time the lobster quits its shell the teeth in the stomach break these stones to pieces, and the fluids contained therein dissolve them. This fluid, which still remains in the new stomach, is thought to be replete with a petrifying quality, proper for forming a new shell: however, the concreting power that first formed these shows a sufficient power in the animal to produce also the shell; and it is going but a short way into the causes of things when we attempt to explain one wonder by another.

When the lobster is completely equipped in its new shell, it then appears how much it has grown in the space of a very few days: the dimensions of the old shell being compared with those of the new, it will be found that the creature is increased above a third in its size; and, like a boy that has outgrown his clothes, it seems wonderful how the deserted shell was able to contain so great an animal as entirely fills up the new.

The creature thus furnished, not only with a complete covering, but also with a greater share of strength and courage, ventures more boldly among the animals at the bottom; and not a week passes that in its combats it does not suffer some mutilation. A joint, or even a whole claw is sometimes snapped off in these encounters. At certain seasons of the year these animals never meet each other without an engagement. In these, to come off with the loss of a leg, or even a claw, is considered as no great calamity; the victor carries off the spoil to feast upon at leisure, while the other retires from the defeat to wait for a thorough repair. This repair it is not long in procuring. From the place where the joint of the claw was cut away is seen in a most surprising manner to bulge out the beginning of a new claw. This, if observed at first, is small and tender, but grows in the space of three weeks to be almost as large and as powerful as the old one. I say almost as large, for it never arrives to the full size; and this is the reason we generally find the claws of lobsters of unequal magnitude.

After what has been thus described, let us pause a little to reflect on the wonders this extraordinary creature offers to our imagination. An animal without bones on the inside, yet furnished with a stomach capable of digesting the hardest substances, the shells of muscles, of oysters, and even its own—an animal gaining a new stomach and a new shell at stated intervals! furnished with the instruments of generation double in both sexes,

and yet with an apparent incapacity of uniting! without red blood circulating through the body, and yet apparently vigorous and active! But most strange of all, an animal endowed with a vital principle that furnishes out such limbs as have been cut away, and keeps continually combating it, though in constant repair to renew its engagements! These are but a small part of the wonders of the deep where Nature sports without a spectator!

Of this extraordinary yet well-known animal there are many varieties, with some differences in the claws, but little in the habits or conformation. It is found above three feet long; and if we may admit the shrimp and the prawn into the class, though unfurnished with claws, it is seen not above an inch. These all live in the water, and can bear its absence for but a few hours. The shell is black when taken out of the water, but turns red by boiling. The most common way of taking the lobster is in a basket or pot, as the fishermen call it, made of wicker-work, in which they put the bait, and then throw it to the bottom of the sea in six or ten fathoms water. The lobsters creep into this for the sake of the bait, but are not able to get out again. The river crawfish differs little from the lobster, but that the one will live only in fresh water, and the other will thrive only in the sea.

The crab is an animal found equally in fresh and salt water, as well upon land as in the ocean. In shape it differs very much from the lobster, but entirely resembles it in habits and conformation. The tail in this animal is not so apparent as in the former, being that broad flap that seems to cover a part of the belly, and when lifted discovers the peas or spawn situated there in great abundance. It resembles the lobster in the number of its claws, which are two; and its legs, which are eight, four on either side. Like the lobster, it is a bold voracious animal; and such an enmity do crabs bear each other that those who carry them for sale to market often tie their claws with strings to prevent their fighting and maiming themselves by the way. In short, it resembles the lobster in everything but the amazing bulk of its body compared to the size of its head and the length of its intestines, which have many convolutions.

As the crab, however, is found upon land as well as in water, the peculiarity of its situation produces a difference in its habits which it is proper to describe. The land-crab is found in some of the warmer regions of Europe, and in great abundance in all the tropical climates in Africa and America. They are of various kinds and endued with various properties, some being healthful, delicious, and nourishing food; others poisonous or malignant to the last degree; some are not above half an inch broad, others are found a foot over; some are of a dirty brown, and others beautifully mottled. That animal called the violet crab of the Caribbee Islands is the most noted both for its shape, the delicacy of its flesh, and the singularity of its manners.

The violet crab somewhat resembles two hands cut through the middle and joined together; for each side looks like four fingers, and the two nippers or claws resemble the thumbs. All the rest of the body is covered with a shell as large as a man's hand, and bunched in the middle, on the fore-part of which there are two long eyes of the size of a grain of barley, as transparent as crystal and as hard as horn. A little below these is the mouth, covered with a sort of barbs, under which there are two broad sharp teeth as white as snow. They are not placed, as in other animals, crossways, but in the opposite direction, not much unlike the blades of a pair of scissors. With these teeth they can easily cut leaves, fruits, and rotten wood, which is their usual food. But their principal instruments for cutting and seizing their food is their nippers, which catch such a hold, that the animal loses the limb sooner

than its grasp, and is often seen scampering off, having left its claw still holding fast upon the enemy. The faithful claw seems to perform its duty, and keeps for above a minute fastened upon the finger while the crab is making off. In fact, it loses no great matter by leaving a leg or an arm, for they soon grow again, and the animal is found as perfect as before.

This, however, is the least surprising part of this creature's history; and what I am going to relate, were it not as well known and as confidently confirmed as any other circumstance in natural history, it might well stagger our belief. These animals live not only in a kind of orderly society in their retreats in the mountains, but regularly once a year march down to the sea-side in a body of some millions at a time. As they multiply in great numbers, they choose the months of April or May to begin their expedition; and then sally out by thousands from the stumps of hollow trees, from the clefts of rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themselves under the surface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with this band of adventurers; there is no setting down one's foot without treading upon them. The sea is their place of destination, and to that they direct their march with right-lined precision. No geometriician could send them to their destined station by a shorter course; they neither turn to the right nor left, whatever obstacles intervene; and even if they meet with a house, they will attempt to scale the walls to keep the unbroken tenor of their way. But though this be the general order of their route, they upon other occasions are compelled to conform to the face of the country; and if it be intersected by rivers, they are then seen to wind along the course of the stream. The procession sets forward from the mountains with the regularity of an army, under the guidance of an experienced commander. They are commonly divided into three battalions; of which the first consists of the strongest and boldest males, that, like pioneers, march forward to clear the route and face the greatest dangers. These are obliged to halt for want of rain, and go into the most convenient encampment till the weather changes. The main body of the army is composed of females, which never leave the mountains till the rain is set in for some time, and then descend in regular battalions, being formed into columns of fifty paces broad and three miles deep, and so close that they almost cover the ground. Three or four days after this the rear-guard follows—a straggling, undisciplined tribe, consisting of males and females, but neither so robust nor so numerous as the former. The night is their chief time of proceeding; but if it rains by day they do not fail to profit by the occasion: and they continue to move forward in their slow uniform manner. When the sun shines and is hot upon the surface of the ground, they then make an universal halt, and wait till the cool of the evening. When they are terrified they march back in a confused, disorderly manner, holding up their nippers, with which they sometimes tear off a piece of the skin, and then leave the weapon where they inflicted the wound. They even try to intimidate their enemies; for they often clatter their nippers together, as if it were to threaten those that come to disturb them. But though they thus strive to be formidable to man, they are much more so to each other; they are possessed of one most unsocial property, which is, that if any of them by accident is maimed in such a manner as to be incapable of proceeding, the rest fall upon and devour it on the spot, and then pursue their journey.

When after a fatiguing march and escaping a thousand dangers (for they are sometimes three months in getting to the shore) they have arrived at their destined port, they prepare to cast their spawn. The peas are as yet within their bodies, and not excluded, as is usual in animals of this kind, under the tail; for the creature waits for the benefit of the sea-water to help the delivery. For

this purpose, the crab has no sooner reached the shore, than it eagerly goes to the edge of the water, and lets the waves wash over its body two or three times. This seems only a preparation for bringing the spawn to maturity; for without further delay they withdraw to seek a lodging upon land: in the meantime, the spawn grows larger, is excluded out of the body, and sticks to the barbs under the flap, or more properly the tail. This bunch is seen as big as a hen's egg, and exactly resembling the roes of herrings. In this state of pregnancy, they once more seek the shore for the last time, and, shaking off their spawn into the water, leave accident to bring it to maturity. At this time whole shoals of hungry fish are at the shore in expectation of this annual supply; the sea to a great distance seems black with them; and about two thirds of the crabs' eggs are immediately devoured by these rapacious invaders. The eggs that escape are hatched under the sand; and soon after millions at a time of these little crabs are seen quitting the shore, and slowly travelling up to the mountains.

The old ones, however, are not so active to return; they have become so feeble and lean, that they can hardly creep along, and the flesh at that time changes its colour. The most of them, therefore, are obliged to continue in the flat parts of the country till they recover, making holes in the earth, which they cover at the mouth with leaves and dirt, so that no air may enter. There they throw off their old shells, which they leave as it were quite whole, the place where they opened on the belly being unseen. At that time they are quite naked, and almost without motion for six days together, when they become so fat as to be delicious food. They have then under their stomachs four large white stones, which gradually decrease in proportion as the shell hardens, and when they come to perfection are not to be found. It is at that time that the animal is seen slowly making its way back; and all this is most commonly performed in the space of six weeks.

This animal when possessed of its retreats in the mountains is impregnable; for only subsisting upon vegetables, it seldom ventures out; and its habitation being in the most inaccessible places, it remains for a great part of the season in perfect security. It is only when impelled by the desire of bringing forth its young, and when compelled to descend into the flat country, that it is taken. At that time the natives wait for its descent in eager expectation, and destroy thousands; but disregarding the bodies, they only seek for that small spawn which lies on each side of the stomach within the shell, of about the thickness of a man's thumb. They are much more valuable upon their return after they have cast their shell; for being covered with a skin resembling soft parchment, almost every part except the stomach may be eaten. They are taken in their holes by feeling for them in the ground with an instrument: they are sought after by night, when on their journey, with flambeaux. The instant the animal perceives itself attacked, it throws itself on its back, and with its claws pinches most terribly whatever it happens to fasten on. But the dextrous crab-catcher takes them by the hinder legs in such a manner that its nippers cannot touch him, and thus he throws it into his bag. Sometimes also they are caught when they take refuge at the bottom of holes, in rocks by the sea side, by clapping a stick at the mouth of the hole, which prevents their getting out; and then soon after the tide coming, enters the hole, and the animal is found upon its retiring drowned in its retreat.

These crabs are of considerable advantage to the natives; and the slaves very often feed entirely upon them. In Jamaica, where they are found in great plenty, they are considered as one of the greatest delicacies of the place. Yet still, the eating of them is attended with some danger; for even of this kind many are found poisonous, being fed, as it is thought, upon the machinet apple; and whenever they are found under that noxious

plant they are always rejected with caution. It is thus with almost all the productions of those luxurious climates; however tempting they may be to the appetite, they but too often are found destructive; and scarce a delicacy among them that does not carry its own alloy.

The descent of these creatures for such important purposes deserves our admiration; but there is an animal of the lobster kind that annually descends from its mountains in like manner, and for purposes still more important and various. Its descent is not only to produce an offspring but to provide itself a covering—not only to secure a family, but to furnish a house. The animal I mean is the soldier-crab, which has some similitude to the lobster if divested of its shell. It is usually about four inches long, has no shell behind, but is covered down to the tail with a rough skin terminating in a point. It is, however, armed with strong hard nippers before, like the lobster; and one of them is as thick as a man's thumb, and pinches most powerfully. It is, as I said, without a shell to any part except its nippers; but what Nature has denied this animal it takes care to supply by art; and taking possession of the deserted shell of some other animal, resides in it, till, by growing too large for its habitation, it is under a necessity of change. It is a native of the West India Islands; and, like the former, it is seen every year descending from the mountains to the sea-shore, to deposit its spawn, and to provide itself with a new shell. This is a most bustling time with it, having so many things to do; and, in fact, very busy it appears. It is very probable that its first care is to provide for its offspring before it attends to its own wants; and it is thought, from the number of little shells which it is seen examining, that it deposits its spawn in them, which thus is placed in perfect security till the time of exclusion.

However this be, the "soldier" is in the end by no means unmindful of itself. It is still seen in its old shell, which it appears to have considerably outgrown; for a part of the naked body is seen at the mouth of it which the habitation is too small to hide. A shell, therefore, is to be found large enough to cover the whole body; and yet not so large as to be unmanageable and unwieldy. To answer both these ends it is no easy matter, nor the attainment of a slight inquiry. The little soldier is seen busily parading the shore along that line of pebbles and shells that is formed by the extremest wave—still, however, dragging its old incommensurable habitation at its tail, unwilling to part with one shell, even though a troublesome appendage, till it can find another more convenient. It is seen stopping at one shell, turning it and passing it by, going on to another, contemplating that for a while, and then slipping its tail from its old habitation to try on the new. This also is found to be inconvenient; and it quickly returns to its old shell again. In this manner it frequently changes, till at last it finds one light, roomy, and commodious; to this it adheres, though the shell be sometimes so large as to hide the body of the animal, claws and all.

But it is not till after many trials, but many combats also, that the soldier is thus completely equipped; for there is often a contest between two of them for some well-looking favourite shell for which they are rivals. They both endeavour to take possession; they strike with their claws; they bite each other till the weakest is obliged to yield by giving up the object of dispute. It is then that the victor immediately takes possession, and parades it in his new conquest three or four times back and forward upon the strand before his envious antagonist.

When this animal is taken, it sends forth a feeble cry, endeavouring to seize the enemy with its nippers; which if it fastens upon it will sooner die than quit the grasp. The wound is very painful and not easily cured.

For this reason, and as it is not much esteemed for its flesh, it is generally permitted to return to its old retreat to the mountains in safety. There it continues till the necessity of changing once more, and the desire of producing an offspring, expose it to fresh dangers the year ensuing.

CHAP. III.

OF THE TORTOISE AND ITS KINDS.

Having described the lobster and the crab as animals in some measure approaching the insect tribes, it will appear like injustice to place the tortoise among the number, that, from its strength, its docility, the warm red blood that is circulating in its veins, deserves to be ranked even above the fishes: but as this animal is covered like the lobster with a shell—as it is of an amphibious nature, and brings forth its young from the egg without hatching—we must be content to degrade it among animals that in every respect it infinitely surpasses.

Tortoises are usually divided into those that live upon land, and those that subsist in the water; and use has made a distinction even in the name—the one being called tortoises, the other turtles. However, Seba has proved that all tortoises are amphibious; that the land-tortoise will live in the water, and that the sea-turtle can be fed upon land. A land-tortoise was brought to him that was caught in one of the canals of Amsterdam, which he kept for half a year in his house, where it lived very well contented in both elements. When in the water it remained with its head above the surface; when placed in the sun, it seemed delighted with its beams, and continued immovable while it felt their warmth. The difference, therefore, in these animals, arises rather from their habits than their conformation; and, upon examination, there will be less variety found between them than between birds that live upon land and those that swim upon the water.

Yet, though Nature seems to have made but few distinctions among these animals as to their conformation, in their habits they are very dissimilar; as these result from the different qualities of their food, and the different sorts of enemies they have to avoid or encounter. I will therefore exhibit their figure and conformation under one common description, by which their slight differences will be more obvious; and then I will give a separate history of the manners of each, as naturalists and travellers have taught us.

All tortoises in their external form pretty much resemble each other, their outward covering being composed of two great shells, the one laid upon the other, and only touching at the edges: however, when we come to look closer, we shall find that the upper shell is composed of no less than thirteen pieces, which are laid flat upon the ribs, like the tiles of a house, by which the shell is kept arched and supported. The shells both above and below, that, to an inattentive observer seem to make each but one piece, are bound together at the edges by very strong and hard ligaments, yet with some small share of motion. There are two holes at either end of this vaulted body—one for a very small head, shoulders, and arms to peep through; the other, at the opposite edge, for the feet and the tail. These shells the animal is never disengaged from, and they serve for its defence against every creature but man.

The tortoise has but a small head, with no teeth; having only two bony ridges in the place, serrated and hard. These serve to gather and grind its food; and such is the amazing strength of the jaws, that it is impossible to open them where they have once fastened. Even when the head is cut off, the jaw still keep their

hold, and the muscles, in death, preserve a tenacious rigidity. Indeed, the animal is possessed of equal strength in all other parts of the body—the legs, though short, are inconceivably strong; and, torpid as the tortoise may appear, it has been known to carry five men standing upon its back, with apparent ease and unconcern. Its manner of going forward is by moving its legs one after the other, and the claws with which the toes are furnished sink into the ground like the nails of an iron-shod wheel, and assist its progression.

With respect to its internal parts, not to enter into minute anatomical disquisitions, it may not be improper to observe, that the blood circulates in this animal as in some cartilaginous fishes, and something in the manner of a child in the womb. The greatest quantity of the blood passes directly from the vena cava into the left ventricle of the heart, which communicates with the right ventricle by an opening; while the auricles only receive what the ventricles seem incapable of admitting. Thus the blood is driven by a very short passage through the circulation, and the lungs seem to lend only occasional assistance. From this conformation the animal can subsist for some time without using the lungs or breathing; at least, the lungs are not so necessary an instrument for driving on the circulation as with us.

Such is the general structure of this animal, whether found to live by land or water. With regard to the differences of these animals, the land-tortoise, from its habits of making use of its feet in walking, is much more nimble upon land than the sea-turtle: the land-tortoise, if thrown upon its back, by rocking and balancing its body, like a child rocking in a cradle, at last turns itself upon its face again; but the turtle, when once turned, continues without being able to move from the spot. In comparing the feet, also, of these animals, the nails upon the toes of one that has been long used to scratch for subsistence upon land are blunt and worn; while those that have only been employed in swimming are sharp and long, and have more the similitude of fins. The brain of the land-tortoise is but small; and yet it is three times as large as that of the turtle. There is a difference, also, in the shape of their eggs, and in the passage by which they are excluded; for in the land-tortoise the passage is so narrow that the egg conforms to the shape of the aperture, and, though round when in the body, yet becomes much more oblong than those of fowls upon being excluded; otherwise they would never be able to pass through the bony canal by which they are protruded: on the contrary, the passage is wider in the turtle, and therefore its eggs are round. These are the most striking distinctions; but that which is most known is their size—the land-tortoise often not exceeding three feet long by two feet broad, the sea-turtle being sometimes from five to seven feet long. The size, however, is but a fallacious distinction; since land-tortoises in some parts of India grow to a very great magnitude, though probably not, as the ancients affirm, big enough for a single shell to serve for the covering of a house.

But if the different kinds of tortoises are not sufficiently distinguished by their figure, they are very obviously distinguishable by their methods of living. The land-tortoise lives in holes dug in the mountains, or near marshy lakes; the sea-turtles in cavities of rocks, and extensive pastures at the bottom of the sea. The tortoise makes use of its feet to walk with and burrow in the ground; the turtle chiefly uses its feet in swimming or creeping at the bottom.

The land-tortoise is generally found, as was observed above, from one foot to five feet long from the end of the snout to the end of the tail, and from five inches to a foot and a half across the back. It has a small head, somewhat resembling that of a serpent, an eye without the upper lid, the under eye-lid serving to cover and keep that organ in safety. It has a strong scaly tail,

like the lizard. Its head the animal can put out and hide at pleasure, under the great penthouse of its shell: there it can remain secure from all attacks; there, defended on every side, it can fatigue the patience of the most formidable animal of the forest that makes use only of natural strength to destroy it. As the tortoise lives wholly upon vegetable food it never seeks the encounter; yet, if any of the smaller animals attempt to invade its repose they are sure to suffer. The tortoise, impreguably defended, is furnished with such a strength of jaw that, though armed only with bony plates instead of teeth, wherever it fastens it infallibly keeps hold until it has taken out the piece.

Though peaceable in itself it is formed for war in another respect, for it seems almost endued with immortality. Nothing can kill it; the depriving it of one of its members is but a slight injury; it will live though deprived of the brain; it will live though deprived of its head. Redi informs us that, in making some experiments upon vital motion, he, in the beginning of the month of November, took a land-tortoise, made a large opening in its skull and drew out all the brain, washed the cavity, so as not to leave the smallest part remaining, and then, leaving the whole open, set the animal at liberty. Notwithstanding this the tortoise marched away without seeming to have received the smallest injury; only it shut the eyes and never opened them afterwards. Soon after the hole in the skull was seen to close; and in three days there was a complete skin covering the wound. In this manner the animal lived without a brain for six months, walking about unconcernedly, and moving its limbs as before. But the Italian philosopher, not satisfied with this experiment, carried it still further; for he cut off the head, and the animal lived twenty-three days after its separation from the body. The head also continued to rattle the jaws like a pair of castanets for above a quarter of an hour.

Nor are these animals less long-lived than difficult in destroying. Tortoises are commonly known to exceed eighty years old: there was one kept in the Archbishop of Canterbury's garden at Lambeth that was remembered above a hundred and twenty. It was at last killed by the severity of a frost, from which it had not sufficiently defended itself in its winter retreat, which was a heap of sand at the bottom of the garden.

The usual food of the land-tortoise seems not so nourishing as to supply this extraordinary principle of vitality. It lives upon vegetables in its retreats in the mountains or the plain, and seldom makes its prey of snails or worms but when other food is not found in grateful plenty. It is also fond of fruits, and, when the forest affords them, is generally found not far from where they grow. As it can move but slowly, it is not very delicate in the choice of its food; so that it usually fills itself with whatever offers. Those that are kept in a domestic state will eat anything—leaves, fruits, corn, bran, or grass.

From the smallness of its brain and the slowness of its motion it obviously appears to be a torpid, heavy animal, requiring rest and sleep; and, in fact, it retires to some cavern to sleep for the winter. I already observed that its blood circulated through the heart by a short passage, and that it did not, as anatomists express it, go through the great circulation. With us and quadrupeds the blood goes from the veins to the heart; from the heart it is sent to be spread over the lungs; from the lungs it returns to the heart again; and from thence it goes to the arteries to be distributed through the whole body. But its passage in the tortoise is much shorter, as from the veins it goes to the heart; then leaving the lungs entirely out of its course, it takes a short cut if I may so, say, into the beginning of the arteries, which send it round the animal frame. From hence we see the lungs are left out of the circulation; and consequently the animal is capable of continuing

to live without continuing to breathe. In this it resembles the bat, the serpent, the mole, and the lizard; like them it takes up its dark residence for the winter; and at that time, when its food is no longer in plenty, it happily becomes insensible to the want. Nor is it unmindful to prepare its retreat, and make it as convenient as possible; it is sometimes buried two or three feet in the ground, with its hole furnished with moss, grass, and other substances, as well to keep the retreat warm as to serve for food in case it should prematurely awake from its state of stupefaction. But it must not be supposed that while it is thus at rest it totally discontinues to breathe: on the contrary, an animal of this kind, if put into a close vessel without air will soon be stifled, though not so readily as in a state of vigour and activity.

From this dormant state the tortoise is awakened by the genial return of spring, and is thought to be not much wasted by its long confinement. To animals that live a hundred and fifty years a sleep of six months is but as the nap of a night. All the actions of these long-lived creatures seem formed upon a scale answering the length of their existence; their slumbers are for a season; their motions are slow, and require time in every action: even the act of procreation, which among other animals is performed in a very few minutes, is with them the business of days. About a month after their enlargement from a torpid state they prepare, to transmit their posterity: and both continue joined for near a month together. The eggs of the female are contained in the ovary, above the bladder, which is extremely large; and these are before their exclusion round and naked, with some spots of red: after they are laid, however, they assume another form, being smaller and longer than those of a hen. This alteration in the figure of the eggs most probably proceeds from the narrowness of the bony passage through which they are excluded. Swammerdam, who compared the size of the eggs taken out of this animal's body with the diameter of the passage through which they were excluded, is of opinion that the bones themselves separated from each other and closed again; but in my opinion, it is more probable to suppose that the eggs, and not the bones, alter their form. Certain it is that they are round in the body, and that they are oval upon being protruded.

The eggs of all the tortoise kind, like those of birds, are furnished with a yolk and a white; but the shell is different, being somewhat like those soft eggs that hens exclude before their time: however, this shell is much thicker and stronger, and is a longer time in coming to maturity in the womb. The land-tortoise lays but a few in number if compared to the sea-turtle, who deposits from a hundred and fifty to two hundred in a season.

The amount of the land-tortoise's eggs I have not been able to learn; but, from the scarceness of the animal, I am apt to think they cannot be very numerous. When it prepares to lay the female scratches a slight depression in the earth, generally in a warm situation, where the beams of the sun have their full effect; there depositing her eggs, and covering them with grass and leaves, she forsakes them to be hatched by the heat of the season. The young tortoises are generally excluded in about twenty-six days; but as the heat of the weather assists or its coldness retards incubation, sometimes it happens that there is a difference of two or three days. The little animals no sooner leave the egg than they seek for their provision, entirely self-taught; and their shell, with which they are covered from the beginning, expands and grows larger with age. As it is composed of a variety of pieces, they are all capable of extension at their sutures, and the shell admits of increase in every direction. It is otherwise with those animals like the lobster, whose shell is composed all

of one piece, that admits of no increase; which, when the tenant is too big for the habitation, must burst the shell and get another. But the covering of the tortoise grows larger in proportion as the internal parts expand—in some measure resembling the growth of the human skull, which is composed of a number of bones, increasing in size in proportion to the quantity of the brain. All tortoises, therefore, as they never change their shell, must have it formed in pieces; and though, in some that have been described by painters or historians, these marks have not been attended to, yet we can have no doubt that they are general to the whole tribe.

It is common enough to take these animals into gardens, as they are thought to destroy insects and snails in great abundance. We are even told that in hot countries they are admitted into a domestic state, as they are great destroyers of bugs. How so large and heavy an animal is capable of being expert at such petty prey is not easy to conceive; but I have seen several of them about gentlemen's houses that in general appear torpid, harmless, and even fond of employment. Children have sometimes got upon the back of a tortoise; and such was the creature's strength that it never seemed overloaded, but moved off with its burden to where it expected to be fed, but would carry them no further. In winter they regularly find out a place to sleep in; but in those warm countries in which the tortoise is found larger and in greater plenty than in Europe, they live without retiring the whole year round.

The sea-tortoise, or turtle as it is now called, is generally found larger than the former. This element is possessed with the property of increasing the magnitude of these animals, which are common to the land and the ocean. The sea-pike is larger than that of the fresh-water pike; the sea-bear is larger than that of the mountains; and the sea-turtle exceeds the land-tortoise in the same proportion. It is of different magnitudes according to its different kinds—some turtles being not above fifty pounds' weight, and some above eight hundred.

The great Mediterranean turtle is the largest of the turtle kind with which we are acquainted. It is found from five to eight feet long, and from six to nine hundred pounds' weight. But unluckily its utility bears no proportion to its size, as it is unfit for food, and sometimes poisons those who eat it. The shell, also, which is a tough, strong integument resembling a hide, is unfit for all serviceable purposes. One of these animals was taken some years ago at the mouth of the Loire, in nets that were not designed for so large a capture. This turtle, which was of enormous strength, by its own struggles involved itself in the nets in such a manner as to be incapable of doing mischief: yet, even thus shackled, it appeared terrible to the fishermen, who were at first for flying; but, finding it impotent, they gathered courage to drag it on shore, where it made a most horrible bellowing; and when they began to knock it on the head with their gaffs it was to be heard at half a mile distance. They were still further intimidated by its nauseous and pestilential breath, which so powerfully affected them that they were near fainting. This animal wanted but four inches of being eight feet long, and was above two feet over: its shell more resembled leather than the shell of a tortoise; and, unlike all other animals of this kind, it was furnished with teeth in each jaw, one rank behind another, like those of a shark: its feet, also, different from the rest of this kind, wanted claws; and the tail was quite disengaged from the shell: fifteen inches long, and more resembling that of a quadruped than a tortoise. This animal was then unknown upon the coasts of France; and was supposed to have been brought into the European seas in some India ship that might be wrecked upon her return. Since that, however, two or three of these animals have been taken upon the coasts; two in particular upon the coast of Corn-

wall, the largest of which weighed eight hundred pounds; and one upon the Isle of Rye, but two years before that, weighed between seven and eight hundred. One, most probably of this kind also, was caught about eighty years ago near Scarborough, and a good deal of company was invited to feast upon it: a gentleman, who was one of the guests, told the company that it was a Mediterranean turtle, and not wholesome; but a person, who was willing to satisfy his appetite at the risk of his life, eat of it: he was seized with a violent vomiting and purging; but his constitution overpowered the malignity of the poison.

These are a formidable and useless kind, if compared to the turtle caught in the South Seas and the Indian Ocean. They are of different kinds, not only unlike each other in form, but furnishing man with very different advantages. They are usually distinguished by sailors into four kinds—the trunk-turtle, the loggerhead, the hawksbill, and the green turtle.

The trunk-turtle is commonly larger than the rest, and its back higher and rounder. The flesh of this is rank, and not very wholesome.

The loggerhead is so called from the largeness of its head, which is much bigger in proportion than that of the other kinds. The flesh of this is also very rank, and not eaten but in case of necessity.

The hawksbill turtle is the least of the four, and has a long and small mouth, somewhat resembling the bill of a hawk. The flesh of this also is very indifferent eating; but the shell serves for the most valuable purposes. This is the animal that supplies the tortoise-shell, of which such a variety of beautiful trinkets are made. The substance of which the shells of other turtles are composed is thin and porous; but that of the hawksbill is firm, and, when polished, is beautifully marbled. They generally carry about three pounds, but the largest of all six pounds. The shell consists, as in all the kind, of thirteen leaves or plates, of which eight are flat and five hollow. They are raised and taken off by means of fire, which is made under the shell after the flesh is taken out. As soon as the heat affects the leaves they start from the ribs, and are easily raised with the point of a knife. By being scraped and polished on both sides they become beautifully transparent, or are easily cast into what form the workman thinks proper, by making them soft and pliant in warm water, and then screwing them in a mould, like a medal: however, the shell is most beautiful before it undergoes this last operation.

But of all animals of the tortoise kind the green turtle is the most noted and the most valuable. The delicacy of its flesh and its nutritive qualities, together with the property of being easily digested, were for above a century known only to our seamen and the inhabitants of the coasts where they were taken. It was not until by slow degrees the distinction came to be made between such as were malignant and such as were wholesome. The controversies and contradictions of our old travellers were numerous upon this head—some asserting that the turtle was delicious food, and others that it was actual poison. Dampier—that rough seaman, who has added more to natural history than half of the philosophers that went before him—appears to be the first who informed us of their distinctions; and that, while the rest might be valuable for other purposes, the green turtle alone was chiefly prized for the delicacy of its flesh. He never imagined, however, that this animal would make its way to the luxurious tables of Europe; for he seems chiefly to recommend it as salted up for ship's provision in case of necessity.

At present the turtle is very well known among us, and is become the favourite food of those that are desirous of eating a great deal without the danger of surfeiting. This is a property the flesh of the turtle seems peculiarly possessed of; and by the importation

of it alive among us, gluttony is freed from one of its greatest restraints. The flesh of the turtle is become a branch of commerce; and therefore ships are provided with conveniences for supplying them with water and provision, to bring them over in health from Jamaica and other West Indian islands. This, however, is not always effected; for though they are very vivacious and scarcely require any provision upon the voyage, yet, by the working of the ship and their beating against the sides of the boat that contains them, they become battered and lean; so that to eat this animal in the highest perfection, instead of bringing the turtle to the epicure, he ought to be transported to the turtle.

This animal is called the green turtle from the colour of its shell, which is rather greener than that of others of this kind. It is generally found about two hundred-weight; though some are five hundred, and others not above fifty. Dampier tells us of one that was seen at Port Royal, in Jamaica, that was six feet broad across the back: he does not tell us its other dimensions; but says that the son of Captain Roach, a boy about ten years old, sailed in the shell as in a boat from the shore to his father's ship, which was above a quarter of a mile from land. But this is nothing to the size of some turtles the ancients speak of. *Ælian* assures us that the houses in the island of *Taprobane* are usually covered with a single shell. *Diodorus Siculus* tells us that a people neighbouring on *Ethiopia*, called the "Turtle-eaters," coasted along the shore in boats made of the upper shell of this animal; and that in war, when they had eaten the flesh, the covering served them as a tent. In this account *Pliny* and all the rest of the ancients agree; and as they had frequent opportunities of knowing the truth, we are not lightly to contradict their testimony.

At present, however, they are not seen of such amazing dimensions. We are told by *Læst* that on the Isle of *Cuba* they grow to such a size that five men can stand on the back of one of them; and what is more surprising still, that the animal does not seem overloaded, but will go off with them upon its back with a slow, steady motion towards the sea.

They are found in the greatest numbers on the Island of *Ascension*, where for several years they were taken to be salted to feed the slaves, or for a supply of ship's provision. Their value at present seems to be better known.

This animal seldom comes from the sea but to deposit its eggs, and now and then to sport in fresh water. Its chief food is a submarine plant, that covers the bottom of several parts of the sea not far from the shore. There the turtles are seen when the weather is fair, feeding in great numbers like flocks of sheep, several fathoms deep upon the verdant carpet below. At other times they go to mouths of rivers; and they seem to find gratification in fresh water. After some time thus employed they seek their former stations; and, when done feeding, they generally float with their heads above water, unless they are alarmed by the approach of hunters or birds of prey, in which case they suddenly plunge to the bottom. They often seek their provision among the rocks, feeding upon moss and sea-weed; and it is probable will not disdain to prey upon insects and other small animals, as they are very fond of flesh when taken and fed for the table.

At the time of feeding they are seen to forsake their former haunts and their food, and to take sometimes a voyage of nine hundred miles to deposit their eggs on some favourite shore. The coasts they always resort to upon these occasions are those that are low, flat, and sandy; for, being heavy animals, they cannot climb a bold shore; nor is any bed so proper as sand to lay their eggs on. They couple in March, and continue united till May; during a great part of which time they are seen locked together, and almost incapable of separation.

The female seems passive and reluctant; but the male grasps her with his claws in such a manner that nothing can induce him to quit his hold. It would seem that the grasp, as in frogs, is in some measure convulsive, and that the animal is unable to relax its efforts.

When the time for laying approaches, the female is seen towards the setting of the sun drawing near the shore and looking earnestly about her, as if afraid of being discovered. When she perceives any person on shore she seeks for another place; but if otherwise, she lands when it is dark, and goes to take a survey of the land where she designs to lay. Having marked the spot, she goes back, without laying for that night, to the ocean again; but the next night returns to deposit a part of her burthen. She begins by working and digging in the sand with her fore-feet till she has made a round hole, a foot broad and a foot and a half deep, just at the place a little above where the water reaches highest. This done, she lays eighty or ninety eggs at a time, each as big as a hen's egg, and as round as a ball. She continues laying about the space of an hour; during which time if a cart were driven over her she would not be induced to stir. The eggs are covered with a tough white skin, like wetted parchment. When she has done laying she covers the whole so dexterously that it is no easy matter to find the place; and they must be accustomed to the search to make the discovery. When the turtle has done laying she returns to the sea, and leaves her eggs to be hatched by the heat of the sun. At the end of fifteen days she lays about the same number of eggs again, and at the end of another fifteen days she repeats the same—three times in all, using the same precautions every time for their safety.

In about twenty-four or twenty-five days after laying the eggs are hatched by the heat of the sun; and the young turtles, being about as big as quails, are seen bursting from the sand, as if earth-born, and running directly to the sea, with instinct only for their guide; but to their great misfortune, it often happens that, their strength being small, the surges of the sea for some few days beat them back upon the shore. Thus exposed, they remain a prey to thousands of birds that then haunt the coasts; and these stooping down upon them carry off the greatest part, and sometimes the whole brood, before they have strength sufficient to withstand the waves or dive to the bottom. *Helbigius* informs us that they have still another enemy to fear, which is no other than the parent that produced them, that waits for their arrival at the edge of the deep, and devours as many as she can. This circumstance, however, demands further confirmation; though nothing is more certain than that the crocodile acts in the same unnatural manner.

When the turtles have done laying they then return to their accustomed places of feeding. Upon their outset to the shore, where they breed, they are always found fat and healthy; but upon their return they are weak, lean, and unfit to be eaten. They are seldom, therefore, molested upon their retreat; but the great art is to seize them when arrived, or to intercept their arrival. In these uninhabited islands, to which the green turtle chiefly resorts, the men that go to take them land about night-fall, and without making any noise (for those animals, though without any external opening of the ear hear very distinctly, there being an auditory conduit that opens into the mouth) lie close while they see the female turtle coming on shore. They let her proceed to her greatest distance from the sea; and then, when she is most busily employed in scratching a hole in the sand, they sally out and surprise her. Their manner is to turn her upon her back, which utterly incapacitates her from moving; and yet, as the creature is very strong and struggles very hard, two men find it no easy matter to lay her over. When thus secured they go to the next; and in this manner, in less than three hours they

have been known to turn forty or fifty turtles, each of which weighs from a hundred and fifty to two hundred pounds. Labat assures us that when the animal is in this helpless situation it is heard to sigh very heavily, and even to shed tears.

At present, from the great appetite that man has discovered for this animal, they are not only thinned in their numbers, but are also grown much more shy. There are several other ways, therefore, contrived for taking them. One is, to seize them when coupled together at the breeding season, when they are very easily approached, and as easily seen; for these animals, though capable of living for some time under water, yet rise every eight or ten minutes to breathe. As soon as they are thus perceived, two or three people draw near them in a canoe, and slip a noose either round their necks or one of their feet. If they have no line they lay hold of them by the neck, where they have no shell, with their hands only; and by this means they usually catch them both together. But sometimes the female escapes, being more shy than the male.

Another way of taking them is by the harpoon, either when they are playing on the surface of the water or feeding at the bottom; when the harpoon is skilfully darted it sticks fast in the shell of the back; the wood then disengages from the iron, and the line is long enough for the animal to take its range; for if the harpooner should attempt at once to draw the animal into his boat till it was weakened by its own struggling it would possibly get free. Thus the turtle struggles hard to get loose, but all in vain; for they take care the line fastened to the harpoon shall be strong enough to hold it.

There is yet another way which, though seemingly awkward, is said to be attended with very great success. A good diver places himself at the head of the boat; and when the turtles are observed (which they sometimes are in great numbers) asleep on the surface, he immediately quits the vessel at about fifty yards distance, and keeping still under water, directs his passage to where the turtle was seen, and coming up beneath, seizes it by the tail; the animal awaking struggles to get free; and by this both are kept at the surface until the boat arrives to take them in.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE SHELL OF TESTACEOUS FISHES.

One is apt to combine very dissimilar objects in the same group when hurried into the vortex of method. No two animals are more unlike each other than the whale and the limpet, the tortoise and the oyster. Yet, as these animals must find some place in the picture of Animated Nature, it is best to let them rest in the station where the generality of mankind have assigned them: and as they have been willing to give them all from their abode the name of fishes, it is wisest in us to conform.

But before I enter into any history of shell-fish, it may not be improper to observe that naturalists who have treated on this part of history have entirely attended to outward forms; and as in many other instances, forsaking the description of the animal itself, have exhausted all their industry in describing the habitation. In consequence of this radical error we have volumes written upon the subject of shells, and very little said on the history of shell-fish. The life of these industrious creatures, that for the most part creep along the bottom, or immoveably wait until driven as the waves happen to direct, is almost entirely unknown. The wreathing of their shells, or the spots with which they are tinctured, have been described with

a most disgusting prolixity; but their appetites and their combats, their escapes and humble arts of subsistence, have been utterly neglected.

As I have only undertaken to write the history of Animated Nature, the variety of shells and their peculiar spots or blemishes do not come within my design. However, the manner in which shells are formed is a part of natural history connected with my plan, as it pre-supposes vital force or industry in the animal that forms them.

The shell may be considered as a habitation supplied by Nature. It is a hard stony substance, made up somewhat in the manner of a wall. Part of the stony substance the animal derives from outward objects, and the fluids of the animal itself furnish the cement. These united make that firm covering which shell-fish generally reside in till they die.

But in order to give a more exact idea of the manner in which sea-shells are formed, we must have recourse to an animal that lives upon land, with the formation of whose shell we are best acquainted. This is the garden-snail, that carries its box upon its back, whose history Swammerdam has taken such endless pains to describe. As the manner of the formation of this animal's shell extends to that of all others that have shells, whether they live upon land or in the water, it will be proper to give it a place before we enter upon the history of testaceous fishes.

To begin with the animal in its earliest state, and trace the progress of its shell from the time it first appears:—The instant the young snail leaves the egg it carries its shell or its box on its back. It does not leave the egg till it is arrived at a certain growth, when its little habitation is sufficiently hardened. This beginning of the shell is not much bigger than a pin's head, but grows in a very rapid manner, having at first but two circumvolutions, for the rest are added as the snail grows larger. In proportion as the animal increases in size, the circumvolutions of the shell increase also, until the number of those volutes come to be five, which is never exceeded.

The part where the animal enlarges the shell is at the mouth, to which it adds in proportion as it finds itself stinted in its habitation below. Being about to enlarge its shell, it is seen with its little teeth biting and clearing away the scaly skin that grows at the edges. It is sometimes seen to eat those bits it thus takes off; at other times it only cleans away the margin when covered with films, and then adds another rim to its shell.

For the purposes of making the shell, which is natural to the animal, and without which it could not live three days, its whole body is furnished with glands, from the orifices of which flows out a kind of flimsy fluid, like small spiders' threads, which join together in one common crust or surface, and in time condense and acquire a stony hardness. It is this flimsy humour that grows into a membrane, and afterwards a stony skin; nor can it have escaped any who have observed the track of a snail, that glistening substance which it leaves on the floor or the wall is no other than the materials with which the animal adds to its shell, or repairs it when broken.

Now to exhibit in a more satisfactory manner the method in which the shell is formed:—The snail bursts from its egg with its shell upon its back; this shell, though very simple, is the centre round which every succeeding convolution of the shell is formed, by new circles added to the first. As the body of the snail can be extended nowhere but to the aperture, the mouth of the shell only can of consequence receive augmentation. The substance of which the shell is composed is chiefly supplied by the animal itself, and is no more than a flimsy fluid which hardens into bone. This fluid passes through an infinite number of little glands till it arrives

at the pores of the skin; but there it is stopped by the shell that covers the part below; and therefore is sent to the mouth of the shell, where it is wanted for its enlargement. There the first layer of slime soon hardens; and then another is added, which hardens also, till in time the shell becomes as thick as is requisite for the animal's preservation. Thus every shell may be considered as composed of a number of layers of slime, which have entirely proceeded from the animal's own body.

But though this be the general opinion with regard to the formation of shells, I cannot avoid thinking there are still other substances beside the animal's own slime which go to the composition of its shell, or at least to its external coat, which is ever different from the internal. The substances I mean are the accidental concretions of earthly or saline parts, which adhere to the slimy matter upon its first emission. By adopting this theory, we can more satisfactorily account for the various colours of the shell, which cannot be supposed to take its tincture from the animal's body, as is the usual opinion; for all the internal parts of the shell are but of one white colour; it is only the outermost layer of the shell that is so beautifully varied, so richly tintured with that variety of colours we behold in the cabinets of the curious. If the external coat be scaled off, as Mr. Angenville asserts, all the inner substance will be found but of one simple covering; and consequently the animal's own juices can give only one colour; whereas we see some shells stained with a hundred.

The usual way of accounting for the different colouring of shells, which seems to me erroneous, is this—In the body of every one of these animals several streaks are discerned of a different colour from the rest. "This variety," say they, "is an incontestable proof that the juices flowing from those parts will be also of a different hue; and will consequently tinge that part of the shell which their slime composes of a different colour." But this system, as was observed before, is overthrown by the fact, which discovers that only the outer surface of the shell is tinged; whereas, by this it would have been coloured throughout; nay, by this system the internal parts of the shell would be stained with the most vivid colouring, as being least exposed to the external injuries of the element where it is placed. But the truth is, the animal residing in the shell has none of these various colours thus talked of: its slime is a simple, pellucid substance; and the only marblings which appear in its body are the colour of the food which is seen through its transparent intestines. We must, therefore, account for the various colouring of its shell upon a different principle.

If, as I said, we examine the cabinets of the curious we shall find shells with various and beautiful colouring; we shall find them generally furnished with a white ground, tintured with red, yellow, brown, green, and several other shades and lovely mixtures, but never blue. Shells are of almost all colours but blue. The reason seems to be obvious; for blue is the colour which sea-water changes. A piece of silk or a feather of this colour, put into an infusion of salt, urine, or nitre, lose their tint entirely. Now may not this give us a hint with respect to the operations of Nature in colouring her shells? May we not from hence conclude that sea-water is efficacious in giving colour or taking it away? That, to produce colour, the animal not only furnishes its juices, but the sea or earth that mixture of substance which is to unite with them? Neither the animal slime alone, nor the external earthy or saline substances alone, could produce colours; but both united produce an effect which neither separately were possessed of. Thus shells assume every colour but blue; and that sea-water, instead of producing, would be apt to destroy.

From hence, therefore, it appears that the animal does not alone tincture its own shell; but that external

causes co-operate in contributing to its beauty. It is probably that from the nature of its food, or from other circumstances unknown to us, the external layers of its slime may be of different consistencies; so as, when joined with the particles of earth or salt that are accidentally united with them from without, they assume various and most beautiful hues. But the internal layers, which receive no foreign admixture, still preserve the natural colour of the animal, and continue white without any variation.

Thus far we see that the animal is not wholly the agent in giving beauty and colouring to its shell: but it seems otherwise with respect to its convolutions, its prominences, and general form. These entirely depend upon the art of the animal, or rather upon its instincts, which in the same kinds are ever invariable. The shell generally bears some rude resemblance to the body upon which it has been moulded. Thus it is observable in all sea-shells that if the animal has any tumour or excrescence on its body, it creates likewise a swelling in that part of the incrustation to which it corresponds. When the animal begins to alter its position, and to make new additions to its apartments, the same protuberance which had raised the shell before on one part swells it again at some little distance, by which means we see the same inequality in a spiral line all round the shell. Sometimes these tumours of the animal are so large or so pointed that those which rise over them in the incrustation appear like horns; after this the animal disengages itself from its first cavities, and then, by fresh evacuations, assumes a new set of horns, and so increases the number in proportion to its growth. If, on the other hand, the body happens to be channelled, the shell that covers it will be channelled likewise; if there be any protuberances in the body, which wind in a spiral line about it, the shell will likewise have its tumours and cavities winding round to the end.

In this manner, as the animals are of various forms, the shells exhibit an equal variety. Indeed, the diversity is so great and the figures and colours so very striking, that several persons with a kind of harmless indolence have made the arrangement of them the study and the business of their lives. Those who consult their beauty alone take care to have them polished, and to have an external crust or periosteum, as Swammerdam calls it, scoured off from the surfaces by spirit of salt. But there are others that, with more learned affectation, keep them exactly in the state in which they have been found, with their precious crust still round them. The expense men have sometimes been at in making such collections is amazing; and some shells, such as the stairs-shell or the admiral shell, are not more precious for their scarceness than pearls are for their beauty. Indeed, it is the scarcity and not the beauty of the object that determines the value of all natural curiosities. Those shells that offer but little beautiful to the ignorant are often the most precious; and those shells which an unlearned spectator would stop to observe with admiration, one accustomed to the visitation of cabinets would pass over with disdain. These collections, however, have their use, not only by exhibiting the vast variety of Nature's operations, but also by exciting our curiosity to the consideration of the animals that form them. A mind that can find innocent entertainment in these humble contemplations is well employed, and, as we say of children, is kept from doing mischief. Although there may be nobler occupations than that of considering the convolutions of a shell, yet there may be some who want the ambition to aspire after such arduous pursuits; there may be some unfit for them; there may be some who find their ambition fully gratified by the praise which the collectors of shells bestow upon each other. Indeed, for a day or two there is no mind that a cabinet of shells cannot furnish with pleasing employment. "What can be more gratifying,"

as Pliny says, "than to view Nature in all her irregularities, and sporting in her variety of shells! Such a difference of colour do they exhibit! such a difference of figure! flat, concave, long, lunated, drawn round in a circle, the orbit cut in two! some are seen with a rising on the back; some smooth, some wrinkled, toothed, streaked, the point variously intorted, the mouth pointing like a dagger, folded back, bent inwards! all these variations, and many more, furnish at once novelty, elegance, and speculation."

With respect to the figure of shells, Aristotle has divided them into three kinds: and this method is of all others the most conformable to Nature. These are, first, the "univalve," or "turbinated," which consist of one piece, like the box of a snail; secondly, the "bivalve," consisting of two pieces, united by a hinge, like an oyster; and thirdly, the "multivalve," consisting of more than two pieces, as the acorn-shell, which has not less than twelve pieces, that go to its composition. All these kinds are found in the sea at different depths, and are valuable in proportion to their scarceness or beauty.

From the variety of the colours and figure of shells, we may pass to that of their place and situation. Some are found in the sea; some in fresh-water rivers; some alive upon land; and a still greater quantity dead in the bowels of the earth. But whatever shells are found, they are universally known to be composed of one and the same substance. They are formed of an animal or calcareous earth, that ferments with vinegar and other acids, and that burns into lime, and will not easily melt into glass. Such is the substance of which they are composed; and of their spoils many philosophers think that a great part of the surface of the earth is composed at present. It is supposed by them that chalks, marles, and all such earths as ferment with vinegar are nothing more than a composition of shells, decayed and crumbled down to one uniform mass.

Sea-shells are either found in the depths of the ocean, or they are cast empty and forsaken of their animals upon shore. Those which are fished from the deep are called by the Latin name "pelagii;" those that are cast upon shore are called "littorales." Many of the pelagii are never seen upon shore; they continue in the depths where they are bred; and we owe their capture only to accident. These, therefore, are the most scarce shells, and consequently the most valuable. The littorales are more frequent, and such as are of the same kind with the pelagii are not so beautiful. As they are often empty and forsaken, and as their animal is dead, and perhaps putrid in the bottom of the shell, they by this means lose the whiteness and the brilliancy of their colouring. They are not unfrequently also found eaten through either by worms or by each other; and they are thus rendered less valuable: but what decreases their price still more is, when they are sealed and worn by lying too long empty at the bottom, or exposed upon the shore. Upon the whole, however, sea-shells exceed either land or fossil shells in beauty; they receive the highest polish, and exhibit the most brilliant and various colouring.

Fresh-water shells are neither so numerous, so various, nor so beautiful as those belonging to the sea. They want that solidity which the others have; their "clavicle," as it is called, is neither so prominent nor so strong; and not having a saline substance to tinge the surface of the shell, the colours are obscure. In fresh water there are but two kinds of shells, namely, the bivalved and the turbinated.

Living land-shells are more beautiful, though not so various as those of fresh-water; and some not inferior to sea-shells in beauty. They are, indeed, but of one kind, namely, the turbinated; but in that there are found four or five very beautiful varieties.

Of fossil, or, as they are called, "extraneous" shells,

found in the bowels of the earth, there are great numbers, and as great variety. In this class there are as many kinds as in the sea itself. There are found the turbinated, the bivalve, and the multivalve kinds; and of all these many at present not to be found even in the ocean. Indeed, the number is so great and the varieties so many, that it was long the opinion of naturalists that they were merely the capricious productions of Nature, and had never given retreat to animals whose habitations they resembled. They were found, not only of various kinds, but in different states of preservation; some had the shell entire, composed, as in its primitive state, of a white calcareous earth, and filled with earth, or even empty; others were found with the shell entire, but filled with a substance which was petrified by time; others, and these in great numbers, were found with the shell entirely mouldered away, but the petrified substance that filled it still exhibiting the figure of the shell; others still, that had been lodged near earth or stone, impressed their print upon these substances, and left the impression though they themselves were decayed: lastly, some shells were found half mouldered away, their parts scaling off from each other in the same order in which they were originally formed. However, these different stages of the shell, and even their fermenting with acids, were at first insufficient to convince those who before had assigned them a different origin. They were still considered as accidentally and sportively formed, and deposited in the various repositories where they were found, but no way appertaining to any part of Animated Nature. This put succeeding inquirers upon more minute researches, and they soon began to find, that often where they dug up petrified shells or teeth they could discover the petrified remains of some other bony parts of the body. They found that the shells which were taken from the earth exhibited the usual defects and mischances, which the same kind are known to receive at sea. They showed them not only tinctured with a salt-water crust, but pierced in a peculiar manner by the sea-worms, that make the shells of fishes their favourite food. These demonstrations were sufficient at last to convince all but a few philosophers who died away, and whose erroneous system died with them.

Every shell, therefore, wherever it is found, is now considered as the spoil of some animal that once found shelter therein. It matters not by what unaccountable means they may have wandered from the sea; but they exhibit all the most certain marks of their origin. From their numbers and situation, we are led to conjecture that the sea reached the places where they are found; and from their varieties we learn how little we know of all the sea contains at present; as the earth furnishes many kinds which our most exact and industrious shell-collectors have not been able to fish up from the deep. It is most probable that thousands of different forms still remain at the bottom unknown; so that we may justly say with the philosopher—"Ea quæ scimus sunt pars minima eorum quæ ignoramus."

It is well, however, for mankind that the defect of our knowledge on this subject is, of all parts of learning, that which may be most easily dispensed with. An increase in the number of shells would throw but very few lights upon the history of the animals that inhabit them. For such information we are obliged to those men who contemplated something more than the outside of the objects before them. To Reaumur we are obliged for examining the manners of some with accuracy; but to Swammerdam for more. In fact, this Dutchman has lent attention to those animals that almost exceeds credibility: he has excelled even the insects he dissected in patience, industry, and perseverance. It was in vain that this poor man's father dissuaded him from what the world considered as a barren pursuit; it was in vain that an habitual disorder, brought on by his application

interrupted his efforts; it was in vain that mankind treated him with ridicule while living, as they suffered his works to remain long unprinted and neglected when dead; still the Dutch philosopher went on, peeping into unwholesome ditches, wading through fens, dissecting spiders, and enumerating the blood-vessels of a snail: like the bee, whose heart he could not only distinguish, but dissect, he seemed instinctively impelled by his ruling passion, although he found nothing but ingratitude from man, and though his industry was apparently becoming fatal to himself. From him I will take some of the leading features in the history of those animals which breed in shells; previously taking my division from Aristotle, who, as was said above, divides them into three classes—the turbinated, or those of the snail kind; the bivalved, or those of the oyster kind; and the multivalved, or those of the acorn-shell kind. Of each I will treat in distinct chapters.

CHAP. V.

OF TURBINATED SHELL-FISH OF THE SNAIL KIND.

To conceive the manner in which these animals subsist that are hidden from us at the bottom of the deep, we must again have recourse to one of a similar nature and formation that we know. The history of the garden-snail has been more copiously considered than that of the elephant, and its anatomy is as well, if not better known; however, not to give any one object more room in the general picture of Nature than it is entitled to, it will be sufficient to observe that the snail is surprisingly fitted for the life it is formed to lead. It is furnished with the organs of life in a manner almost as complete as the largest animal; with a tongue, brain, salival ducts, glands, nerves, stomach, and intestines—liver, heart, and blood-vessels; besides this, it has a purple bag that furnishes a red matter to different parts of the body, together with strong muscles that hold it to the shell, and which are hardened, like tendons, at their insertion.

But these it possesses in common with other animals. We must now see what it has peculiar to itself. The first striking peculiarity is, that the animal has got its eyes on the points of its largest horns. When the snail is in motion four horns are distinctly seen; but the two uppermost and longest deserve peculiar consideration, both on account of the various motions with which they are endued, as well as their having their eyes fixed at the extreme ends of them. These appear like two blackish points at their ends. When considered as taken out of the body, they are of a bulbous or turnip-like figure; they have but one coat; and the three humours which are common in the eyes of other animals—namely, the vitreous, the aqueous, and the crystalline—are in these very indistinctly seen. The eyes the animal can direct to different objects at pleasure, by a regular motion out of the body; and sometimes it hides them by a very swift contraction into the belly. Under the small horns is the animal's mouth; and though it may appear too soft a substance to be furnished with teeth, yet it has not less than eight of them, with which it devours leaves and other substances seemingly harder than itself, and with which it sometimes bites off pieces of its own flesh.

But what is most surprising in the formation of this animal are the parts that serve for generation. Every snail is at once male and female, and while it impregnates another is itself impregnated in turn. The vessels supplying the fluid for this purpose are placed chiefly in the fore part of the neck, and extend themselves over the body; but the male and female organs of generation are always found united, and growing together. There is a large opening on the right side of the neck, which serves for very different purposes. As an anus it gives

a passage to the excrements; as a mouth it serves for an opening for respiration; and also as an organ of generation it dilates when the desire of propagation begins. Within this each animal has those parts, or something similar thereto, which continue the kind.

For some days before coition the snails gather together and lie quite near each other, eating very little in the meantime; but they settle their bodies in such a posture that the neck and head are placed upright. In the meantime, the apertures on the side of the neck being greatly dilated, two organs resembling intestines are seen issuing from them, which some have thought to be the instruments of generation. Beside the protrusion of these, each animal is possessed of another peculiarity; for, from the same aperture they launch forth a kind of dart at each other, which is pretty hard, barbed, and ending in a very sharp point. This is performed when the apertures approach each other, and then the one is seen to shoot its weapon, which is received by the other, though it sometimes falls to the ground; some minutes after, the snail which received the weapon darts one of its own at its antagonist, which is received in like manner. They then softly approach still nearer, and apply their bodies one to the other, as closely as the palms and fingers of the hands when grasped together. At that time the horns are seen variously moving in all directions, and this sometimes for three days together. The coupling of these animals is generally thrice repeated, at intervals of fifteen days each; and at every time a new dart is mutually emitted.

At the expiration of eighteen days the snails produce their eggs at the opening of the neck, and hide them in the earth with the greatest solicitude and industry. These eggs are in great numbers, round, white, and covered with a soft shell; they are also stuck to each other by an imperceptible slime, like a bunch of grapes, of about the size of a small pea.

When the animal leaves the eggs it is seen with a very small shell on its back, which has but one convolution; but in proportion as it grows the shell increases in the number of its circles. The shell always receives its additions at the mouth, the first centre still remaining, the animal sending forth from its body that slime which hardens into a stony substance, and still is fashioned into similar volutions. The garden-snail seldom exceeds four rounds and a half; but some of the sea-snails arrive even at ten.

The snail, thus fitted with its box, which is light and firm, finds itself defended in a very simple manner from all external injury. Whenever it is invaded, it is but retiring into this fortress, and waiting patiently till the danger is over. Nor is it possessed only of a power of retreating into its shell, but of mending it when broken. Sometimes these animals are crushed seemingly to pieces, and, to all appearance, utterly destroyed; yet still they set themselves to work, and in a few days mend all their numerous breaches. The same substance by which the shell is originally made goes to the re-establishment of the ruined habitation. But all the junctures are very easily seen, for they have a fresher colour than the rest, and the whole shell in some measure resembles an old coat patched with new pieces. They are sometimes seen with eight or ten of these patches; so that the damage must have been apparently irreparable. Still, however, though the animal is possessed of the power of mending its shell, it cannot, when come to its full growth, make a new one. Swammerdam tried it: he stripped a snail of its shell without hurting any of the blood-vessels, retaining that part of the shell where the muscles were inserted; but it died in three days after it was stripped of its covering—not, however, without making efforts to build up a new shell; for before its death it pressed out a certain membrane round the whole surface of its body. This membrane was entirely of a shelly nature, and was intended by

the animal as a supply towards establishing a new one.

As the snail is furnished with all the organs of life and sensation, it is not wonderful to see it very voracious. It chiefly subsists upon the leaves of plants and trees, but is very delicate in its choice. When the animal moves to seek its food, it goes forward by means of that broad muscular skin which is sometimes seen projecting round the mouth of the shell; this is expanded before, and then contracted with a kind of undulating motion, like a man attempting to move himself forward by one arm while lying on his belly. But the snail has another advantage, by which it not only smooths and planes its way, but also can ascend in the most perpendicular direction. This is by that slimy substance with which it is so copiously furnished, and which it emits wherever it moves. Upon this slime, as upon a kind of carpet, it proceeds slowly along, without any danger of wounding its tender body against the pavement; by means of this it moves upwards to its food upon trees; and by this descends without danger of falling and breaking its shell by the shock.

The appetite of these animals is very great; and the damage gardeners in particular sustain from them makes them employ every method for their destruction. Salt will destroy them, as well as soot; but a tortoise in a garden is said to banish them much more effectually.

At the approach of winter the snail buries itself in the earth, or retires to some hole to continue in a torpid state during the severity of the season. It is sometimes seen alone, but more frequently in company in its retreat, several being usually found together, apparently deprived of life and sensation. For the purposes of continuing in greater warmth and security, the snail forms a cover or lid to the mouth of its shell with its slime, which stops it up entirely, and thus protects it from every external danger. The matter of which the cover is composed is whitish, somewhat like plaster, pretty hard and solid, yet at the same time porous and thin, to admit air, which the animal cannot live without. When the cover is formed too thick the snail breaks a little hole in it, which corrects the defect of that closeness which proceeded from too much caution. In this manner, sheltered in its hole from the weather, defended in its shell by a cover, it sleeps during the winter, and for six or seven months continues without food or motion, until the genial call of spring breaks its slumber and excites its activity.

The snail, having slept for so long a season, wakes one of the first fine days in April, breaks open its cell, and sallies forth to seek for nourishment. It is not surprising that so long a fast should have thinned it, and rendered it very voracious. At first, therefore, it is not very difficult in the choice of its food; almost any vegetable that is green seems welcome; but the succulent plants of the garden are chiefly grateful; and the various kinds of pulse are, at some seasons, almost wholly destroyed by their numbers. So great is the multiplication of snails in some years, that gardeners imagine they burst from the earth. A wet season is generally favourable to their production; for this animal cannot bear very dry seasons or dry places, as they cause too great consumption of its slime, without plenty of which it cannot subsist in health and vigour.

Such are the most striking particulars in the history of this animal; and this may serve as a general picture, to which the manners and habitudes of the other tribes of this class may be compared and referred. These are the sea-snail, of which naturalists have, from the apparent differences of their shells, mentioned fifteen kinds; the fresh-water snail, of which there are eight kinds; and the land snail, of which there are five. These all bear a strong resemblance to the garden-snail in the formation of their shell, in their hermaphrodite natures, in the slimy substance with which they are covered, in the formation of their intestines, and the disposition

of the hole on the right side of the neck, which serves at once for the discharge of the feces, for the lodging the instruments of generation, and for respiration when the animal is under a necessity of taking in a new supply.

But in Nature no two kinds of animals, however like each other in figure and conformation, are of manners entirely the same. Though the common garden-snail bears a very strong resemblance to that of fresh-water and that of the sea, yet there are differences to be found, and those very considerable ones.

If we compare them with the fresh-water snail, though we shall find a general resemblance, yet there are one or two remarkable distinctions; and, first, the fresh-water snail—and, as I should suppose, all snails that live in water—is peculiarly furnished with a contrivance by Nature for rising to the surface or sinking to the bottom. The manner in which this is performed is by opening and shutting the orifice on the right side of the neck, which is furnished with muscles for that purpose. The snail sometimes gathers this aperture into an oblong tube, and stretches or protends it above the surface of the water, in order to draw in or expel the water as it finds occasion. This may not only be seen, but heard also by the noise which the snail makes in moving the water. By dilating this it rises, by compressing it the animal sinks to the bottom. This is effected somewhat in the manner in which little images of glass are made to rise or sink in the water, by pressing the air contained at the mouth of the tubes so that it shall drive the water into their hollow bodies, which before were filled only with air, and thus make them heavier than the element in which they swim. In this manner does the fresh-water snail dive or swim, by properly managing the air contained in its body.

But what renders these animals far more worthy of notice is, that they are viviparous, and bring forth their young not only alive, but with their shells upon their backs. This seems surprising: yet it is incontestably true! the young come to some degree of perfection in the womb of the parent; there they receive their stony coat; and from thence are excluded with a complete apparatus for subsistence.

"On the twelfth of March," says Swammerdam, "I began my observations upon this snail, and collected a great number of the kind, which I put into a large basin filled with rain water, and fed for a long time with potter's-earth dissolved in the water about them. On the thirteenth of the same month I opened one of these snails, when I found nine living snails in its womb: the largest of these were placed foremost as the first candidates for exclusion. I put them into fresh water, and they lived till the eighteenth of the same month, moving and swimming like snails full grown: nay, their manner of swimming was much more beautiful." Thus, at whatever time of the year these snails are opened they are found pregnant with eggs or with small snails, or with both together.

This striking difference between the fresh-water and the garden-snail obtains also in some of the sea kind; among which there are some that are found viviparous, while others lay eggs in the usual manner. Of this kind are one or two of the buccinums, within which living young have been frequently found upon their dissection. In general, however, the rest of this numerous class bring forth eggs; from whence the animal bursts at a proper state of maturity completely equipped with a house, which the moistness of the element where it resides does not prevent the inhabitant from enlarging. How the soft slime of the snail hardens at the bottom of the sea into the stony substance of a shell is not easy to conceive! This slime must at least be possessed of very powerful petrifying powers.

All animals of the snail kind, as was observed before, are hermaphrodites, each containing the instruments of generation double. But some of the sea kinds copu-

late in a different manner from those of the garden. The one impregnates the other; but, from the position of the parts, is incapable of being impregnated by the same in turn. For this reason it is necessary for a third to be admitted as a partner in this operation: so that, while one impregnates that before it another does the same office by this; which is itself impregnated by a fourth. In this manner, Mr. Adanson has seen vast numbers of sea-snails united together in a chain, impregnating each other. The bulin and the coret perform the offices of male and female at the same time. The orifices in these are two, both separate from each other; the opening by which the animal performs the office of the male being at the origin of the horns—that by which it is passive, as the female, being farther down upon the neck. It may also be observed as a general rule, that all animals that have this orifice, or verge as some call it, on the right side, have their shells turned from the right to the left; on the contrary, those which have it on the left side have their shells turned from left to right, in a contrary direction to the former.

But this is not the only difference between land and sea-snails. Many of the latter entirely want horns; and none of them have above two. Indeed, if the horns of snails be furnished with eyes, and if, as some are willing to think, the length of the horn, like the tube of a telescope, assists vision, these animals that chiefly reside in the gloomy bottom of the deep can have no great occasion for them. Eyes would be unnecessary to creatures whose food is usually concealed in the darkest places; and who, possessed of very little motion, are obliged to grope for what they subsist on. To such, I say, eyes would rather be an obstruction than an advantage; and, perhaps, even those that live upon land are without them.

Those that have seen the shells of sea-snails need not be told that the animal which produces them is larger than those of the same denomination upon land. The sea seems to have the property of enlarging the magnitude of all its inhabitants; and the same proportion that a trout bears to a shark is often seen to obtain between a shell bred upon the land and one bred in the ocean. Its convolutions are more numerous. The garden-snail has but five turns at the most; in the sea-snail the convolutions are sometimes seen amounting to ten.

There is a difference, also, in the position of the mouth in the garden and the water-snail. In the former the mouth is placed crosswise, as in quadrupeds, furnished with jaw-bones, lips, and teeth; in most of the sea-snails the mouth is placed longitudinally in the head, and in some obliquely, or on one side. Others, of the trochus kind, have no mouth whatsoever, but are furnished with a trunk, very long in some kinds and shorter in others.

Snails of the trochus kind, furnished thus with an instrument of offence, deserve our particular attention. The trunk of the trochus is fleshy, muscular, supple, and hollow. Its extremity is bordered with a cartilage, and toothed like a saw. The snails that are provided with this may be considered as the predacious tribe among their fellows of the bottom. They are among snails what the tiger, the eagle, or the shark is among beasts, birds, or fishes. The whole race of shelled animals avoid their approach; for their habitations, however powerfully and strongly built, though never so well fortified, yield to the superior force of these invaders. Though provided with a thick, clumsy shell themselves, yet they move with greater swiftness at the bottom than most other shell-fish, and seize their prey with greater facility. No shell so large but they will boldly venture to attack; and, with their piercing augre-like trunk, will quickly bore it through. No efforts the other animal makes can avail: it expands itself and rises to the surface; but the enemy rises with it: it again sinks to the bottom, but still its destroyer closely adheres. In this

manner the carnivorous shell-fish, as some naturalists call it, sticks for several days, nay weeks, to its prey, until, with its trunk, it has sucked out all substance, or until it drops off when the other begins to putrefy.

Thus it would seem throughout Nature that no animal is so well defended but that others are found capable of breaking in upon its entrenchments. The garden-snail seems tolerably well guarded; but the wall of its flesh is paper itself in comparison with that which fortifies some of the sea-snail kind. Beside this thick shell, many of them are also furnished with a lid, which covers the mouth of the shell, and which opens and shuts at the animal's pleasure. When the creature hunts for food it opens its box, gropes or swims about, and, when satisfied, drops its lid and sinks to the bottom: there it might be supposed to remain in perfect security; but the trochus soon finds the way to break into the thickest part of its enclosure, and quickly destroys it with the most fatal industry.

The being liable to the attacks of the trochus seems to be a calamity to which most of this tribe are subject. Scarce a shell is met with entire and sound to the end of its convolutions; but particularly the thinnest shells are the most subject to be thus invaded. As their shells are easily pierced, the predatory shell-fish or the sea-worm chiefly seek them for subsistence; and of those thin, paper-like shells, not one in a hundred is found that has not suffered some disaster. As they are lighter than other shell-fish they swim with greater ease; and this is the chief method of avoiding their heavier thick-shelled pursuers. The food of all snails properly lies at the bottom; when, therefore, the nautilus or other thin-shelled fish are seen busily swimming at the surface, it may be that, instead of sporting or sunning themselves, as some are apt to suppose, they are actually labouring to escape their most deadly pursuers.

Of all sea-snails, that which is most frequently seen swimming upon the surface, and whose shell is the thinnest and most easily pierced, is the nautilus. Whether upon these occasions it is employed in escaping its numerous enemies at the bottom or seeking for food at the surface I will not venture to decide. It seems most probable that the former is the cause of its frequently appearing; for upon opening the stomach it is found to contain chiefly that food which it finds at the bottom. This animal's industry, therefore, may be owing to its fears; and all those arts of sailing which it has taught mankind may have been originally the product of necessity. But the nautilus is too famous not to demand a more ample description. Although there are several species of the nautilus, yet they all may be divided into two—the one with a white shell, as thin as paper, which it is often seen to quit, and again to resume; the other with a thicker shell, sometimes of a beautiful mother-of-pearl colour, and which quits its shell but rarely. This shell outwardly resembles that of a large snail, but is generally six or eight inches across; within it is divided into forty partitions, that communicate with each other by doors, if I may so call them, through which one could not thrust a goose-quill; almost the whole internal part of the shell is filled by the animal, the body of which, like its habitation, is divided into as many parts as there are chambers in its shell; all the parts of its body communicate with each other through the doors or openings by a long blood-vessel, which runs from the head to the tail: thus the body of the animal if taken out of the shell may be likened to a number of soft bits of flesh, of which there are forty threaded upon a string. From this extraordinary conformation one would not be apt to suppose that the nautilus sometimes quitted its shell and returned to it again; yet nothing, though seemingly impossible, is more certain. The manner by which it contrives to disengage every part of its body from so intricate a habitation—by which it makes a substance to appear

ance as thick as one's wrist pass through forty doors, each of which would scarcely admit a goose-quill—is not yet discovered; but the fact is certain; for the animal is often found without its shell, and the shell more frequently destitute of the animal. It is most probable that it has a power of making a substance of one section of its body to remove up into that which is next; and thus by multiplied removals it gets free.

But this, though very strange, is not the peculiarity for which the nautilus has been the most distinguished. Its "spreading the thin oar" and "catching the flying-gale," to use the poet's description of it, has chiefly excited human curiosity. These animals, particularly those of the white, light kind, are chiefly found in the Mediterranean; and scarce any one who has sailed on that sea but must often have seen them. When the sea is calm they are observed floating on the surface—some spreading their little sail, some rowing with their feet as if for life and death, and others still floating upon their mouths like a ship with the keel upward. If taken while thus employed and examined, the extraordinary mechanism of their limbs for sailing will appear more manifest. The nautilus is furnished with eight feet, which issue near the mouth, and may as properly be called barbs: these are connected to each other by a thin skin like that between the toes of a duck, but much thinner and more transparent. Of these eight feet thus connected six are short, which are held up as sails to catch the wind in sailing; the two others are longer, and are kept in the water, serving like paddles to steer their course by. When the weather is quite calm, and the animal is pursued from below, it is then seen expanding only a part of its sail and rowing with the rest; whenever it is interrupted or fears danger from above, it instantly furls the sail, catches in all its oars, turns its shell-mouth downward, and instantly sinks to the bottom. Sometimes it is seen pumping the water from its leaking bulk; and when unfit for sailing it deserts its shell entirely. The forsaken hulk is seen floating along, till it dashes, by a kind of shipwreck, upon the rocks or the shore.

From the above description, I think we may consider this animal rather as attempting to save itself from the attacks of its destroyers than as rowing in pursuit of food. Certain it is, that no creature of the deep has more numerous and more powerful enemies. Its shell is scarcely ever found in perfect preservation; but is generally seen to bear some marks of hostile invasion. Its little arts, therefore, upon the surface of the water may have been given it for protection, that it may, thus endued with comparative swiftness, avoid the crab, the sea-scorpion, the trochus, and all the slower predacious reptiles that lurk for it at the bottom of the water.

From this general view of snails, they appear to be a much more active, animated tribe than from their figure one would at first conceive. They seem to an inattentive spectator as mere inert masses of soft flesh, rather loaded than covered with a shell, scarcely capable of motion, and insensible to all the objects around them. When viewed more closely, they are found to be endowed with the organs of life and sensation in a tolerable perfection; they are defended with armour, that is at once both light and strong; they are as active as their necessities require; and are possessed of appetites more poignant than those of animals that seem much more perfectly formed. In short, they are a fruitful, industrious tribe, furnished, like all other animals, with the powers of escape and invasion; they have their pursuits and enmities; and of all creatures of the deep they have most to fear from each other.



CHAP. VI.

OF BIVALVED SHELL-FISH, OR SHELLS OF THE OYSTER KIND.

It may seem whimsical to make a distinction between the animal perfections of turbinated and bivalved shell-fish, or to grant a degree of superiority to the snail above the oyster. Yet this distinction strongly and apparently obtains in Nature; and we shall find the bivalved tribe of animals in every respect inferior to those we have been describing,—inferior in all their sensations—inferior in their powers of motion—but particularly inferior in their system of animal generation. The snail tribe, as we have seen, are hermaphrodite, but require the assistance of each other for fecundation; all the bivalve tribe are hermaphrodite in like manner, but they require no assistance from each other towards impregnation; and a single muscle or oyster, if there were no other in the world, would quickly replenish the ocean. As the land-snail, from its being best known, took the lead in the former class, so the fresh-water muscle for the same reason may take the lead in this. The life and manners of such as belong to the sea will be best displayed in the comparison.

The muscle, as is well known, whether belonging to fresh or salt water, consists of two equal shells, joined at the back by a strong, muscular ligament that answers all the purposes of a hinge. By the elastic contraction of these the animal can open its shells at pleasure about a quarter of an inch from each other. The fish is fixed to either shell by four tendons, by means of which it shuts them close, and keeps its body from being crushed by any shock against the walls of its own habitation. It is furnished, like all other animals of this kind, with vital organs, though these are situated in a very extraordinary manner. It has a mouth furnished with two fleshy lips; its intestine begins at the bottom of the mouth, passes through the brain, and makes a number of circumvolutions through the liver; on leaving this organ it goes on straight into the heart, which it penetrates and ends in the anus, near which the lungs are placed, and through which it breathes, like those of the snail kind; and in this manner its languid circulation is carried on.

But the organs of generation are what most deserve to excite our curiosity. These consist in each muscle of two ovaries, which are the female part of its furniture, and of two seminal vessels, resembling what are found in the male. Each ovary and each seminal vessel has its own proper canal; by the ovary canal the eggs descend to the anus; and there, also, the seminal-canals send their fluids to impregnate them. By this contrivance one single animal suffices for the double purposes of generation; and the eggs are excluded and impregnated by itself alone.

As the muscle is thus furnished with a kind of self-creating power, there are few places where it breeds that it is not found in great abundance. The ovaries usually empty themselves of their eggs in spring, and they are replenished in autumn. For this reason they are found empty in summer and full in winter. They produce in great numbers, as all bivalved shell-fish are found to do. The fecundity of the snail kind is trifling in comparison to the fertility of these. Indeed, it may be asserted as a general rule in Nature, that the more helpless and contemptible the animal the more prolific it is always found. Thus all creatures that are incapable of resisting their destroyers have nothing but their quick multiplication for the continuation of their existence.

The multitude of these animals in some places is very great; but from their defenceless state the number of their destroyers are in equal proportion. The crab, the cray-fish, and many other animals are seen to devour them; but the trochus is their most formidable enemy.

When their shells are found deserted, if we then observe closely, it is most probable we shall find that the trochus has been at work in piercing them. There is scarce one of them without a hole in it; and this probably was the avenue by which the enemy entered to destroy the inhabitant.

But notwithstanding the number of this creature's animated enemies, it seems still more fearful of the agitations of the element in which it resides; for if dashed against rocks, or thrown far on the beach, it is destroyed without a power of redress. In order to guard against these, which are to this animal the commonest and the most fatal accidents, although it has a power of slow motion, which I shall presently describe, yet it endeavours to become stationary, and to attach itself to any fixed object it happens to be near. For this purpose it is furnished with a very singular capacity of binding itself by a number of threads to whatever object it approaches; and these Reaumur supposed it spun artificially, as spiders their webs which they fasten against a wall. Of this, however, later philosophers have found very great reason to doubt. It is therefore supposed that these threads, which are usually called the beard of the muscle, are the natural growth of the animal's body, and by no means produced at pleasure. Indeed, the extreme length of this beard in some, which far exceeds the length of the body, seems impossible to be manufactured by the thrusting out and drawing in of the tongue, with the glutinous matter of which the French philosopher supposed those threads were formed. It is even found to increase with the growth of the animal; and as the muscle becomes larger and older, the beard becomes longer and its filaments more strong. Be this as it will, nothing is more certain than that the muscle is found attached by these threads to every fixed object; sometimes, indeed, for want of such an object, these animals are found united to each other; and though thrown into a lake separately, they are taken out in bunches of many together.

To have some fixed resting-place where the muscle can continue and take in its accidental food seems the state that this animal chiefly desires. Its instrument of motion, by which it contrives to reach the object it wants to bind itself, to, is that muscular substance resembling a tongue, which is found long in proportion to the size of the muscle. In some it is two inches long, in others not a third part of these dimensions. This the animal has a power of thrusting out of its shell; and with this it is capable of making a slight furrow in the sand at the bottom. By means of this furrow it can erect itself upon the edge of its shell; and thus continuing to make the furrow in proportion as it goes forward, it reaches out its tongue, which answers the purpose of an arm, and thus carries its shell edge-ways, as in a groove, until it reaches the point intended. There, where it determines to take up its residence, it fixes the ends of its beard, which are glutinous, to the rock or the object, whatever it be; and thus, like a ship at anchor, braves all the agitations of the water. Sometimes the animal is attached by a large number of threads; sometimes but by three or four, that seem scarce able to retain it. When the muscle is fixed in this manner it lives upon the little earthy particles that the water transports to it shells, and perhaps the flesh of the most diminutive animals. However, it does not fail to grow considerably; and some of this kind have been found a foot long. I have seen the beards a foot and a half; and of this substance the natives of Palermo sometimes make gloves and stockings.

These shell-fish are found in lakes, rivers, and in the sea. Those of the lake often grow to a very large size; but they seem a solitary animal, and are found generally separate from each other. Those of rivers are not so large, but yet in greater abundance; but the sea-muscle of all others is perhaps the most plentiful. These

are often bred artificially in salt-water marshes that are overflowed by the tide: the fishermen throwing them in at the proper seasons, and there being undisturbed by the agitations of the sea, and not preyed upon by their powerful enemies at the bottom, they cast their eggs, which soon become perfect animals, and these are generally found in clusters of several dozens together. It requires a year for the peopling a muscle-bed; so that if the number consists of forty thousand, a tenth part may annually be left for the peopling the bed anew. Muscles are taken from their beds from the month of July to October; and they are sold at a very moderate price.

From this animal the oyster differs very little, except in the thickness of its shell and its greater imbecility. The oyster, like the muscle, is formed with organs of life and respiration, with intestines which are very voluminous, a liver, lungs, and heart. Like the muscle, it is self-impregnated; and the shell, which the animal soon acquires, serves it for its future habitation. Like the muscle, it opens its shell to receive the influx of water; and like that animal is strongly attached to its shells both above and below.

But it differs in many particulars. In the first place its shells are not equal, the one being cupped, the other flat; upon the cupped shell it is always seen to rest; for if it lay upon the flat side it would then loose all its water. It differs also in the thickness of its shells, which are so strongly lined and defended that no animal will attempt to pierce them. But though the oyster be secured from the attacks of the small reptiles at the bottom, yet it often serves as an object to which they are attached. Pipe-worms and other little animals fix their habitation to the oyster's sides, and in this manner continue to live in security. Among the number of these is a little red worm, that is often found upon the shell; which some, from never seeing oysters copulate, erroneously supposed to be the male by which their spawn was impregnated.

The oyster differs also from the muscle in being utterly unable to change its situation. The muscle, as we have observed, is capable of erecting itself on an edge, and going forward with a slow laborious motion. The oyster is wholly passive, and endeavours by all its powers to rest fixed to one spot at the bottom. It is entirely without that tongue which we saw answering the purposes of an arm in the other animal, but nevertheless is often attached very firmly to any object it happens to approach. Rocks, stones, pieces of timber, or sea-weeds, all seem proper to give it a fixture, and to secure it against the agitation of the waves. Nothing so common in the rivers of the tropical climates as to see oysters growing even amidst the branches of the forest. Many trees which grow along the banks of the stream often bend their branches into the water, and particularly the mangrove, which chiefly delights in a moist situation. To these the oysters hang in clusters, like apples upon the most fertile tree; and in proportion as the weight of fish sinks the plant into the water, where it still continues growing, the number of oysters increase and hang upon the branches. Thus there is nothing that these shell-fish will not stick to; they are often even found to stick to each other. This is effected by means of a glue proper to themselves, which, when it cements, the joining is as hard as the shell, and is as difficultly broke. The joining substance, however, is not always of glue; but the animal grows to the rocks, somewhat like the muscle, by threads; although these are only seen to take root in the shell, and not, as in the muscle, to spring from the body of the fish itself.

Oysters usually cast their spawn in May, which at first appear like drops of candle-grease, and stick to any hard substance they fall upon. These are covered with a shell in two or three days; and in three years the animal is large enough to be brought to market. As they

invariably remain in the place where they are laid, and as they grow without any seeming food than the afflux of sea water, it is the custom at Colchester, and other parts of the kingdom where the tide settles in marshes on land, to pick up great quantities of small oysters along the shore, which when first gathered seldom exceed the size of a sixpence. These are deposited in beds where the tide comes in, and in two or three years grow to a tolerable size. They are said to be better tasted for being thus sheltered from the agitations of the deep; and a mixture of fresh water entering into these repositories is said to improve their flavour and increase their growth and fatness.

The oysters, however, which are prepared in this manner are by no means so large as those found sticking to rocks at the bottom of the sea, usually called "rock oysters." These are sometimes found as broad as a plate, and are admired by some as excellent food. But what is the size of these compared to the oysters of the East Indies, some of whose shells I have seen two feet over! The oysters found along the coast of Coromandel are capable of furnishing a plentiful meal to eight or ten men; but it seems universally agreed that they are no way comparable to ours for delicacy or flavour.

Thus the muscle and the oyster appear to have but few distinctions except in their shape and the power of motion in the former. Other bivalved shell-fish, such as the cockle, the scallop, and the razor-shell, have differences equally minute. The power of changing place, which some of them effect in a manner quite peculiar to themselves, makes their greatest difference. The scallop is particularly remarkable for its method of moving forward upon land, or swimming upon the surface of the water. When this animal finds itself deserted by the tide, it makes very remarkable efforts to regain the water, moving towards the sea in a most singular manner. It first gapes with its shell as widely as it can, the edges being often an inch asunder; then it shuts them with a jerk, and by this the whole animal rises five or six inches from the ground. It thus tumbles forward, and then renews the operation until it has attained its journey's end. When in the water it is capable of supporting itself upon the surface; and there, opening and shutting its shells, it tumbles over and over, and makes its way with some celerity.

The pivot or razor-shell has a very different kind of motion. As the former moves laboriously and slowly forward, so the razor-shell has only a power of sinking point downward. The shells of this animal resemble nothing so much as the haft of a razor; and by this form it is better enabled to dive into the soft sand at the bottom. All the motions of this little animal are confined to sinking or rising a foot downwards or upwards in the sand, for it never leaves the spot where first it was planted. From time to time it is seen to rise about half way out of its hole; but if any way disturbed it sinks perpendicularly down again. Just over the place where the razor buries itself there is a small hole like a chimney, through which the animal breathes or imbibes the sea-water. Upon the desertion of the tide these holes are easily distinguished by the fishermen who seek for it; and their method of enticing the razor up from the depths of its retreat is by sprinkling a little sea-salt upon the hole. This melting no sooner reaches the razor below than it rises instantly straight upwards, and shows about half its length above the surface. This appearance, however, is instantaneous; and if the fisher does not seize the opportunity, the razor buries itself with great ease to its former depth. There it continues secure; no salt can allure it a second time; but it remains unmolested, unless the fisher will be at the trouble of digging it out sometimes two feet below the surface.

Such are the minute differences between bivalved shell-fish; but in the great outlines of their nature they exactly resemble each other. It is particularly in this

class of shell-fish that pearls are found in great abundance; and it is in the internal parts of those shells that are of a shining silvery colour that these gems are usually generated: but the pearl is also found to breed as well in the muscle or the scallop as in the oyster. In fact, it is found in all bivalved shells the insides of which resemble that well-known substance called the mother-of-pearl.

Whether pearls be a disease or an accident in the animal is scarcely worthy inquiry. The common opinion is, that they are a kind of calculus concretion in the body of the animal, somewhat resembling the stone in the bladder, and are consequently to be considered as a disorder. It is said, in confirmation of this opinion, that those coasts upon which pearls are fished are very unhealthy; and therefore most probably oysters share the general influence of the climate; it is also added that those oysters in which pearls are found are always ill-tasted, which is a sign of their being unsound; and lastly, it is asserted that the pearl grows sometimes so big as to keep the shells of the animal from shutting, and that thus it dies by being exposed. It is easy to see the weakness of these assertions, which seem neither true nor amusing. To answer them in their own way—If a stone in the bladder be a disorder, a stone in the stomach of an ostrich is a benefit, and so it may be in the shell of an oyster. If the shores where the pearls are fished be unwholesome to man, that, instead of being disadvantageous, is so much the more lucky for the oyster. If the pearl oysters are the worst tasted, so are kites and ravens among birds; and yet we know that they are healthy and long-lived animals; if the oyster had ever its shell kept asunder by the pearl within it that would be a disease indeed: but this, in reality, never happens; for the oyster that breeds a large pearl always breeds a large shell, and the shell itself indents to receive its impression. The pearl upon the whole seems bred from no disorder in the animal, but is accidentally produced by the same matter that goes to form the shell. The substance, which is soft at first, quickly hardens; and thus, by excessive coats, layer over layer, the pearl acquires its dimensions. If cut through it will be found to consist of several coats, like an onion; and sometimes a small speck is seen in the middle, upon which the coats were originally formed.

All oysters and most shell-fish are found to contain pearls; but that which particularly obtains the name of the pearl oyster has a large, strong, whiteish shell, wrinkled and rough without, and within smooth and of a silver colour. From these the mother-of-pearl is taken, which is nothing more than the internal coats of the shell, resembling the pearl in colour and consistence. This is taken out and shaped into the variety of utensils which are found so beautiful; but the pearl itself is chiefly prized; being found but in few oysters, and generally adhering, sometimes making a print in the body of the shell, sometimes at large within the substance of the fish.

There are a great number of pearl fisheries in America and Asia; but as pearls bear a worse price than formerly, those of America are in a great measure discontinued. The most famous of all the Asiatic fisheries is the Persian Gulph, near the Isle of Bahren. There is another between the coast of Medura and the Island of Ceylon; and there was a third on the coasts of Japan: but as these noble islanders have a contempt for jewels, and an abhorrence of such Europeans as come in pursuit of them, that fishery which is thought to be the most valuable of all others is discontinued. The diving business is now carried on only in those countries where the wretchedness of one part of mankind goes to support the magnificence of the other.

The chief fishery, as was said, is carried on in the Persian Gulph, and the most valuable pearls are brought from thence. The value of these jewels

increases not only in proportion to their size, but also their figure and colour: for some pearls are white, others are yellowish, others of a lead colour; and some affirm that they have been found as black as jet. What it is that gives these different tinctures to pearls is not known; Taverner ascribes it to their lying two or three weeks upon shore after the oyster is taken; Reaumur thinks it proceeds from the colour of that part of the fish's body upon which the pearl lies. It is most probable that this colour proceeds, like the spots frequently found on the internal surface of the shell itself, from some accident while the pearl is growing.

The best coloured pearls and the roundest are brought from the East; those from America are neither so white nor so exactly oval. All pearls, however, in time become yellow; they may be considered as an animal substance converted into a stony hardness, and, like ivory, taking a tincture from the air. They have been found to decay when in damp or vaulted places, and to moulder into a substance scarce harder than chalk. When the daughters of Stilicon, who were both betrothed, one after the other, to the emperor Honorius, were buried, much of their finery was also deposited with them in the same tomb. In this manner they remained buried for above eleven hundred years, till the foundations of the church of St. Peter were laying. Their tomb was then discovered, and all their finery was found in tolerable preservation except the pearls, which were converted by time and damps into a chalky powder.

The wretched people that are destined to fish for pearls are either Negroes or some of the poorest of the natives of Persia. The inhabitants of this country are divided into tyrants and slaves. The divers are not only subject to the dangers of the deep, to tempests, to suffocation at the bottom, to being devoured by sharks, but from their profession universally labour under a spitting of blood, occasioned by a pressure of air upon their lungs in going down to the bottom. The most robust and healthy young men are chosen for this employment, but they seldom survive it above five or six years. Their fibres become rigid; their eye-balls turn red; and they usually die consumptive.

It is amazing how very long they are seen to continue at the bottom. Some, as we are assured, have been known to continue three quarters of an hour under water without breathing; and to one unused to diving, ten minutes would suffocate the strongest. Whether from some effort the blood bursts the old passage which it had in the fœtus, and circulates without going through the lungs, it is not easy to tell; but certain it is that some bodies have been dissected with this canal of communication open, and these extraordinary divers may be internally formed in that manner.

Be this as it may, no way of life seems so laborious, so dangerous, or so painful. They fish for pearls, or rather the oysters that contain them, in boats twenty-eight feet long; and of these there are sometimes three or four hundred at a time, with each seven or eight stones, which serve for anchors. There are from five to eight divers belonging to each, that dive one after another. They are quite naked, except that they have a net hanging down from the neck to put their oysters in, and gloves on their hands to defend them while they pick the oysters from the holes in the rocks; for in this manner alone can they be gathered. Every diver is sunk by means of a stone, weighing fifty pounds, tied to the rope by which he descends. He places his foot in a kind of stirrup, and laying hold of the rope with his left hand, with his right he stops his nose to keep in his breath, as upon going down he takes in a long inspiration. They are no sooner come to the bottom but they give the signal to those who are in the boat to draw up the stone; which done, they go to work, filling their net as fast as they can; and then giving another signal, the boats above pull up the net loaded with oysters, and

shortly after the diver himself, to take a new inspiration. They dive to the depth of fifteen fathoms, and seldom go deeper. They generally go every morning by break of day to this fatiguing employment, taking the land-wind to waft them out to sea, and returning with the sea-breeze at night. The owners of the boats usually hire the divers and the rest of the boat's crew, as we do our labourers, at so much a day. All the oysters are brought on shore, where they are laid in a great heap till the pearl fishery is over, which continues during the months of November and December. When opportunity serves they then examine every oyster, and it is accidental whether the capture turns out advantageous. Indeed, no human being can wish well to a commerce which thus chains such a number of fellow-creatures to the bottom, to pluck up a glittering, mouldering pebble.

CHAP. VII.

OF MULTIVALVE SHELL-FISH.

Multivalve shell-fish may be considered as animals shut up in round boxes. To view their habitations externally one would be little apt to consider them as the retreats of living creatures; and still less to suppose that some of them carry their boxes with a tolerable share of swiftness, so as to escape their pursuers. Of these there are principally two kinds—such as move and such as are stationary; the first are usually known in our cabinets by the name of sea-eggs; the others are as often admired from the cavities which they scoop out for their habitation in the hardest marble. The first are called by naturalists echini, or urchins; the latter are called pholades, or file-fish. Of both there are several sorts; but by describing these two we shall have a competent idea of all the rest.

On a slight view, the sea-urchin may be compared to the husk of a chesnut; being, like it, round, and with a number of bony prickles standing out on every side. To exhibit this extraordinary animal in every light—If we could conceive a turnip stuck full of pins on every side, and running upon these pins with some degree of swiftness, we should have some idea of this extraordinary creature. The mouth is placed downwards—the vent is above—the shell is a hollow vase, resembling a scooped apple, and this filled with a soft muscular substance, through which the intestines wind from the bottom to the top. The mouth, which is placed undermost, is large and red, furnished with five sharp teeth, which are easily discerned. The jaws are strengthened by five small bones, in the centre of which is a small fleshy tongue; and from this the intestines make a winding of five spires round the internal sides of the shell, ending at the top, where the excrements are excluded. But what makes the most extraordinary part of this animal's conformation are its horns and its spines, that point from every part of the body like the horns of a snail, and that serve at once as legs to move upon, as arms to feel with, and as instruments of capture and defence. Between these horns it has also spines that are not ended with such a share of motion. The spines and the horns issue from every part of the body—the spines being hard and prickly; the horns being soft, longer than the spines, and never seen except in the water. They are put forward and withdrawn like the horns of a snail, and are hid at the bases of the spines, serving, as was said before, for procuring food and motion. All this apparatus, however, is only seen when the animal is hunting its prey at the bottom of the water; for a few minutes after it is taken all the horns are withdrawn into the body, and most of the spines drop off.

It is generally said of insects that those which have the greatest number of legs always move the slowest;

but this animal seems to be an exception to the rule; for though furnished with two thousand spines and twelve hundred horns, all serving for legs, and from their number seeming to impede each other's motion, yet it runs with some share of swiftness at the bottom, and it is sometimes no easy matter to overtake it. It is often taken upon the ebb by following it in shallow water, either in an ozier basket or simply with the hand. Both the spines and the horns assist its motion; and the animal is usually seen running with the mouth downward.

Some kinds of this animal are as good eating as the lobster; and its eggs, which are of a deep red, are considered as a very great delicacy. But of others the taste is but indifferent; and in all places except the Mediterranean, they are little sought for except as objects of curiosity.

Very different in motion, though not much different in shape from these, are the acorn shell-fish, the thumb-footed shell-fish, and the imaginary bornacle. These are fixed to one spot, and appear to vegetate from a stalk. Indeed, to an inattentive spectator each actually seems to be a kind of fungus that grows in the deep, destitute of animal life as well as motion. But the inquirer will soon change his opinion when he comes to observe the mushroom-like figure more minutely. He will then see that the animal residing within the shell has not only life, but some degree of voraciousness; that it has a cover by which it opens and shuts its shell at pleasure; that it has twelve long crooked arms, furnished with hair, which it thrusts forth for its prey; and eight smaller ones, which are generally kept in the shell. These are seen adhering to every substance that is to be met with in the ocean—rocks, roots of trees, ships' bottoms, whales, lobsters, and even crabs, like bunches of grapes clung to each other. It is amusing enough to behold their operations. They for some time remain motionless within their shell; but when the sea is calm they are seen opening the lid and peeping about them. They then thrust out their long neck, look round them for some time, and then abruptly retreat back into their box, shut their lid, and lurk in darkness and security. Some people eat them; but they are in no great repute at the tables of the luxurious, where their deformed figure would be no objection to their being introduced.

Of all animals of the shelly tribe the pholades are the most wonderful. From their great powers of penetration compared with their apparent imbecility, they justly excite the astonishment of the curious observer. These animals are found in different places; sometimes clothed in their proper shell at the bottom of the water, sometimes concealed in lumps of marly earth, and sometimes lodged, shell and all, in the body of the hardest marble. In their proper shell they assume different figures; but in general they somewhat resemble a muscle, except that their shell is found actually composed of five or more pieces, the smaller valves serving to close up the opening left by the irregular meeting of two principal shells. But their penetration into rocks, and their residence there, make up the most wonderful part of their history.

This animal when divested of its shell resembles a roundish soft pudding, with no instrument that seems in the least fitted for boring into stones, or even penetrating the softest substances. It is furnished with two teeth, indeed, but these are placed in such a situation as to be incapable of touching the hollow surface of its stony dwelling: it has also two covers to its shell, that open and shut at either end; but these are totally unserviceable to it as a miner. The instrument with which it performs all its operations and buries itself in the hardest rocks is only a broad fleshy substance, somewhat resembling a tongue, that is seen issuing from the bottom of its shell. With this soft, yielding instrument it perforates the most solid marbles; and having, while yet little and young, made its way by a very nar-

row entrance into the substance of the stone, it then begins to grow bigger, and thus to enlarge its apartment.

The seeming unfitness, however, of this animal for penetrating into rocks, and there forming a habitation, has induced many philosophers to suppose that they entered the rock while it was yet in a soft state, and from the petrifying quality of the water that the whole rock afterwards hardened round them by degrees. Thus any penetrating quality, it was thought, was unjustly ascribed them, as they only bored into a soft substance that was hardened by time. This opinion, however, has been confuted in a very satisfactory manner by Doctor Bohads, who observed that many of the pillars of the temple of Serapis, at Puteoli, were penetrated by these animals. From thence he very justly concludes that the pholades must have pierced into them since they were erected; for no workmen would have laboured a pillar into form if it had been honey-combed by worms in the quarry. In short, there can be no doubt but that the pillars were perfectly sound when erected; and that the pholades have attacked them during that time in which they continued buried under water, by means of the earthquake that swallowed up the city.

From hence it appears that in all Nature there is not a greater instance of perseverance and patience than what this animal is seen to exhibit. Furnished with the bluntest and softest augre, by slow, successive applications it effects what other animals are incapable of performing by force—penetrating the hardest bodies only with its tongue. When, while yet naked and very small, it has effected an entrance, and has buried its body in the stone, it there continues for life at its ease, the sea-water that enters at the little aperture supplying it with luxurious plenty. When the animal has taken too great a quantity of water it is seen to spurt it out of its hole with some violence. Upon this seemingly thin diet it quickly grows larger, and soon finds itself under a necessity of enlarging its habitation and its shell. The motion of the pholades is slow beyond conception; its progress keeps pace with the growth of its body; and, in proportion as it becomes larger, it makes its way into the rock. When it has got a certain way in, it then turns from its former direction and hollows downward; till at last, when its habitation is completed, the whole apartment resembles the bole of a tobacco pipe; the hole in the shank being that by which the animal entered.

Thus immured, the pholades lives in darkness, indolence, and plenty; it never removes from the narrow mansion into which it has penetrated, and seems perfectly content with being enclosed in its own sepulchre. The influx of the sea-water that enters by its little gallery satisfies all its wants; and, without any food, it is found to grow from seven to eight inches long, and thick in proportion.

But they are not supplied only with their rocky habitation; they have also a shell to protect them: this shell grows upon them in the body of the rock, and seems a very unnecessary addition to their defence, which they have procured themselves by art. These shells take different forms, and are often composed of a different number of valves—sometimes six, sometimes but three; sometimes the shell resembles a tube with holes at either end, one for the mouth and the other for voiding the excrements.

Yet the pholades thus shut up is not so solitary an animal as it would at first appear; for though it is immured in its hole without egress, though it is impossible for the animal, grown to a great size, to get out by the way it entered, yet many of this kind often meet in the heart of the rock, and, like miners in a siege, who sometimes cross each other's galleries, they frequently break in upon each other's retreats. Whether their thus meeting be the work of accident or of choice few can take upon them to determine; certain it is they are most

commonly found in numbers in the same rock; and sometimes above twenty are discovered at a time.

As to the rest, this animal is found in greatest numbers at Ancona, in Italy; it is found along the shores

of Normandy and Poitou, in France; it is also found upon some of the coasts of Scotland; and in general is considered as a very great delicacy at the tables of the luxurious.



PART VI.

OF FROGS, LIZARDS, AND SERPENTS.

BOOK I.—CHAP. I.

OF FROGS AND TOADS IN GENERAL.

If we emerge from the deep, the first and most obvious class of amphibious animals that occur upon land are frogs and toads. These, wherever they reside, seem equally adapted for living upon land and in the water, having their hearts formed in such a manner as to dispense with the assistance of the lungs in carrying on the circulation. The frog and the toad, therefore, can live several days under water without any danger of suffocation; they want but little air at the bottom; and what is wanted is supplied by lungs, like bladders, which are generally distended with wind, and answer all the purposes of a reservoir from whence to breathe.

To describe the form of animals so well known would be superfluous—to mark those differences that distinguish them from each may be necessary. The frog moves by leaping—the toad crawls along the ground; the frog is in general less than the toad, its colour is brighter, and with a more polished surface—the toad is brown, rough, and dusky; the frog is light and active, and its belly comparatively small—the toad is slow, swoln, and incapable of escaping; the frog, when taken, contracts itself so as to have a lump on its back—the toad's back is straight and even. Their internal parts are nearly the same, except that the lungs of the toad are more compact than those of the frog; they have air-bladders, and of consequence the animal is less fitted for living under water. Such are the differences with respect to figure and conformation; their habits and manners exhibit a greater variety, and require a separate description.

CHAP. II.

OF THE FROG AND ITS VARIETIES.

The external figure of the frog is too well known to need a description. Its power of taking large leaps is remarkably great compared to the bulk of its body. It is the best swimmer of all four-footed animals; and Nature has finely adapted its parts for those ends—the arms being light and active, the legs and thighs long, and furnished with very strong muscles.

If we examine this animal internally, we shall find that it has a very little brain for its size; a very wide swallow; a stomach exceedingly small, but capable of great distension. The heart in the frog, as in all

other animals that are truly amphibious, has but one ventricle; so that the blood can circulate without the assistance of the lungs while it keeps under water. The lungs resemble a number of small bladders joined together, like the cells of a honeycomb; they are connected to the back by tendons, and can be distended or exhausted at the animal's pleasure. The male has two testiculi lying near the kidneys; and the female has two ovaries lying near the same place; but neither male nor female have any of the external instruments of generation, the anus serving for that purpose in both. Such are the most striking peculiarities in the anatomy of a frog; and in these it agrees with the toad, the lizard, and the serpent. They are all formed internally pretty much in the same manner, with spongy lungs, a simple heart, and are destitute of the external instruments that serve to continue the kind.

Of all those who have given histories of the frog, Mr. Ræssel, of Nuremberg, seems the most accurate and entertaining. His assiduity and skilfulness in observing its manners are still more deserving of our esteem. Instead, therefore, of following any other, I will take him for my guide; and there will be some merit in transcribing his history.

The common brown frog begins to couple early in the season, and as soon as the ice is thawed from the stagnating waters. In some places the cold protracts their genial appetite till April; but it generally begins about the month of March. The male is usually of a greyish-brown colour; the female is more inclining to yellow, speckled with brown. When they couple the colours of both are nearly alike on the back; but as they change their skins almost every eighth day, the old one falling off in the form of mucus, the male grows yellower and the female more brown. In the males, the arms and legs are much stronger than in the females; and at the time of coupling they have upon their thumbs a kind of fleshy excrescence, which they fix firmly to the breast of the female. This Linnæus supposed to be the male instrument of generation; but, by closer inspection, it is found only of service in holding the female in a more strict embrace. It may be cut off, and the impregnation continue unimpaired; it is sometimes found in the opposite sex, and some of the males are found entirely without it; however, when it is cut off the male cannot hold the female so strongly as before.

The sex couple only once a year; and then continue united sometimes for four days together. At this time they have both their bellies greatly swoln—that of the female being filled with eggs, the male having the skin of the whole body distended with a limpid water, which is ejected in impregnation. As soon as the male has

leaped upon the female, he throws his fore-legs round her breast, and closes them so firmly that it is impossible with the naked hands to separate them. The male clasps his fingers between each other, in the same manner as people when they are praying; the thumbs press with their thickest sides against the breast of the female; and though she should struggle ever so much, nothing can induce him to let go his hold. The grasp seems involuntary and convulsive; they cannot be easily torn asunder; and they swim, creep, and live united for some days successively, till the female has shed her spawn, which at length she does almost in an instant. But how the impregnation is performed without any apparent instruments of generation has long been an object of inquiry, and still continues in great obscurity. To investigate this difficulty as carefully as possible, our German philosopher continued to watch their mutual congress for three years together, and availed himself of all the lights that the knife or analogy could furnish.

After having chosen twelve couple of frogs that were thus joined to each other, and having placed each couple in a glass vessel with water, he scarce let them out of his sight day or night, and even sat two nights together to watch their operations. The first day he observed nothing that deserved remark; but the second they began to be agitated more than before; the males made a noise somewhat resembling the grunting of a hog; the females only kept sinking and rising in the water.

The male of the first couple ejected the humidity with which his body was swoln, by which the water in the glass was made muddy; and he soon after quitted the female. Our philosopher continued for twelve hours to observe whether the female would cast her spawn; but finding her tardy, he dissected both her and the male: in the latter the spermatoc vessels were quite empty, as might naturally have been supposed; but for the female, her spawn still remained in her body. Upon its being extracted and put into water, it perished without producing any animal whatever. From hence he justly concluded that it required that the eggs should be ejected from the body of the female before they could be at all prolific. In another pair the male quitted the female, who did not eject her spawn till sixteen days after; and these, like the former, came to nothing. But it was very different with some of the rest. The females ejected their spawn while the male still remained in his station, and impregnated the masses at different intervals as they fell from her; and these all brought forth animals in the usual course of generation. From these observations it was easy to infer that the female was impregnated, not by the mouth, as some philosophers imagined, nor by the excrescence at the thumbs, as Linnæus supposed, but by the inspersions of the male seminal fluid upon the eggs as they proceeded from the body.

A single female produces from six to eleven hundred eggs at a time; and in general she throws them all out together by a single effort, though sometimes she is an hour in performing this task. While she is thus bringing forth, it may be observed that the male acts the part of a midwife, and promotes the expulsion of the eggs by working with his thumbs, and compressing the female's body more closely. The eggs which were compressed in the womb, upon being emitted, expand themselves into a round form, and drop to the bottom of the water, while the male swims off, and strikes with his arms as usual, though they had continued so long in a state of violent contraction.

The egg, or little black globe, which produces a tadpole, is surrounded with two different kinds of liquor. That which immediately surrounds the globe is clear and transparent, and contained in its proper membrane; that which surrounds the whole muddy and mucous. The transparent liquor serves for the nourishment of the tadpole from time to time, and answers the same pur-

pose that the white of the egg does to birds. The tadpoles, when this membrane is broken, are found to adhere with their mouth to part of it; and when they get free they immediately sink to the bottom of the water, never being able to get to the top while they continue in their tadpole form.

But to return—When the spawn is emitted and impregnated by the male, it drops, as was said, to the bottom, and there the white quickly and insensibly increases. The eggs, which during the four first hours suffer no perceptible change, begin then to enlarge and grow lighter, by which means they mount to the surface of the water. At the end of eight hours the white in which they swim grows thicker, the eggs lose their blackness, and, as they increase in size, somewhat of the spherical form. The twenty-first day the egg is seen to open a little on one side, and the beginning of a tail to peep out, which becomes more and more distinct every day. The thirty-ninth day the little animal begins to have motion; it moves its tail at intervals; and it is perceived that the liquor in which it is circumfused serves it for nourishment. In two days more some of these little creatures fall to the bottom, while others remain swimming in the fluid around them while their vivacity and motion is seen to increase. Those which fall to the bottom remain there the whole day; but having lengthened themselves a little (for hitherto they are doubled up) they mount at intervals to the mucous which they had quitted, and are seen to feed upon it with great vivacity. The next day they acquire their tadpole form. In three days more they are perceived to have two little fringes, that serve as fins, beneath the head; and these in four days after assume a more perfect form. It is then, also, that they are seen to feed very greedily upon the pond-weed with which they are to be supplied; and, leaving their former food, on this they continue to subsist till they arrive at maturity. When they come to be ninety-two days old, two small feet are seen beginning to emerge near the tail; and the head appears to be separate from the body. The next day the legs are considerably enlarged; four days after they refuse all vegetable food; their mouth appears furnished with teeth; and their hinder-legs are completely formed. In two days more the arms are completely produced; and now the frog is every way perfect, except that it still continues to carry the tail. In this odd situation the animal, resembling at once both a frog and a lizard, is seen frequently rising to the surface, not to take food but to breathe. In this state it continues for about six or eight hours, and then, the tail dropping off by degrees, the animal appears in its most perfect form.

Thus the frog in less than a day, having changed its figure, is seen to change its appetites also. So extraordinary is this transformation, that the food it fed upon so greedily but a few days before is now utterly rejected; it would even starve if supplied with no other. As soon as the animal acquires its perfect state, from having fed upon vegetables it becomes carnivorous, and lives entirely upon worms and insects. But as the water cannot supply these, it is obliged to quit its native element and seek for food upon land, where it lives by hunting worms and taking insects by surprise. At first, being feeble and unable to bear the warmth of the sun, it hides among bushes and under stones; but when a shower comes to refresh the earth, then the whole multitude are seen to quit their retreats in order to enjoy the grateful humidity. Upon many occasions the ground is seen perfectly blackened with their numbers—some hunting for prey, and some seeking secure lurking places. From the myriads that offer on such occasions, some have been induced to think that these animals were generated in the clouds, and thus showered down on the earth. But had they, like Derham, traced them to the next pool, they would have found out a better solution for the difficulty.

The frog lives for the most part out of the water; but when the cold nights begin to set in it returns to its native element, always choosing stagnant waters, where it can lie without danger concealed at the bottom. In this manner it continues torpid, or with but very little motion, all the winter: like the rest of the dormant race it requires no food; and the circulation is slowly carried on without any assistance from the air.

It is at the approach of spring that all these animals are roused from a state of slumber to a state of enjoyment. A short time after they rise from the bottom they begin to pair, while those that are as yet too young come upon land before the rest. For this reason, while the old ones continue concealed in the beginning of spring, the small ones are more frequently seen—the former remaining in the lake to propagate, while the latter are not yet arrived at a state of maturity.

The difference of sexes which was mentioned above is not perceivable in these animals until they have arrived at their fourth year; nor do they begin to propagate till they have completed that period. By comparing their slow growth with their other habits, it would appear that they live about twelve years; but having so many enemies, both by land and water, it is probable that few of them arrive at the end of their term.

Frogs live upon insects of all kinds, but they never eat any unless they have motion. They continue fixed and immovable till their prey appears; and just when it comes sufficiently near they jump forward with great agility, dart out their tongues, and seize it with certainty. The tongue in this animal, as in the toad, lizard, and serpent kinds, is extremely long, and formed in such a manner that it swallows the point down its throat; so that a length of tongue is thus drawn out, like a sword from its scabbard, to assail its prey. This tongue is furnished with a glutinous substance, and whatever insect it touches infallibly adheres, and is thus held fast till it is drawn into the mouth.

As the frog is thus supplied with the power of catching its prey, it is also very vivacious, and able to bear hunger for a very long time. I have known one of them continue a month in summer without any other food than the turf on which it was placed in a glass vessel. We are told of a German surgeon who kept one eight years in a glass vessel, covered with a net. Its food was at all times but sparing; in summer he gave it fresh grass, which it is said to have fed upon; and in the winter hay, a little moistened: he likewise now and then put flies into the glass, which it would follow with open mouth, and was very expert in catching them. In winter, when the flies were difficult to be found, it usually fell away and grew very lean; but in the summer, when they were plentiful, it soon grew fat again. It was kept in a warm room, and was always lively and ready to take its prey; however, in the eighth winter, when there were no flies to be found, it fell away and died. It is not certain how long it might have lived had it been supplied with proper nourishment; but we are certain that a very little food is capable of sufficing its necessities.

Nor is the frog less tenacious of life. It will live and jump about several hours after its head has been cut off. It will continue active though all its bowels are taken out; and it can live some days though entirely stripped of its skin. This cruel trick (which is chiefly practised among school-boys) of skinning frogs, an operation which is done in an instant, seems for some hours no way to abate their vigour. I am assured that some of them get a new skin and recover after this painful experiment.

The croaking of frogs is well known; and from thence in some countries they are distinguished by the ludicrous title of the Dutch Nightingale. Indeed, the aquatic frogs of Holland are loud beyond what one would imagine.

We could hardly conceive that an animal not bigger than one's fist should be able to send forth a note that is heard at three miles' distance; yet such is actually the case. The large water-frogs have a note as loud as the bellowing of a bull, and for this purpose puff up the cheeks to a surprising magnitude. Of all frogs, however, the male only croaks; the female is silent, and the voice of the other seems to be the call to courtship. It is certain that at those times when they couple the loudness of their croaking is in some places very troublesome; for then the whole lake seems vocal, and a thousand dissonant notes perfectly stun the neighbourhood. At other times, also, before wet weather their voices are in full exertion; they are then heard with unceasing assiduity sending forth their call, and welcoming the approaches of their favourite moisture. No weather-glass was ever so true as a frog in foretelling an approaching change; and, in fact, the German surgeon mentioned above kept his frog for that purpose. It was always heard to croak at the approach of wet weather, but was as mute as a fish when it threatened a continuance of fair. This may probably serve to explain an opinion which some entertain, that there is a month in the year, called "Paddock Moon," in which the frogs never croak: the whole seems to be no more than that, in the hot season, when the moisture is dried away, and consequently when these animals neither enjoy the quantity of health or food that at other times they are supplied with, they show by their silence how much they are displeased with the weather. All very dry weather is hurtful to their health, and prevents them from getting their prey. They subsist chiefly upon worms and snails; and as draught prevents these from appearing, the frog is thus stinted in its provisions, and also wants that grateful humidity which moistens its skin and renders it alert and active.

As frogs adhere closely to the backs of their own species, so it has been found by repeated experience they will also adhere to the backs of fishes. Few that have ponds but know that these animals will stick to the backs of carp, and fix their fingers in the corner of each eye. In this manner they are often caught together, the carp blinded and wasted away. Whether this proceeds from the desires of the frog, disappointed of its proper mate, or whether it be a natural enmity between frogs and fishes, I will not take upon me to say. A story told us by Walton might be apt to incline us to the latter opinion.

"As Dubravius, a bishop of Bohemia, was walking with a friend by a large pond in that country they saw a frog, while a pike lay very sleepily and quiet by the shore side, leap upon his head, and the frog having expressed malice or anger by his swollen cheeks and staring eyes, did stretch out his legs and embraced the pike's head, and presently reached them to his eyes, tearing with them and his teeth those tender parts; the pike, irritated with anguish, moves up and down the water, and rubs himself against weeds and whatever he thought might quit him of his enemy; but all in vain, for the frog did continue to ride triumphantly, and to bite and torment the pike till his strength failed, and then the frog sunk with the pike to the bottom of the water: then presently the frog appeared again at the top and croaked, and seemed to rejoice like a conqueror; after which he presently retired to his secret hole. The bishop that had beheld the battle called his fisherman to fetch his nets, and by all means to get the pike, that they might declare what had happened. The pike was drawn forth, and both his eyes were eaten out; at which when they began to wonder the fisherman wished them to forbear, and assured them he was certain that pikes were often so served."



CHAP. III.

OF THE TOAD AND ITS VARIETIES.

If we regard the figure of the toad, there seems nothing in it that should disgust more than that of the frog. Its form and proportions are nearly the same, ~~and~~ chiefly differs in colour, which is blacker, and its slow and heavy motion, which exhibits nothing of the agility of the frog: yet such is the force of habit, begun in early prejudice, that those who consider the one as a harmless, playful animal, turn from the other with horror and disgust. The frog is considered as an useful assistant in ridding our grounds of vermin—the toad as a secret enemy, that only wants an opportunity to infect us with its venom.

The imagination, in this manner biassed by its terrors, paints out the toad in the most hideous colouring, and clothes it in more than natural deformity. Its body is broad, its back flat, covered with a dusky, pimpled hide; the belly is large and swagging, the pace laboured and crawling, its retreat gloomy and filthy, and its whole appearance calculated to excite disgust and horror; yet, upon my first seeing a toad none of all these deformities in the least affected me with sensations of loathing: horn, as I was, in a country where there are no toads, I had prepared my imagination for some dreadful object; but there seemed nothing to me more alarming in the sight than in that of a common frog; and, indeed, for some time I mistook and handled the one for the other. When first informed of my mistake I very well remember my sensations: I wondered how I had escaped with safety after handling and dissecting a toad, which I had mistaken for a frog. I then begun to lay in a fund of horror against the whole tribe, which, though convinced they are harmless, I shall never get rid of. My first imaginations were too strong not only for my reason, but for the conviction of my senses.

As the toad bears a general resemblance of figure to the frog, so also it resembles that animal in its nature and appetites. Like the frog, the toad is amphibious; like that animal, it lives upon worms and insects, which it seizes by darting out its length of tongue; and in the same manner it crawls about in moist weather. The male and female couple as in all the frog kind, their time of propagation being very early in the spring. Sometimes the females are seen upon land oppressed by the males; but more frequently they are coupled in the water. They continue together some hours, and adhere so fast as to tear the very skin from the parts they stick to. In all this they entirely resemble the frog; but the assistance which the male lends the female in bringing forth is a peculiarity in this species that must not be passed over in silence. "In the evening of a summer's day, a French gentleman, being in the king's gardens at Paris, perceived two toads coupled together, and he stopped to examine them. Two facts equally new surprised him; the first was the extreme difficulty the female had in laying her eggs—the second was the assistance lent her by the male for this purpose. The eggs of the female lie in her body like beads on a string; and after the first by great effort was excluded, the male caught it with his hinder paws, and kept working it till he had thus extracted the whole chain. In this manner the animal performed in some measure the functions of a midwife, impregnating at the same time every egg as it issued from the body."

It is probable, however, that this difficulty in bringing forth obtains only upon land; and that the toad, which produces its spawn in the water, performs it with as much ease as a frog. They propagate in England exactly in the manner of frogs; and the female, instead of retreating to dry holes, goes to the bottom of ponds and there lies torpid all the winter, preparing to propagate in the beginning of spring. On these occasions the

number of males is found greatly to surpass that of the other sex, their being above thirty to one; and twelve or fourteen are often seen clinging to the same female.

When, like the frog, they have undergone all the variations of their tadpole state they forsake the water, and are often seen, in a moist summer's evening, crawling up by myriads from fenny places into drier situations. There, having found out a retreat, or having dug themselves one with their mouth and hands, they lead a patient, solitary life, seldom venturing out except when the moisture of a summer's evening invites them abroad. At that time the grass is filled with snails and the pathways covered with worms, which make their principal food. Insects, also, of every kind they are fond of; and we have the authority of Linnæus for it, that they sometimes continue immovable, with their mouth open, at the bottom of shrubs, where the butterflies, in some measure fascinated, are seen to fly down their throats.

In a letter from Mr. Arscott, there are some curious particulars relating to this animal which throw great light upon its history. "Concerning the toad," says he, "that lived so many years with us, and was so great a favourite, the greatest curiosity was its becoming so remarkably tame; it had frequented some steps before our hall-door some years before my acquaintance commenced with it, and had been admired by my father for its size (being the largest I ever met with), who constantly paid it a visit every evening. I knew it myself above thirty years; and by constantly feeding it brought it to be so tame, that it always came to the candle and looked up, as if expecting to be taken up and brought upon the table, where I always fed it with insects of all sorts. It was fondest of flesh-maggots, which I kept in bran; it would follow them, and when within a proper distance would fix his eyes and remain motionless for near a quarter of a minute, as if preparing for the stroke, which was an instantaneous throwing its tongue at a great distance upon the insect, which stuck to the tip by a glutinous matter. The motion is quicker than the eye can follow. I cannot say how long my father had been acquainted with the toad before I knew it; but when I was first acquainted with it he used to mention it as the old toad I have known so many years—I can answer for thirty-six years. This old toad made its appearance as soon as the warm weather came; and I always considered it retired to some dry bank to repose till spring. When we new-laid the steps, I had two holes made in the third step; each with a hollow of more than a yard long, for it, in which I imagine it slept, as it came from thence at its first appearance. It was seldom provoked. Neither that toad nor the multitudes I have seen tormented with great cruelty ever showed the least desire of revenge by spitting or emitting any juice from their pimples. Sometimes upon taking it up it would let out a great quantity of clear water, which, as I have often seen it do the same upon the steps when perfectly quiet, was certainly its urine, and no more than a natural evacuation. Spiders, mellipedes, and flesh-maggots seem to be this animal's favourite food. I imagine if a bee was to be put before a toad it would certainly eat it to its cost; but as bees are seldom stirring at the same time that toads are they rarely come in their way, as they do not appear after sun-rising or before sun-set. In the heat of the day they will come to the mouth of their hole, I believe for air. I once from my parlour window observed a large toad I had in the bank of a bowling-green, about twelve at noon in a very hot day, very busy and active upon the grass. So uncommon an appearance made me go out to see what it was, when I found an innumerable swarm of winged ants had dropped round his hole, which temptation was as irresistible as a turtle would be to a luxurious alderman. In respect to its end, had it not have been for a tame raven I make no doubt but it would have been now living. This bird, seeing it one day feeding at the

mouth of its hole, pulled it out, and although I rescued it, pulled out one eye, and hurt it so that, notwithstanding it living a twelvemonth, it never enjoyed itself, and had a difficulty of taking its food, missing the mark for want of its eye. Before that accident it had all the appearance of perfect health."

To this account of the toad's inoffensive qualities I will add another from Valisnieri, to show that, even taken internally, the toad is no way dangerous. "In the year 1692, some German soldiers, who had taken possession of the castle of Arceti, finding that the peasants of the country often amused themselves in catching frogs and dressing them for the table, resolved to provide themselves with a like entertainment, and made preparations for frog-fishing in the same manner. It may easily be supposed that the Italians and their German guests were not very fond of each other; and indeed it is natural to think that the soldiers gave the poor people of the country many good reasons for discontent. They were not a little pleased, therefore, when they saw them go to a ditch where toads instead of frogs were found in abundance. The Germans, no way distinguishing in their sport, caught them in great numbers; while the peasants kept looking on, silently flattering themselves with the hopes of speedy revenge. After being brought home the toads were dressed up after the Italian fashion, the peasants quite happy in seeing their tyrants devour them with so good an appetite, and expecting every moment to see them drop down dead. But what was their surprise to find that the Germans continued as well as ever, and only complained of a slight excoriation of the lips, which probably arose from some other cause than that of the repast."

I will add another story from Solenander, who tells us that a tradesman of Rome and his wife had long lived together with mutual discontent; the man was dropsical, and the woman amorous. This ill-matched society promised soon, by the very infirm state of the man, to have an end; but the woman was unwilling to wait the progress of the disorder; and therefore concluded that, to get rid of her husband, nothing was left her but poison. For this purpose she chose out a dose that she supposed would be the most effectual; and, having calcined some toads, mixed their powder with his drink. The man, after taking a hearty dose, found no considerable inconvenience, except that it greatly promoted urine. His wife, who considered this as a beginning symptom of the venom, resolved not to stint the next dose, but gave it in greater quantities than before. This also increased the former symptom; and in a few days the woman had the mortification to see her detested husband restored to perfect health, and remained in utter despair of her being a widow.

From all this it will appear with what injustice this animal has hitherto been treated. It has undergone every reproach; and mankind have been taught to consider as an enemy a creature that destroys that insect tribe which are their real invaders. We are to treat, therefore, as fables those accounts that represent the toad as possessed of poison to kill at a distance—of its ejecting its venom, which burns wherever it touches—of its infecting those vegetables near which it resides—of its excessive fondness for sage, which it renders poisonous by its approach; these and a hundred others of the same kind probably took rise from an antipathy which some have to all animals of the kind. It is a harmless, defenceless creature, torpid and unvenomous, and seeking the darkest retreats, not from the malignity of its nature, but the multitude of its enemies.

Like all of the frog kind the toad is torpid in winter. It chooses then for a retreat either the hollow root of a tree, the cleft of a rock, or sometimes the bottom of a pond, where it is found in a state of seeming insensibility. As it is very long-lived, it is very difficult to be killed; its skin is tough and cannot be easily pierced; and, though

covered with wounds, the animal continues to show signs of life, and every part appears in motion. But what shall we say to its living for centuries lodged in the bosom of a rock, or cased within the body of an oak tree, without the smallest access on any side either for nourishment or air, and yet taken out alive and perfect! Stories of this kind it would be as rash to contradict as difficult to believe; we have the highest authorities bearing witness to their truth, and yet the whole analogy of Nature seems to arraign them of falsehood. Bacon asserts that toads are found in this manner; Doctor Plot asserts the same. There is to this day a marble chimney-piece at Chatsworth with the print of the toad upon it, and a tradition of the manner in which it was found. In the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences there is an account of a toad found alive and healthy in the heart of a very thick elm, without the smallest entrance or egress. In the year 1731 there was another found near Nantes in the heart of an old oak, without the smallest issue to its cell; and the discoverer was of opinion, from the size of the tree, that the animal could not have been confined there less than eighty or a hundred years, without sustenance and without air. To all these we can only oppose the strangeness of the facts—the necessity this animal appears under of receiving air, and its dying like all other animals in the air-pump when deprived of this all-sustaining fluid. But whether these be objections to weigh against such respectable and disinterested authority I will not pretend to determine; certain it is that, if kept in a damp place, the toad will live for several months without any food whatsoever.

To this extraordinary account, which is doubtful, I will add another not less so; which is that of toads sucking cancerous breasts, and thus extracting the venom and performing a cure. The first account we have of this is in a letter to the Bishop of Carlisle from Doctor Pitfield, who was the first person of consequence that attended the experiment. His letter is as follows:

"Your lordship must have taken notice of a paragraph in the papers with regard to the application of toads to a cancered breast. A patient of mine has sent to the neighbourhood of Hungerford, and brought down the very woman on whom the cure was performed. I have, with all the attention I am capable of, attended the operation for eighteen or twenty days, and am surprised at the phenomenon. I am in no expectation of any great service from the application; the age, constitution, and thoroughly cancerous condition of the person being unconquerable barriers to it. How an ailment of that kind, absolutely local in an otherwise sound habit and of a likely age, might be relieved I cannot say. But as to the operation, thus much I can assert, that there is neither pain nor nausea in it. The animal is put into a linen bag all but its head, and that is held to the part. It has generally instantly laid hold of the foulest part of the sore, and sucked with greediness until it dropped off dead. It has frequently happened that the creature has swoln immediately, and from its agonies appeared to be in great pain. I have weighed them for several days together before and after the application, and found their increase of weight in their different degrees from a drachm to near an ounce. They frequently sweat exceedingly, and turn quite pale: sometimes they disgorge, recover, and become lively again. I think the whole scene is surprising, and a very remarkable piece of natural history. From the constant inoffensiveness which I have observed in them, I almost question the truth of their poisonous spitting. Many people here expect no great good from the application of toads to cancers; and where the disorder is not absolutely local none is to be expected. When it is seated in any part not to be well come at for extirpation, I think it is hardly to be imagined but that the having it sucked clean as often as you please must give great relief. Everybody knows that dogs licking of sores

cures them, which is, I suppose, chiefly by keeping them clean. If there is any credit to be given to history poisons have been sucked out. I hope I have not tired your lordship with my long tale: as it is a true one, and in my apprehension a curious piece of natural history, I could not forbear communicating it to you. I own I thought the story in the papers to be an invention; and when I considered the instinctive principle in all animals of self-preservation I was confirmed in my belief: but what I have related I saw; and all theory must yield to fact. It is only the "rubeth" (the land-toad); which has the property of sucking: I cannot find any the least mention of the property in any one of the old naturalists. My patient can bear to have but one applied in twenty-four hours. The woman who was cured had them on day and night without intermission for five weeks. Their time of hanging at the breast has been from one to six hours."

Other remarks made upon their method of performing this extraordinary operation are as follow:—"Some toads die very soon after they have sucked; others live about a quarter of an hour, and some much longer. For example, one that was applied about seven o'clock sucked till ten, and died as soon as it was taken from the breast; another that immediately succeeded continued till three o'clock, but dropped dead from the wound: each swelled exceedingly, and of a pale colour. They do not seem to suck greedily, and often turn their heads away; but during the time of their sucking they were heard to smack their lips like a young child."

From this circumstantial account of the progress of this extraordinary application, one could hardly suppose that any doubt could remain of the ingenious observer's accuracy; and yet, from information which I have received from authority still more respectable, there is much reason as yet to suspend our assent. A lady, who was under the care of the president of the college of physicians, was induced by her friends to try the experiment; and as he saw the case was desperate, and that it would quiet her mind as well as theirs, he permitted the trial. During the whole continuance of their application she could never thoroughly perceive that they sucked her; but that did not prevent their swelling and dying as in the former instances. Once, indeed, she said she thought that one of them seemed to suck; but the physician and those who attended could not perceive any appearance of it. Thus, after all, it is a doubt whether these animals die by the internal or the external application of the cancerous poison.

Of this animal there are several varieties, such as the water and the land-toad, which probably differ only in the ground-colour of their skin. In the first it is more inclining to ash-colour, with brown spots; in the other, the colour is brown approaching to black. The water-toad is not so large as the other; but both equally breed in that element. The size of the toad with us is generally from two to four inches long; but in the sunny countries of Europe I have seen them much larger, and not less than a common crab when brought to table. But this is nothing to what they are found in the tropical climates, where travellers often for the first time mistake a toad for a tortoise. Their usual size is from six to seven inches; but there are some still larger, and as broad as a plate. Of these some are beautifully streaked and coloured; some studded over, as with pearls; others bristled with horns or spines; some have the head distinct from the body, while others have it so sunk in that the animal appears without a head. All these are found in the tropical climates in great abundance, and particularly after a shower of rain. It is then that the streets seem entirely paved with them; they then crawl from their retreats, and go into all places to enjoy their favourite moisture. With us the opinion of its raining toads and frogs has long been justly exploded; but it still is entertained in the tropical countries; and that

not only by the savage natives but the more refined settlers, who are apt enough to add the prejudices of other nations to their own.

It would be a tedious as well as an useless task to enter into all the minute discriminations of these animals, as found in different countries or places; but the pipal, or Surinam toad, is too strange a creature not to require an exact description. There is not, perhaps, in all Nature a more extraordinary phenomenon than that of an animal breeding and hatching its young in its back; from whence, as from a kind of hot-bed, they crawl one after the other when come to maturity.

The pipal is in form more hideous than even the common toad—Nature seeming to have marked all those strange-mannered animals with peculiar deformity. The body is flat and broad, the head small, the jaws, like those of a mole, are extended, and evidently formed for rooting in the ground; the skin of the neck forms a sort of wrinkled collar; the colour of the head is of a dark chesnut, and the eyes are small; the back, which is very broad, is of a lightish grey, and seems covered over with a number of small eyes, which are round, and placed at nearly equal distances. These eyes are very different from what they seem; they are the animal's eggs covered with their shells, and placed there for hatching. These eggs are buried deep in the skin, and in the beginning of incubation but just appear: they are very visible when the young animal is about to burst from its confinement. They are of a reddish, shining yellow colour; and the spaces between them are full of small warts resembling pearls.

This is their situation previous to their coming forth; but nothing so much demands our admiration as the manner of their production. The eggs, when formed in the ovary, are sent by some internal canals, which anatomists have not hitherto described, to lie and come to maturity under the bony substance of the back: in this state they are impregnated by the male, whose seed finds its way by pores very singularly contrived, and pierces not only the skin but the periosteum. The skin, however, is still apparently entire, and forms a very thick covering over the whole brood; but as they advance to maturity, at different intervals, one after another, the egg seems to start forward and bulge out from the back, becomes more yellow, and at last breaks, when the young one puts forth its head; it still, however, keeps its situation until it has acquired a proper degree of strength, and then it leaves the shell, but still continues to keep upon the back of the parent. In this manner the pipal is seen travelling with her wondrous family on her back in all the different stages of maturity. Some of the strange progeny, not yet come to sufficient perfection, appear quite torpid, and as yet without life in the egg: others seem just beginning to rise through the skin—here peeping forth from the shell, and there, having entirely forsaken their prison; some are sporting at large upon the parent's back; and others descending to the ground to try their own fortune below.

Such is the description given of this strange production by Seba, in which he differs from Ruysch, who affirms that the young ones are bred in the back of the male only, where the female lays her eggs. I have followed Seba, however, not because he is better authority, but because he is more positive of the truth of his account, and asserts, assuredly, that the eggs are found on the back of the female only. Many circumstances, however, are wanting towards completing his information, such as a description of the passage by which the egg finds its way into the back—the manner of its fecundation—the time of gestation—as also a history of this strange animal itself; but by a prolixity that too much prevails among naturalists at present, he leaves the most interesting object of curiosity to give us a detailed description of the legs and claws of the pipal, about which we have very little concern.

The male pipal is everyway larger than the female, and has the skin less tightly drawn round the body. The whole body is covered with pustules, resembling pearls; and the belly, which is of a bright yellow, seems as if it were sewed up from the throat to the vent, a seam being seen to run in that direction. This animal, like the rest of the frog kind, is most probably harmless; though we are told of terrible effects resulting from its powder when calcined. This, however, must certainly be false: no creature whatever when calcined can be poisonous; for the fire burns away whatever may have been dangerous in their composition—all animal substances when calcined being entirely the same.

BOOK II.—CHAP. I.

OF LIZARDS IN GENERAL.

There is scarce a naturalist who has treated of lizards but has a particular manner of ranking them in the scale of Animated Nature. Ray, rather struck with the number of their legs than their habits and conformation, has exalted them among quadrupeds; while Linnaeus, attentive only to their long, slender forms, has degraded them among serpents. Brisson gives them a distinct class by themselves under the name of "reptiles." Klein gives them a class inferior to beasts, under the name of "naked quadrupeds." Some, in short, from their scaly covering and fondness for the water, have given them to the fishes; while there have not been wanting naturalists who have classed them with insects, as the smaller kinds of this class seem to demand.

It is, indeed, no easy matter to tell to what class in Nature lizards are chiefly allied. They are unjustly raised to the rank of beasts, as they bring forth eggs, dispense with breathing, and are not covered with hair. They cannot be placed among fishes, as the majority of them live upon land: they are excluded from the serpent tribe by their feet, upon which they run with some celerity; and from the insects, by their size: for though the newt may be looked upon in this contemptible light, a crocodile would be a terrible insect indeed. Thus lizards are in some measure excluded from every rank, while they exhibit somewhat of the properties of all—the legs and celerity of the quadrupeds; a facility of creeping through narrow and intricate ways, like the serpent; and a power of living in the water, like fishes: however, though endued with these various powers, they have no real advantages over any other class of Animated Nature: for what they gain in aptitude for one element they lose in their fitness for another. Thus, between both they are an awkward, ungainly tribe; neither so alert upon land nor so nimble in the water as the respectable inhabitants of either abode: and, indeed, this holds throughout all Nature, that in proportion as the seeming advantages of inferior animals are multiplied their real ones are abridged, and all their instincts are weakened and lost by the variety of channels into which they are divided.

As lizards thus differ from every other class of animals, they also differ widely from each other. With respect to size, no class of beings has its ranks so opposite. What, for instance, can be more removed than the smallameleon, an inch long, and the alligator of the river Amazons, above twenty-seven feet? To an attentive observer they would appear entirely of different kinds; and Seba wonders however they came to be classed together.

The colour of these animals is very various, as they are found of a hundred different hues—green, blue, red, yellow, spotted, streaked, and marbled. Were colour alone capable of constituting beauty, the lizard would often please, but there is something so repressing in the

animal's figure, that the brilliancy of its scales or the variety of its spots only tend to give an air of more exquisite venom of greater malignity. The figure of these animals is not less various—sometimes swollen in the belly, sometimes pursed up at the throat, sometimes with a rough set of spines on the back, sometimes with teeth, at others with none, sometimes venomous, at others harmless, and even philanthropic, sometimes smooth and even, sometimes with a long, slender tail, and often with a shorter blunt one.

But their greatest distinction arises from their manner of bringing forth their young. Firstly, some of them are viviparous. Secondly, some are oviparous; and which may be considered in three distinct ways. Thirdly, some bring forth small spawn, like fishes. The crocodile, the iguana, and all the largest kinds, bring forth eggs, which are hatched by the heat of the sun; the animals that issue from them are complete upon leaving the shell, and their first efforts are to run to seek food in their proper element. The viviparous kinds, in which are all the salamanders, come forth alive from the body of the female, perfect and active, and suffer no succeeding change. But those which are bred in the water, and, as we have reason to think, from spawn, suffer a very considerable change in their form. They are produced with an external skin or covering, that sometimes encloses their feet, and gives them a serpentine appearance. To this false skin fins are added, above and below the tail, that serve the animal for swimming; but when the false skin drops off these drop off also; and then the lizard with its four feet, is completely formed, and forsakes the water.

From hence it appears that of this tribe there are three distinct kinds, differently produced, and most probably very different in their formation. But the history of these animals is very obscure; and we are as yet incapable of laying the line that separates them. All we know, as was said before, is, that the great animals of this kind are mostly produced perfect from the egg; the salamanders are generally viviparous; and some of the water lizards imperfectly produced. In all these most unfinished productions of Nature, if I may so call them, the varieties in their structure increases in proportion to their imperfections. A poet would say that Nature grew tired of the nauseous formation, and left accident to finish the rest of her handiwork.

However, the three kinds have many points of similitude; and in all their varieties of figure, colour, and production, the tribe is easily distinguished and strongly marked. They have all four short legs, the two fore-feet somewhat resembling a man's hand and arm. They have tails almost as thick as the body at the beginning, and that generally run tapering to a point. They are all amphibious also—equally capable of living upon land and water, and formed internally in the same manner with a tortoise and other animals that can continue a long time without respiration; in other words, their lungs are not so necessary to continue life and circulation but that their play may be stopped for some considerable time, while the blood performs its circuit round the body by a shorter communication.

These are differences that sufficiently separate lizards from all other animals; but it will be very difficult to fix the limits that distinguish the three kinds from each other. The crocodile tribe and its affinities are sufficiently distinguished from all the rest by their size and fierceness; the salamander tribe is distinguished by their deformity, their frog-like heads, the shortness of their snouts, their swollen belly, and their viviparous production. With regard to the rest, which we may denominate theameleon or lizard kind, some of which bring forth from the egg and some of which are imperfectly formed from spawn, we must group them under one head, and leave time to unravel the rest of their history.

CHAP. II.

OF THE CROCODILE AND ITS AFFINITIES.

The crocodile is an animal placed at a happy distance from the inhabitants of Europe, and formidable only in those regions where men are scarce, and arts are but little known. In all the cultivated and popular parts of the world the great animals are entirely banished, or rarely seen. The appearance of such ruins at once a whole country up in arms to oppose their force; and their lives generally pay the forfeit of their temerity. The crocodile, therefore, that was once so terrible along the banks of the river Nile, is now neither so large nor its numbers so great as formerly. The arts of mankind have through a course of ages powerfully operated to its destruction; and though it is sometimes seen, it appears comparatively timorous and feeble.

To look for this animal in all its natural terrors—grown to an enormous size, propagated in surprising numbers, and committing unceasing devastations—we must go to the uninhabited regions of Africa and America, to those immense rivers that roll through extensive and desolate kingdoms, where arts have never penetrated, where force only makes distinction, and the most powerful animals exert their strength with confidence and security. Those that sail up the river Amazons or the river Niger well know how numerous and terrible these animals are in such parts of the world. In both these rivers they are found from eighteen to twenty-seven feet long, and sometimes lying as close to each other as a raft of timber upon one of our streams. There they indolently bask on the surface, no way disturbed at the approach of an enemy, since, from the repeated trials of their strength, they found none that they were not able to subdue.

Of this terrible animal there are two kinds—the crocodile, properly so called, and the cayman or alligator. Travellers, however, have rather made the distinction than Nature; for in the general outline and in the nature of these two animals they are entirely the same. It would be speaking more properly to call these animals the crocodiles of the eastern and the western world; for in books of voyages they are so entirely confounded together that there is no knowing whether the Asiatic animal be the crocodile of Asia or the alligator of the western world. The distinctions usually made between the crocodile and alligator are these:—The body of the crocodile is more slender than that of the alligator; its snout runs off tapering from the forehead, like that of a greyhound; while that of the other is indented, like the nose of the lap-dog. The crocodile has a much wider swallow, and is of an ash-colour; the alligator is black, varied with white, and is thought not to be so mischievous. All these distinctions, however, are very slight, and can be reckoned little more than minute variations.

This animal grows to a great length, being sometimes found thirty feet long from the tip of the snout to the end of the tail; its most usual length, however, is eighteen feet. One which was dissected at Siam was of the latter dimensions; and as the description which is given of it, both externally and internally, is the most accurate known of this noted animal, I must beg leave to give it as I find it, though somewhat tedious. It was eighteen feet and a half, French measure, in length; of which the tail was no less than five feet and a half, and the head and neck above two feet and a half. It was four feet nine inches in circumference, where thickest. The fore-legs had the same parts and conformation as the arms of a man, both within and without. The hands, if they may be so called, had five fingers; the two last of which had no nails, and were of a conical figure. The hinder legs, including the thigh and paw, were two feet two inches long; the paws, from the joint to the extremity of the longest claws, were

above nine inches; they were divided into four toes, of which three were armed with large claws, the longest of which was an inch and a half; these toes were united by a membrane, like those of a duck, but much thicker. The head was long, and had a little rising at the top; but the rest was flat, and especially towards the extremity of the jaws. It was covered by a skin, which adhered firmly to the skull and to the jaws. The skull was rough and unequal in several places; and about the middle of the forehead there were two bony crests, about two inches high; the skull between these two crests was proof against a musket-ball; for it only rendered the part a little white that it struck against. The eye was very small in proportion to the rest of the body, and was so placed within its orbit that the outward part when the lid was closed was only an inch long, and the line running parallel to the opening of the jaws. It was covered with a double lid, one within and one without; that within, like the nictitating membrane in birds, was folded in the great corner of the eye, and had a motion towards the tail, but being transparent it covered the eye without hindering the sight. The iris was very large in proportion to the globe of the eye, and was of a yellowish-grey colour. Above the eye the ear was placed, which opened from above downwards, as if it were by a kind of spring, by means of a solid, thick, cartilaginous substance. The nose was placed in the middle of the upper jaw, near an inch from its extremity, and was perfectly round and flat, being near two inches in diameter, of a black, soft, spongy substance, not unlike the nose of a dog. The jaws seemed to shut one within another; and nothing can be more false than that the animal's under-jaw is without motion; it moves like the lower-jaw in all other animals, while the upper is fixed to the skull and absolutely immoveable. The animal had twenty-seven cutting teeth in the upper-jaw and fifteen in the lower, with several void spaces between them; they were thick at the bottom and sharp at the point, being all of different sizes, except ten large hooked ones, six of which were in the lower-jaw and four in the upper. The mouth was fifteen inches in length, and eight and a half in breadth where broadest. The distance of the two jaws, when opened as wide as they could be, was fifteen inches and a half: this is a very wide yawn, and could easily enough take in the body of a man. The colour of the body was of a dark-brown on the upper part, and of a whitish-citron below, with large spots of both colours on the sides. From the shoulders to the extremity of the tail the animal was covered with large scales of a square form, disposed like parallel girdles, and fifty-two in number; but those near the tail were not so thick as the rest. The creature was covered not only with these, but all over with a coat of armour; which, however, was not proof against a musket-ball, contrary to what has been commonly asserted; however, it must be confessed that the attitude in which the animal was placed might contribute to render the skin more penetrable; for probably if the ball had struck obliquely against the shell it would have flown off. Those parts of the girdles underneath the belly were of a whitish colour, and were made up of scales of divers shapes, but not so hard as those on the back.

With respect to the internal parts of the animal, the gullet was large in proportion to the mouth; and a ball of wood as large as one's head readily ran down, and was drawn up again. The guts were but short in comparison, being not so long as the animal's body. The tongue, which some have erroneously asserted this animal was without, consisted of a thick, spongy, soft flesh, and was strongly connected to the lower-jaw. The heart was of the size of a calf's, of a bright red colour, the blood passing as well from the veins to the aorta as into the lungs. There was no bladder; but the kidneys sent the urine to be discharged by the anus. There were sixty-two joints in the back-bone, which, though very



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closely united, had sufficient play to enable the animal to bend like a bow to the right and the left; so that what we hear of escaping the creature by turning out of the right line, and of the animal's not being able to wheel readily after its prey, seems to be fabulous. It is most likely the crocodile can turn with ease, for the joints of its back are not stiffer than those of other animals which we know by experience can wheel about very nimbly for their size.

Such is the figure and conformation of this formidable animal that unpeopled countries, and makes the most navigable rivers desert and dangerous. They are seen in some places lying for whole hours, and even days, stretched in the sun, and motionless; so that one not used to them might mistake them for trunks of trees covered with a rough and dry bark; but the mistake would soon be fatal if not prevented; for the torpid animal, at the near approach of any living thing, darts upon it with instant swiftness, and at once drags it down to the bottom. In the times of an inundation they sometimes enter the cottages of the natives, where the dreadful visitant seizes the first animal it meets with. There have been several examples of their taking a man out of a canoe in the sight of his companions, without their being able to lend him any assistance.

The strength of every part of the crocodile is very great; and its arms, both offensive and defensive, irresistible. We have seen, from the shortness of its legs, the amazing strength of the tortoise: but what is the strength of such an animal compared to that of the crocodile, whose legs are very short, and whose size is so superior? The back-bone is jointed in the firmest manner; the muscles of the fore and hinder legs are vigorous and strong: and its whole form calculated for force. Its teeth are sharp, numerous, and formidable; its claws are long and tenacious; but its principal instrument of destruction is the tail; with a single blow of this it has often overturned a canoe, and seized upon the poor savage conductor.

Though not so powerful, yet it is very terrible even upon land. The crocodile seldom (except when pressed by hunger, or with a view of depositing its eggs) leaves the water. Its usual method is to float along upon the surface and seize whatever animals come within its reach; but when this method fails it then goes closer to the bank. Disappointed of its fishy prey, it there waits covered up among the sedges, in patient expectation of some land animal that comes to drink—the dog, the bull, the tiger, or man himself. Nothing is to be seen of the insidious destroyer as the animal approaches; nor is its retreat discovered till it be too late for safety. It seizes the victim with a spring, and goes at a bound much faster than so unwieldy an animal could be thought capable of exerting; then having secured the creature with both teeth and claws, it drags it into the water, instantly sinks with it to the bottom, and in this manner quickly drowns it.

Sometimes it happens that the creature the crocodile has thus surprised escapes from its grasp wounded, and makes off from the river-side. In such a case the tyrant pursues with all its force, and often seizes it a second time; for, though seemingly heavy, the crocodile runs with great celerity. In this manner it is sometimes seen above half a mile from the bank, in pursuit of an animal wounded beyond the power of escaping, and then dragging it back to the river-side, where it feasts in security.

It often happens in its depredations along the bank, that the crocodile seizes on a creature as formidable as itself, and meets with a most desperate resistance. We are told of frequent combats between the crocodile and the tiger. All creatures of the tiger-kind are continually oppressed by a parching thirst that keeps them in the vicinity of great rivers, whither they descend to drink very frequently. It is upon these occasions that they

are seized by the crocodile; and they die not unrevenged. The instant they are seized upon they turn with the greatest agility, and force their claws into the crocodile's eyes, which plunges with his fierce antagonist into the river. There they continue to struggle for some time, till at last the tiger is drowned.

In this manner the crocodile seizes and destroys all animals, and is equally dreaded by all. There is no animal but man alone that can combat it with success. We are assured by Labat that a Negro, with no other weapons than a knife in his right hand and his left arm wrapped round with a cow-hide, ventures boldly to attack this animal in its own element. As soon as he approaches the crocodile he presents his left arm, which the animal swallows most greedily; but sticking in its throat, the Negro has time to give it several stabs under the throat; and the water also getting in at the mouth, which is held involuntarily open, the creature is soon bloated up as big as a tun, and expires.

To us who live at a distance from the rapacity of these animals, these stories appear strange, and yet most probably are true. From not having seen anything so formidable or bold in the circle of our own experience, we are not to determine upon the wonderful transactions in distant climates. It is probable that these, and a number of more dreadful encounters, happen every day among those forests and in those rivers where the most formidable animals are known to reside—where the elephant and the rhinoceros, the tiger and the hippopotamos, the shark and the crocodile, have frequent opportunities of meeting, and every day of renewing their engagements.

Whatever be the truth of these accounts, certain it is that crocodiles are taken by the Siamese in great abundance. The natives of that empire seem particularly fond of the capture of all the great animals with which their country abounds. We have already seen their success in taking and taming the elephant; nor are they less powerful in exerting their dominion over the crocodile. The manner of taking it in Siam is by throwing three or four strong nets across a river, at proper distances from each other: so that if the animal breaks through the first it may be caught by one of the rest. When it is first taken it employs the tail, which is the grand instrument of strength, with great force; but after many unsuccessful struggles the animal's strength is at last exhausted. Then the natives approach their prisoner in boats, and pierce him with their weapons in the most tender parts till he is weakened with the loss of blood. When he has done stirring they begin by tying up his mouth, and, with the same cord, they fasten his head to the tail, which last they bend back like a bow. However, they are not yet perfectly secure from his fury; but for their greater safety they tie his fore-feet, as well as those behind, to the top of his back. These precautions are not useless; for if they were to omit them the crocodile would soon recover strength enough to do a great deal of mischief.

The crocodile, thus brought into subjection or bred up young, is used to divert and entertain the great men of the East. It is often managed like a horse; a curb is put into its mouth, and the rider directs it as he thinks proper. Though awkwardly formed, it does not fail to proceed with some degree of swiftness; and it is thought to move as fast as some of the most unwieldy of our animals—the hog or the cow. Some, indeed, assert that no animal could escape it but for its difficulty in turning; but to this resource we could wish none would trust who are so unhappy as to find themselves in danger.

Along the rivers of Africa this animal is sometimes taken in the same manner as the shark. Several Europeans go together in a large boat, and throw out a piece of beef upon a hook and strong-fortified line, which the crocodile seizing and swallowing, is drawn along, floundering and struggling until its strength is

quite exhausted, when it is pierced in the belly, which is its tenderest part; and thus, after numberless wounds, is drawn ashore. In this part of the world, also, as well as at Siam, the crocodile makes an object of savage pomp near the palaces of their monarchs. Philips informs us that at Sabi, on the slave coast, there are two pools of water near the royal palace, where crocodiles are bred as we breed carp in our ponds in Europe.

Hitherto I have been describing the crocodile as it is found in unpeopled countries, and undisturbed by frequent encounters with mankind. In this state it is fierce and cruel, attacking every object that seems endued with motion; but in Egypt and other countries long peopled, where the inhabitants are civilised and the rivers frequented, this animal is solitary and fearful. So far from coming to attack a man, it sinks at his approach with the utmost precipitation; and, as if sensible of superior power, even declines the engagement. We have seen more than one instance in *Animated Nature* of the contempt which at first the lower orders of the creation have for man till they have experienced his powers of destruction. The lion and tiger among beasts, the whale among fishes, the albatross and the penguin among birds, meet the first encounters of man without dread or apprehension; but they soon learn to acknowledge his superiority, and take refuge from his power in the deepest fastnesses of Nature. This may account for the different characters which have been given us of the crocodile and the alligator by travellers at different times—some describing them as harmless and fearful, as ever avoiding the sight of man, and preying only upon fishes; others ranking them among the destroyers of Nature; describing them as furnished with strength and impelled by malignity to do mischief—representing them as the greatest enemies of mankind, and particularly desirous of human prey. The truth is, the animal has been justly described by both—being such as it is found in places differently peopled or differently civilised. Wherever the crocodile has reigned long unmolested it is fierce, bold, and dangerous; wherever it has been harassed by mankind, its retreats invaded, and its numbers destroyed, it is there timorous and inoffensive.

In some places, therefore, this animal, instead of being formidable, is not only inoffensive, but is cherished and admired. In the river San Domingo the crocodiles are the most inoffensive animals in Nature; the children play with them, and ride about on their backs; they even beat them sometimes without receiving the smallest injury. It is true the inhabitants are very careful of this gentle breed, and consider them as harmless domestics.

It is probable that the smell of musk, which all these animals exhale, may render them agreeable to the savages of that part of Africa. They are often known to take the part of this animal which contains the musk, and wear it as a perfume about their persons. Travellers are not agreed in what part of the body these musk-bags are contained; some say in the ears, some in the parts of generation; but the most probable opinion is that this musky substance is amassed in glands under the legs and arms. From whatsoever part of the body this odour proceeds it is very strong and powerful, tincturing the flesh of the whole body with its taste and smell. The crocodile's flesh is at best very bad, tough eating; and unless the musk-bags be separated it is insupportable. The Negroes themselves cannot well digest the flesh; but then a crocodile's egg is to them the most delicate morsel in the world. Even savages exhibit their epicures as well as we; and one of true taste will spare neither pains nor danger to furnish himself with his favourite repast. For this reason he often watches the places where the female comes to lay her eggs, and upon her retiring seizes the booty.

All crocodiles breed near fresh waters, and though they are sometimes found in the sea, yet they may be

considered rather as a place of excursion than abode. They produce their young by eggs, as was said above; and for this purpose the female, when she comes to lay, chooses a place by the side of a river or some fresh-water lake to deposit her brood in. She always pitches upon an extensive sandy shore, where she may dig a hole without danger of detection, from the ground being fresh turned up. The shore must also be gentle and shelving to the water, for the greater convenience of the animal's going and returning; and a convenient place must be found near the edge of the stream, that the young may have a shorter way to go. When all these requisites are adjusted the animal is seen cautiously stealing upon shore to deposit her burthen. The presence of a man, a beast, or even a bird, is sufficient to deter her at that time; and if she perceives any creature looking on she infallibly returns. If, however, nothing appears, she then goes to work, scratching up the sand with her fore-paws, and making a hole pretty deep in the shore. There she deposits from eighty to a hundred eggs, of the size of a tennis-ball, and of the same figure, covered with a tough, white, skin-like parchment. She takes above an hour to perform this task; and then covering up the place so artfully that it can scarcely be perceived, she goes back to return again the next day. Upon her return, with the same precaution as before, she lays about the same number of eggs; and the day following, also, a like number. Thus having deposited her whole quantity, and having covered them close up in the sand, they are soon vivified by the heat of the sun; and at the end of thirty days the young ones break open the shell. At this time the female is instinctively taught that her young ones want relief; and she goes upon land to scratch away the sand and set them free. Her brood quickly avail themselves of their liberty; a part run unguided to the water; another part ascend the back of the female, and are carried thither in greater safety. But the moment they arrive at the water all natural connexion is at an end: when the female has introduced her young to their natural element, not only she, but the male, become among the number of their most formidable enemies, and devour as many of them as they can. The whole brood scatters into different parts at the bottom; by far the greatest number are destroyed, and the rest find safety in their agility or minuteness.

But it is not the crocodile alone that is thus found to thin their numbers; the eggs of this animal are not only a delicious feast to the savage, but are eagerly sought after by every beast and bird of prey. The ichneumon was erected into a deity among the ancients for its success in destroying the eggs of these monsters: at present that species of the vulture called the allinazo is their most prevailing enemy. All along the banks of great rivers, for thousands of miles, the crocodile is seen to propagate in numbers that would soon overrun the earth, but for the vulture, that seems appointed by Providence to abridge its fecundity. These birds are ever found in greatest numbers where the crocodile is most numerous; and, hiding themselves within the thick branches of the trees that shade the banks of the river, they watch the female in silence, and permit her to lay all her eggs without interruption. Then, when she has retired, they encourage each other with cries to the spoil; and, flocking all together upon the hidden treasure, tear up the eggs, and devour them in a much quicker time than they were deposited. Nor are they less diligent in attending the female while she is carrying her young to the water; for if any one of them happens to drop by the way it is sure to receive no mercy.

Such is the extraordinary account given us by late travellers of the propagation of this animal—an account adopted by Linnæus and the most learned naturalists of the age. Yet, if one might argue from the general analogy of Nature, the crocodile's devouring her own

young when she gets to the water seems doubtful. This may be a story raised from the general idea of this animal's rapacious cruelty; when, in fact, the crocodile only seems more cruel than other animals because it has more power to do mischief. It is probable that it is not more divested of parental tenderness than other creatures; and I am the more led to think so from the peculiar formation of one of the crocodile kind. This is called the open-bellied crocodile, and is furnished with a false belly like the opossum, where the young creep out and in as their dangers or necessities require. The crocodile thus furnished at least cannot be said to be an enemy to her own young, since she thus gives them more than parental protection. It is probable, also, that this open-bellied crocodile is viviparous, and fosters her young that are prematurely excluded in this second womb until they come to proper maturity.

How long the crocodile lives we are not certainly informed; if we may believe Aristotle, it lives to the age of a man; but the ancients so much amused themselves in inventing fables concerning this animal, that even truth from them is suspicious. What we know for certain from the ancients is, that among the various animals that were produced to fight in the Amphitheatre at Rome the combat of the crocodile was not wanting. Marcus Staurus produced them living in his unrivalled exhibitions; and the Romans considered him as the best citizen, because he furnished them with the most expensive entertainments. But entertainment at that corrupt time was their only occupation.

CHAP. III.

OF THE SALAMANDER.

The ancients have described a lizard that is bred from heat, that lives in the flames, and feeds upon fire as its proper nourishment. As they saw every other element—the air, the earth, and water—inhabited, Fancy was set to work to find or make an inhabitant in fire, and thus to people every part of Nature. It will be needless to say that there is no such animal existing; and that of all others the modern salamander has the smallest affinity to such an abode.

Whether the animal that now goes by the name of the salamander be the same with that described by Pliny is a doubt with me; but this is not a place for the discussion. It is sufficient to observe that the modern salamander is an animal of the lizard kind, and under this name is comprehended a large tribe that all go by the same name. There have been not less than seven sorts of this animal described by Seba; and to have some idea of the peculiarity of their figure, if we suppose the tail of a lizard applied to the body of a frog we shall not be far from precision. The common lizard is long, small, and taper; the salamander, like the frog, has its eyes towards the back of the head; like the frog, its snout is round and not pointed, and its belly thick and swollen. The claws of its toes are short and feeble, its skin rough, and the tongue, unlike that of the smallest of the lizard kind, in which it is long and forked, is short, and adhering to the under-jaw.

But it is not in figure that this animal chiefly differs from the rest of the lizard tribe; for it seems to differ in nature and conformation. In nature it is unlike, being a heavy, torpid animal; whereas the lizard tribe are active, restless, and ever in motion: in conformation it is unlike, as the salamander is produced alive from the body of its parent, and is completely formed the moment of its exclusion. It differs from them also in its general reputation of being venomous: however, no trials that have been hitherto made seem to confirm the truth of the report.

Not only this, but many others of the lizard tribe are said to have venom; but it were to be wished that mankind for their happiness would examine into the foundation of this reproach. By that means many of them that are now shunned and detested might be found inoffensive; their figure, instead of exciting either horror or disgust, would then only tend to animate the general scene of Nature; and speculation might examine their manners in confidence and security. Certain it is, that all of the lizard kind with which we are acquainted in this country are perfectly harmless; and it is equally true that, for a long time, till our prejudices were removed, we considered not only the newt, but the snake and the blind-worm, as fraught with the most destructive poison. At present we have got over these prejudices; and it is probable that if other nations made the same efforts for information, it would be found that the malignity of most, if not all, of the lizard tribe was only in the imagination.

With respect to the salamander, the whole tribe, from the moron to the gekko, are said to be venomous to the last degree; yet, when experiments have been tried, no arts, no provocations could excite these animals to the rage of biting. They seem timid and inoffensive, only living upon worms and insects; quite destitute of fangs, like the viper; their teeth are very small, and they are hardly able to inflict a wound. But as the teeth are thus incapable of offending, the people of the countries where they are found have recourse to a venomous slaver, which they suppose issues from the animal's mouth; they also tell us of a venom issuing from the claws: even Linnæus seems to acknowledge the fact; but thinks it a probable supposition that this venom may proceed from their urine.

Of all animals the gekko is the most notorious for its powers of mischief; yet we are told by those who load it with that calumny that it is very friendly to man, and though supplied with the most deadly virulence is yet never known to bite. It would be absurd in us, without experience, to pronounce upon the noxious or inoffensive qualities of animals; yet it is most probable, from an inspection of the teeth of lizards and from their inoffensive qualities in Europe, that the gekko has been unjustly accused; and that its serpent-like figure has involved it in one common reproach with serpents.

The salamander best known in Europe is from eight to eleven inches long, usually black, spotted with yellow, and when taken in the hand feeling cold to a great degree. There are several kinds. Our black water-newt is reckoned among the number. The idle report of its being inconsumable in fire has caused many of these poor animals to be burnt—but we cannot say as philosophical martyrs; since scarce any philosopher could think it necessary to make the experiment. When thrown into the fire the animal is seen to burst with the heat of its situation, and eject its fluids. We are gravely told, in the Philosophical Transactions, that this is a method the animal takes to extinguish the flames.

When examined internally, the salamander exhibits little difference from other animals of the lizard kind. It is furnished with lungs that sometimes serve for the offices of breathing; with a heart that has its communications open, so that the animal cannot easily be drowned. The ovary in the female is double the size of what it is in others of this tribe; and the male is furnished with four testiculi instead of two. But what deserves particular notice is the manner of this animal's bringing forth its young alive. "The salamander," says my author, "begins to show itself in spring, and chiefly during heavy rains. When the warm weather returns it disappears, and never leaves its hole during either great heats or severe colds, both which it equally fears. When taken in the hand it appears like a lump of ice; it consequently loves the shade, and is found at the feet of old trees surrounded with brushwood at the bottom.

It is fond of running along new-ploughed grounds—probably to seek for worms, which are its ordinary food. One of these," continues my author, "I took alive some years ago in a ditch that had been lately made. I laid it at the foot of the stairs upon coming home, and there it disgorged from the throat a worm three inches long, that lived for an hour after, though wounded as I suppose by the teeth of the animal. I afterwards cut up another of these lizards, and saw not less than fifty young ones, resembling the parent, come from its womb, all alive, and actively running about the room." It were to be wished the author had used another word beside that of "worm;" as we now are in doubt whether he means a real worm or a young animal of the lizard species: had he been more explicit, and had it appeared that it was a real young lizard, which I take to be his meaning, we might here see a wonder of Nature brought to the proof which many have asserted and many have thought proper to deny—I mean the refuge which the young of the shark, the lizard, and the viper kinds are said to take by running down the throat of the parent, and there finding a temporary security. The fact, indeed, seems a little extraordinary; and yet it is so frequently attested by some, and even believed by others whose authority is respectable, among the number of whom we find Mr. Pennant, that the argument of strangeness must give way to the weight of authority.

However this be, there is no doubt of the animal's being viviparous, and producing above fifty at a time. They come from the parent in full perfection, and quickly leave her to shift for themselves. These animals, in the lower ranks of Nature, want scarce any help when excluded; they soon complete the little circle of their education, and in a day or two are capable of practising all the arts of subsistence and evasion practised by their kind.

They are all amphibious, or at least are found capable of subsisting in either element when placed there; if those taken from land are put into water they continue there in seeming health; and, on the contrary, those taken from the water will live upon land. In water, however, they exhibit a greater variety in their appearance; and what is equally wonderful with the rest of their history, during the whole spring and summer this water-lizard changes its skin every fourth or fifth day, and during the winter every fifteen days. This operation they perform by means of the mouth and the claws; and it seems a work of no small difficulty and pain. The cast skins are frequently seen floating on the surface of the water; they are sometimes seen also with a part of their old skin still sticking to one of their limbs which they have not been able to get rid of; and thus, like a man with a boot half drawn, are in some measure crippled in their own spoils. This also often corrupts, and the leg drops off; but the animal does not seem to feel the want of it, for the loss of a limb to all the lizard kind is but a trifling calamity. They can live several hours even after the loss of their head; and for some time under dissection, all the parts of this animal seem to retain life: but the tail is the part that longest retains its motion. Salt seems to be much more efficacious in destroying these animals than the knife; for upon being sprinkled with it the whole body emits a viscous liquor, and the lizard dies in three minutes in great agonies.

The whole of the lizard kind are also tenacious of life in another respect, and the salamander among the number. They sustain the want of food in a surprising manner. One of them, brought from the Indies, lived nine months without any other food than what it received from licking a piece of earth on which it was brought over; another was kept by Seba in an empty vial for six months without any nourishment; and Redi talks of a large one, brought from Africa, that lived for eight months without taking any nourishment what-

ever. Indeed, as many of this kind, both salamanders and lizards, are torpid or nearly so during the winter, the loss of their appetite for so long a time is the less surprising.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE CAMELEON, THE IGUANA, AND LIZARDS OF DIFFERENT KINDS.

It were to be wished that animals could be so classed, that by the very mentioning their rank we should receive some insight into their history. This I have endeavoured to do in most instances; but in the present chapter all method is totally unserviceable. Here distribution gives no general ideas; for some of the animals to be here mentioned produce by eggs, some by spawn, and some are viviparous. The peculiar manner in propagating in each is very indistinctly known. The iguana and the cameleon we know bring forth eggs; some others also produce in the same manner; but of the rest, which naturalists make amount to above fifty, we have but very indistinct information.

In the former divisions of this tribe we had to observe upon animals formidable from their size, or disgusting from their frog-like head and appearance: in the present division all the animals are either beautiful to the eye or grateful to the appetite. The lizards, properly so called, are beautifully painted and mottled; their frolicsome agility is amusing to those who are familiar with their appearance; and the great affection which some of them show to man should in some measure be repaid with kindness. Others, such as the iguana, though not possessed of beauty, are very serviceable, furnishing one of the most luxurious feasts the tropical climates can boast of. Those treated of before were objects of curiosity, because they were apparently objects of danger; most of these here mentioned have either use or beauty to engage us.

Directly descending from the crocodile, we find the cordyle, the tockay, and the tejuguacu, all growing less in order as I have named them. These fill up the chasm to be found between the crocodile and the African iguana.

The iguana which deserves our notice is about five feet long, and the body about as thick as one's thigh: the skin is covered with small scales, like those of a serpent; and the back is furnished with a row of prickles, that stand up like the teeth of a saw; the eyes seem to be but half opened, except when the animal is angry, and then they appear large and sparkling; both the jaws are full of very sharp teeth, and the bite is dangerous though not venomous, for it never lets loose till it is killed. The male has a skin hanging under his throat, which reaches down to his breast; and, when displeased, he puffs it up like a bladder; he is one-third larger and stronger than the female; though the strength of either avails them little towards their defence. The males are ash-coloured, and the females are green.

The flesh of these may be considered as the greatest delicacy of Africa and America; and the sportsmen of those climates go out to hunt the iguana as we do in pursuit of the pheasant or the hare. In the beginning of the season, when the great floods of the tropical climates are past away, and vegetation starts into universal verdure, the sportsmen are seen, with a noose and a stick, wandering along the sides of the rivers to take the iguana. This animal, though apparently formed for combat, is the most harmless creature of all the forest; it lives among the trees or sports in the water without ever offering to offend: there, having fed upon the flowers of the mahot and the leaves of the mapou, that grow along the banks of the stream, it goes

to repose upon the branches of the trees that hang over the water. Upon land the animal is swift of foot; but when once in possession of a tree it seems conscious of the security of its situation, and never offers to stir. There the sportsman easily finds it, and as easily fastens his noose round his neck; if the head be placed in such a manner that the noose cannot readily be fastened, by hitting the animal a blow on the nose with the stick it lifts the head, and offers it in some manner to the noose. In this manner, and also by the tail, the iguana is dragged from the trees, and killed by repeated blows on the head.

Theameleon is a very different animal; and as the iguana satisfies the appetite of the epicure, this is rather the feast of the philosopher. Like the crocodile, this little animal proceeds from an egg; and it also nearly resembles that formidable creature in form; but it differs widely in its size and its appetites—being not more than eleven inches long, and delighting to sit upon trees. It is afraid of serpents, from which it is unable to escape on the ground.

The head of a large cameleon is nearly two inches long, and from thence to the beginning of the tail four and a half; the tail is five inches long, and the feet two and a half; the thickness of the body is different at different times; for sometimes from the back to the belly it is two inches and sometimes but one, as it can blow itself up and contract itself at pleasure. This swelling and contraction is not only of the back and belly, but also of the legs and tail.

These different tumours do not proceed from a dilation of the breast in breathing, which rises and falls by turns, but are very irregular, and seem adopted merely from caprice. The cameleon is often seen as it were blown up for two hours together, and then it continues growing less and less insensibly; for the dilation is always more quick and visible than the contraction. In this last state the animal appears extremely lean; the spine of the back seems sharp, and all the ribs may be counted; the tendons of the legs and arms may also be seen very distinctly.

This method of puffing itself up is similar to that in pigeons, whose crops are sometimes greatly distended with air. The cameleon has a power of driving the air it breathes over every part of the body; however, it only gets between the skin and the muscles; for the muscles themselves are never swollen. The skin is very cold to the touch; and though the animal seems so lean, there is no feeling the beating of the heart. The surface of the skin is unequal, and has a grain not unlike shagreen, but very soft, each eminence being as smooth as though it were polished. Some of these little protuberances are as large as a pin's head on the arms, legs, belly, and tail; but on the shoulders and head they are of an oval figure, and a little larger. Those under the throat are ranged in the form of a chaplet, from the lower lip to the breast. The colour of all these eminences, when the cameleon is at rest in a shady place, is of a blueish grey, and the space between is of a pale red and yellow.

But when the animal is removed into the sun then comes the wonderful part of its history. At first it appears to suffer no change of colour, its greyish spots still continuing the same; but the whole surface soon seems to imbibe the rays of light, and the simple colouring of the body changes into a variety of beautiful hues. Wherever the light comes upon the body it is a tawny brown; but that part of the skin on which the sun does not shine changes into several brighter colours—pale yellow or vivid crimson—which form spots of the size of half one's finger: some of these descend from the spine half way down the back; and others appear on the sides, arms, and tail. When the sun has done shining the original grey colour returns by degrees and covers all the body. Sometimes the animal becomes all over

spotted with brown spots of a greenish cast. When it is wrapped up in a white linen cloth for two or three minutes the natural colour becomes much lighter, but not quite white, as some authors have pretended; however, from hence it must not be concluded that the cameleon assumes the colour of the objects which it approaches; this is entirely an error, and probably has taken its rise from the continual changes it appears to undergo.

Le Bruyn, in his voyage to the Levant, has given us a very ample description of the cameleon. During his stay at Smyrna he bought several of this kind, and, to try how long they could live, kept four of them in a cage, permitting them at times to run about the house. The fresh sea-breeze seemed to give them most spirits and vivacity; they opened their mouths to take it in: he never perceived that they eat anything, except now and then a fly, which they took half an hour to swallow; he observed their colour often to change, three or four times successively, without being able to find out any cause for such alterations: their common colour he found to be grey, or rather a pale mouse-colour; but its most frequent changes were into a beautiful green spotted with yellow: sometimes the animal was marked all over with dark-brown; and this often changed into a lighter brown: some colours, however, it never assumed, and, contrary to what was said above, he found red to be among the number.

Though our traveller took the utmost care, he was unable to preserve any of them alive above five months; and many of them died in four. When the cameleon changes place and attempts to descend from an eminence it moves with the utmost precaution, advancing one leg very deliberately before the other, still securing itself by holding whatever it can grasp by the tail. It seldom opens its mouth, except for fresh air; and, when that is supplied, discovers its satisfaction by its motions and the frequent changes of its colour. The tongue is sometimes darted out after its prey, which is flies. The tongue is as long as the whole body. The eyes are remarkably little, though they stand out of the head; they have a single eye-lid, like a cap with a hole in the middle, through which the sight of the eye appears, which is of a shining brown: and round it there is a little circle of gold-colour: but the most extraordinary part of their conformation is, that the animal often moves one eye when the other is entirely at rest; nay, sometimes one eye will seem to look directly forward while the other looks backward, and one will look upwards while the other regards the earth.

To this class of lizards we may refer the dragon, a most terrible animal, but most probably not of Nature's formation. Of this death-dealing creature all people have read; and the most barbarous countries to this day paint it to the imagination in all its terrors, and fear to meet it in every forest. It is not enough that Nature has furnished those countries with poison of various malignity—with serpents forty feet long—with elephants, lions, and tigers, to make their situation really dangerous; the capricious imagination is set to work to call up new terrors; and scarce a savage is found that does not talk of winged serpents of immoderate length flying away with the camel or the rhinoceros, or destroying mankind by a single glare. Happily, however, such ravagers are no where found to exist at present; and the whole race of dragons is dwindled down to the flying lizard, a little harmless creature that only preys upon insects, and even seems to embellish the forest with its beauty. The flying lizard of Java perches upon fruit-trees, and feeds upon flies, ants, butterflies, and other small insects. It is a very harmless creature, and does no mischief in any respect. Gentil, in his Voyage round the World, affirms that he has seen these lizards at the island of Java in the East Indies. He observed they flew very swiftly from tree to tree; and having killed one he could not but admire the skin, which was painted with several beautiful

colours: it was a foot in length, and had four paws, like the common lizards; but its head was flat, and had a small hole in the middle; the wings were very thin, and resembled those of a flying fish. About the neck were a sort of wattles, not unlike those of cocks, which gave it no disagreeable appearance. He intended to have preserved it in order to bring it into Europe; but it was corrupted by the heat before the close of the day; however, they have since been brought into England, and are now common enough in the cabinets of the curious.

The last animal of the lizard kind that I shall mention is the Chalcidian lizard of Aldrovandus, very improperly called the seps by modern historians. This animal seems to make the shade that separates the lizard from the serpent race. It has four legs, like the lizard, but so short as to be utterly unserviceable in walking: it has a long slender body, like the serpent; and it is said to have the serpent's malignity also. The fore-legs are very near the head; the hind legs are placed far backward; but before and behind they seem rather useless incumbrances than instruments serving to assist the animal in its motions, or in providing for its subsistence. These animals are found above three feet long, and thick in proportion, with a large head and pointed snout. The whole body is covered with scales; and the belly is white mixed with blue. It has four crooked teeth, as also a pointed tail, which, however, can inflict no wound. Whether the teeth be similar to the viper's fangs we are not told; though Volateranus says they are covered with a membrane; by which I am apt to think he means a venom-bag, which is found at the root of the teeth of all serpents that are poisonous. It is viviparous; fifteen young ones having been taken alive out of its belly. Upon the whole, it appears to bear a strong affinity to the viper; and, like that animal, its bite may be dangerous.

BOOK III.—CHAP. I.

OF SERPENTS IN GENERAL.

We now come to a tribe that not only their deformity, their venom, their ready malignity, but also our prejudices and our very religion has taught us to detest. The serpent has from the beginning been the enemy of man; and it has hitherto continued to terrify and annoy him, notwithstanding all the arts that have been practised to destroy it. Formidable in itself, it deters the invader from the pursuit; and from its figure capable of finding shelter in a little space, it is not easily discovered by those who would venture to try the encounter. Thus possessed at once of potent arms and inaccessible or secure retreats, it baffles all the arts of man, though never so earnestly bent upon its destruction.

Their numbers, however, are thinned by human assiduity; and it is possible some of the kinds are wholly destroyed. In none of the countries of Europe are they sufficiently numerous to be truly terrible; the philosopher can meditate in the fields without danger, and the lover seek the grove without fearing any wounds but those of metaphor. The various malignity that has been ascribed to European serpents of old is now utterly unknown; there are not above three or four kinds that are dangerous, and their poison operates in all in the same manner. A burning pain in the part, easily removable by timely applications, is the worst effect that we experience from the bite of the most venomous serpents of Europe. The drowsy death, the starting of the blood from every pore, the insatiable and burning thirst, the melting down the solid mass of the whole form into one heap of putrefaction—these are horrors with which we are entirely unacquainted.

But though we have thus reduced these dangers, having been incapable of wholly removing them, in other parts of the world they still rage with all their ancient malignity. Nature seems to have placed them as sentinels to deter mankind from spreading too widely, and from seeking new abodes till they have thoroughly cultivated those at home. In the warm countries that lie within the tropic as well as in the cold regions of the north, where the inhabitants are few, the serpents propagate in equal proportion. But of all countries those regions have them in the greatest abundance where the fields are unpeopled and fertile, and where the climate supplies warmth and humidity. All along the swampy banks of the river Niger or the Oronoco, where the sun is hot, the forests thick, and the men but few, the serpents cling upon the branches of the trees in infinite numbers, and carry on an unceasing war against all other animals in their vicinity. Travellers have assured us that they have often seen large snakes twining round the trunk of a tall tree, encompassing it like a wreath, and thus rising and descending at pleasure. In these countries, therefore, the serpent is too formidable to become an object of curiosity, for it excites more violent sensations.

We are not, therefore, to reject as wholly fabulous the accounts left us by the ancients of the terrible devastations committed by a single serpent. It is probable in early times, when the arts were little known and mankind were but thinly scattered over the earth, that serpents, continuing undisturbed possessors of the forest, grew to an amazing magnitude, and every other tribe of animals fell before them. It then might have happened that serpents reigned the tyrants of a district for centuries together. To animals of this kind, grown by time and rapacity to a hundred or a hundred and fifty feet in length, the lion, the tiger, and even the elephant itself, were but feeble opponents. The dreadful monster spread desolation round him; every creature that had life was devoured, or fled to a distance. That horrible "fætor," which even the commonest and the most harmless snakes are still found to diffuse, might in these larger ones become too powerful for any living being to withstand; and while they preyed without distinction, they might thus also have poisoned the atmosphere around them. In this manner, having for ages lived in the hidden and unpeopled forest, and finding as their appetites were more powerful the quantity of their prey decreasing, it is possible they might venture boldly from their retreats into the more cultivated parts of the country, and carry consternation among mankind, as they before had carried desolation among the lower ranks of Nature. We have many histories of antiquity presenting us such a picture, and exhibiting a whole nation sinking under the ravages of a single serpent. At that time man had not learned the art of uniting the efforts of many to effect one great purpose. Opposing multitudes only added new victims to the general calamity, and increased mutual embarrassment and terror. The animal was therefore to be singly opposed by him who had the greatest strength, the best armour, and the most undaunted courage. In such an encounter hundreds must have fallen; till one, more lucky than the rest, by a fortunate blow, or by taking the monster in its torpid interval and surcharged with spoil, might kill, and thus rid his country of the destroyer. Such was the original occupation of heroes; and those who first obtained that name, from their destroying the ravagers of the earth, gained it much more deservedly than their successors, who acquired their reputation only for their skill in destroying each other. But as we descend into more enlightened antiquity we find these animals less formidable, as being attacked in a more successful manner. We are told that while Regulus led his army along the banks of the river Bagrada, in Africa, an enormous serpent disputed his passage over. We are assured by

Pliny, who says that he himself saw the skin, that it was a hundred and twenty feet long, and that it had destroyed many of the army. At last, however, the battering-engines were brought out against it; and these assailing it at a distance it was soon destroyed. Its spoils were carried to Rome, and the general was decreed an ovation for its success. There are, perhaps, few facts better ascertained in history than this; an ovation was a remarkable honour, and was given only for some signal exploit that did not deserve a triumph: no historian would offer to invent that part of the story at least without being subject to the most shameful detection. The skin was kept for several years after in the Capitol; and Pliny says he saw it there: now, though Pliny was a credulous writer, he was by no means a false one; and whatever he says he has seen we may very safely rely on. At present, indeed, such ravages from serpents are scarce seen in any part of the world; not but that in Africa and America some of them are powerful enough to brave the assaults of men to this day.

But happily for us, we are placed at such a distance as to take a view of this tribe without fearing for our safety. To us their slender form, their undulating motion, their vivid colouring, their horrid stench, their forked tongue, and their envenomed fangs are totally harmless; and in this country their uses even serve to counterbalance the mischief they sometimes occasion.

If we take a survey of serpents in general, they have marks by which they are distinguished from all the rest of animated nature. They have the length and suppleness of the eel, but want fins to swim with; they have the scaly covering and pointed tail of the lizard, but they want legs to walk with; they have the crawling motion of the worm, but, unlike that animal, they have lungs to breathe with: like all the reptile kind, they are resentful when offended: and Nature has supplied them with terrible arms to revenge every injury.

Though they are possessed of very different degrees of malignity, yet they are all formidable to man, and have a strong similitude of form to each other; and it will be proper to mark the general characters before we descend to particulars. With respect to their conformation, all serpents have a very wide mouth in proportion to the size of the head; and what is very extraordinary, they can gape and swallow the head of another animal which is three times as big as their own. I have seen a toad taken out of the belly of a snake, at Lord Spencer's, near London, the body of which was thrice the diameter of the animal that swallowed it. However, it is no way surprising that the skin of the snake should stretch to receive so large a morsel; the wonder seems how the jaws could take it in. To explain this, it must be observed that the jaws of this animal do not open as ours, in the manner of a pair of hinges, where bones are applied to bones and play upon one another; on the contrary, the serpent's jaws are held together at the roots by a stretching muscular skin; by which means they open as widely as the animal chooses to stretch them, and admit of a prey much thicker than the snake's own body. The throat, like stretching leather, dilates to admit the morsel; the stomach receives it in part; and the rest remaining in the gullet, putrefaction and the juices of the serpent's body unite to dissolve it.

As to the teeth, I will talk more of them when I come to treat of the viper's poison; it will be sufficient here to observe that some serpents have fangs, or canine teeth, and others are without them. The teeth in all are crooked and hollow; and, by a peculiar contrivance, are capable of being erected or depressed at pleasure.

The eyes of all serpents are small, if compared to the length of the body; and though differently coloured in different kinds, yet the appearance of all is malign and heavy; and from their known qualities they strike the imagination with the idea of a creature meditating mischief. In some the upper-eyelid

is wanting, and the serpent winks only with that below; in others, the animal has a nictitating membrane or skin, resembling that which is found in birds, which keeps the eyes clean and preserves the sight. The substance of the eye in all is hard and horny—the crystalline humour occupying a great part of the globe.

The holes for hearing are very visible in all; but there are no conduits for smelling; though it is probable that some of them enjoy that sense in tolerable perfection.

The tongue in all these animals is long and forked. It is composed of two long fleshy substances, which terminate in sharp points, and are very pliable. At the root it is connected very strongly to the neck by two tendons, that give a variety of play. Some of the viper kind have tongues a fifth part of the length of their bodies; they are continually darting them out, but they are entirely harmless, and only terrify those who are ignorant of the real situation of their poison.

If from the jaws we go on to the gullet, we shall find it very wide for the animal's size, and capable of being disended to a great degree; at the bottom of this lies the stomach, which is not capacious, and receives only a part of the prey, while the rest continues in the gullet for digestion. When the substance in the gullet is dissolved into chyle it passes into the intestines, and from thence goes to nourishment, or to be excluded by the vent.

Like most other animals, serpents are furnished with lungs, which I suppose are serviceable in breathing, though we cannot perceive the manner in which this operation is performed; for though serpents are often seen apparently to draw in their breath, yet we cannot find the smallest sign of their ever respiring it again. Their lungs, however, are long and large, and doubtless are necessary to promote their languid circulation. The heart is formed as in the tortoise, the frog, and the lizard kinds, so as to work without the assistance of the lungs. It is single, the greatest part of the blood flowing from the great vein to the great artery by the shortest course. By this contrivance of Nature we easily gather two consequences—that snakes are amphibious, being equally capable of living on land and in the water; and also that they are torpid in winter, like the bat, the lizard, and other animals formed in the same manner.

The vent in these animals serves for the emission of the urine and the fæces, and for the purposes of generation. The instrument of generation in the male is double, being forked like the tongue; the ovaries in the female are double also; and the aperture is very large, in order to receive the double instrument of the male. They copulate in their retreats; and it is said by the ancients that in this situation they appear like a serpent with two heads; but how far this remark is founded in truth I do not find any of the moderns that can resolve me.

As the body of this animal is long, slender, and capable of bending in every direction, the number of joints in the back-bone are numerous beyond what one would imagine. In the generality of quadrupeds they amount to not above thirty or forty; in the serpent kind they amount to a hundred and forty-five from the head to the vent, and twenty-five more from that to the tail. The number of these joints must give the back-bone a surprising degree of pliancy; but this is still increased by the manner in which each of these joints are locked into the other. In man and quadrupeds the flat surfaces of the bones are laid one against the other, and bound tight by sinews; but in serpents the bones play one within the other like ball and socket, so that they have full motion upon each other in every direction. Thus, if a man were to form a machine composed of so many joints as are found in the back of a serpent, he would find it no easy matter to give it such strength and

pliancy at the same time. The chain of a watch is but a bungling piece of workmanship in comparison.

Though the number of joints in the back-bone is great, yet that of the ribs is still greater; for from the head to the vent there are two ribs to every joint, which makes their number two hundred and ninety in all. These ribs are furnished with muscles, four in number; which, being inserted into the head, run along to the end of the tail, and give the animal strength and agility in all its motions.

The skin also contributes to its motions, being composed of a number of scales, united to each other by a transparent membrane, which grows harder as it grows older, until the animal changes, which is generally done twice a year. This cover then bursts near the head, and the serpent creeps from it, by an undulatory motion, in a new skin, much more vivid than the former. If the old slough be then viewed, every scale will be distinctly seen like a piece of net-work, and will be found greatest where the part of the body they covered was largest.

There is much geometrical neatness in the disposal of the serpent's scales for assisting the animal's sinuous motion. As the edges of the foremost scales lie over the ends of their following scales, so those edges, when the scales are erected, which the animal has a power of doing in a small degree, catch in the ground, like the nails in the wheel of a chariot, and so promote and facilitate the animal's progressive motion. The erecting these scales is by means of a multitude of distinct muscles with which each is supplied, and one end of which is tacked each to the middle of the foregoing.

In some of the serpent kind there is the most exact symmetry in these scales; in others they are disposed more irregularly. In some there are larger scales on the belly, and often answering to the number of ribs; in others, however, the animal is without them. Upon this slight difference Linnæus has founded his distinctions of the various classes of the serpent tribe. Human curiosity, however, and even human interest, seem to plead for a very different method of distribution. It is not the number of scales on a formidable animal's belly, nor their magnitude or variety, that any way excite our concern. The first question that every man will naturally ask when he hears of a snake is whether it be large; the second, whether it be venomous. In other words, the strongest lines in the animal's history are those that first excite our attention; and these it is every historian's business to display.

When we come to compare serpents with each other the first great distinction appears in their size—no other tribe of animals differing so widely in this particular. What, for instance, can be so remotely separated as the great liboya of Surinam, that grows to thirty-six feet long, and the little serpent at the Cape of Good Hope and the north of the river Senegal, that is not above three inches, and covers whole sandy deserts with its multitudes! This tribe of animals, like that of fishes, seems to have no bounds put to their growth: their bones are in a great measure cartilaginous, and they are consequently capable of great extension; the older, therefore, a serpent becomes the larger it grows; and as they seem to live to a great age they arrive at an enormous size.

Leguat assures us that he saw one in Java that was fifty feet long. Carli mentions their growing to above forty feet; and we have now the skin of one in the Museum that measures thirty-two. Mr. Wentworth, who had large concerns in the Berbices, in America, assures me that in that country they grow to an enormous length. He one day sent out a soldier with an Indian to kill wild fowl for the table, and they accordingly went some miles from the fort; in pursuing their game the Indian, who generally marched before, beginning to tire, went to rest himself upon the fallen trunk of a tree, as he supposed it to be but when he

was just going to sit down the enormous monster began to move, and the poor savage perceiving that he had approached a liboya, the greatest of all the serpent kind, dropped down in agony. The soldier, who perceived at some distance what had happened, levelled at the serpent's head, and, by a lucky aim, shot it dead; however, he continued his fire until he was assured that the animal was killed; and then going up to rescue his companion, who had fallen motionless by its side, he to his astonishment found him dead likewise, being killed by the fright. Upon his return to the fort and telling what had happened, Mr. Wentworth ordered the animal to be brought up, when it was measured, and found to be thirty-six feet long. He had the skin stuffed, and then sent to Europe as a present to the Prince of Orange.

In the East Indies they grow also to an enormous size, particularly in the Island of Java, where we are assured one of them will destroy and devour a buffalo. In a letter, printed in the German Ephemerides, we have an account of a combat between an enormous serpent and a buffalo, by a person who assures us that he was himself a spectator. The serpent had for some time been waiting near the brink of a pool in expectation of its prey, when a buffalo was the first that offered. Having darted upon the affrighted animal, it instantly began to wrap it round with its voluminous twistings; and at every twist the bones of the buffalo were heard to crack almost as loud as the report of a cannon. It was in vain that the poor animal struggled and bellowed; its enormous enemy entwined it too closely to get free; till at length, all its bones being smashed to pieces like those of a malefactor on the wheel, and the whole body reduced to one uniform mass, the serpent untwined its folds to swallow its prey at leisure. To prepare for this, and in order to make the body slip down the throat more glibly, it was seen to lick the whole carcase over, and thus cover it with its mucus. It then began to swallow it at that end that offered least resistance; while its length of body was dilated to receive its prey, and thus took in at once a morsel that was three times its own thickness. We are assured by travellers that these animals are often found with the body of a stag in their gullet, while the horns, which they are unable to swallow, keep sticking out at their mouths.

But it is happy for mankind that the rapacity of these frightful creatures is often their punishment: for whenever any of the serpent kind have gorged themselves in this manner, whenever their body is seen particularly distended with food, they then become torpid, and may be approached and destroyed with safety. Patient of hunger to a surprising degree, whenever they seize and swallow their prey, they seem, like surfeited gluttons, unwieldy, stupid, helpless, and sleepy; they at that time seek some retreat, where they may lurk for several days together, and digest their meal in safety: the smallest effort at that time is capable of destroying them; they can scarce make any resistance; and they are equally unqualified for flight or opposition: that is the happy opportunity of attacking them with success; at that time the naked Indian himself does not suffer to assail them. But it is otherwise when this sleepy interval of digestion is over; they then issue with famished appetites from their retreats, and with accumulated terrors, while every animal of the forest flies before them.

Carli describes the long serpent of Congo making its track through the tall grass like mowers in a summer's day. He could not without terror behold whole lines of grass lying levelled under the sweep of its tail. In this manner it moved forward with great rapidity, until it found a proper situation frequented by its prey; there it continued to lurk, in patient expectation, and would have remained for weeks together had it not been disturbed by the natives.

Other creatures have a choice in their provision; but the serpent indiscriminately preys upon all—the buffalo, the tiger, and the gazelle. One would think that the porcupine's quills might be sufficient to protect it; but whatever has life serves to appease the hunger of these devouring creatures: porcupines, with all their quills, have frequently been found in their stomachs when killed and opened; nay, they most frequently are seen to devour each other.

A life of savage hostility in the forest offers the imagination one of the most tremendous pictures in Nature. In those burning countries where the sun dries up every brook for hundreds of miles round—when what had the appearance of a great river in the rainy season becomes in summer one dreary bed of sand—in those countries, I say, a lake that is never dry or a brook that is perennial is considered by every animal as the greatest convenience in Nature. As to food, the luxuriant landscape supplies that in sufficient abundance: it is the want of water that all animals endeavour to remove; and, inwardly parched by the heat of the climate, traverse whole deserts to find out a spring. When they have discovered this no dangers can deter them from attempting to slake their thirst. Thus the neighbourhood of a rivulet in the heart of the tropical continents is generally the place where all the hostile tribes of Nature draw up for the engagement. On the banks of this little envied spot thousands of animals of various kinds are seen venturing to quench their thirst, or preparing to seize their prey. The elephants are perceived in a long line marching from the darker parts of the forest; the buffaloes are there, depending upon numbers for security; the gazelles, relying solely upon their swiftness; the lion and tiger, waiting a proper opportunity to seize; but chiefly the larger serpents are upon guard there, and defend the accesses of the lake. Not an hour passes without some dreadful combat; but the serpent, defended by its scales, and naturally capable of sustaining a multitude of wounds, is of all others the most formidable. It is the most wakeful also; for the whole tribe sleep with their eyes open, and are consequently for ever upon the watch; so that till their rapacity is satisfied, few other animals will venture to approach near their station.

But, though these animals are of all others the most voracious, and though the morsel which they swallow without chewing is greater than what any other creature, either by land or water, the whale itself not excepted, can devour, yet no animal upon earth bears abstinence so long as they. A single meal with many of the snake kind seems to be the adventure of a season; it is an occurrence for which they have been for weeks, nay, sometimes for months, in patient expectation of. When they have seized their prey their industry for several weeks is entirely discontinued; the fortunate capture of an hour often satisfies them for the remaining period of their annual activity. As their blood is colder than that of most other terrestrial animals, and as it circulates but slowly through their bodies, so their powers of digestion are but feeble. Their prey continues for a long time partly in the stomach, partly in the gullet; and a part is often seen hanging out of the mouth. In this manner it digests by degrees; and in proportion as the part below is dissolved the part above is taken in. It is not, therefore, till this tedious operation is entirely performed that the serpent renews its appetite and its activity. But should any accident prevent it from issuing once more from its cell, it still can continue to bear famine for weeks and months together. Vipers are often kept in boxes for six or eight months without any food whatever; and there are little serpents sometimes sent over to Europe from Grand Cairo, the name of which I have not been able to learn, that live for several years in glasses, and never eat at all, nor even stain the glass with their excrements. Thus the serpent tribe unite in

themselves two very opposite qualities—wonderful abstinence, and yet incredible rapacity.

If, leaving the consideration of their appetites, we come to compare serpents as to their voices, some are found silent, some have a peculiar cry, but hissing is the sound which they most commonly send forth, either as a call to their kind or as a threat to their enemies. In the countries where they are generally silent in the middle of the day (when they are obliged to retire from the heat of the climate), as the cool of the evening approaches they are then heard issuing from their cells with continued hissings; and such is the variety of their notes, that some have assured me they very much resemble the music of an English grove. This some will hardly credit—at any rate, such notes, however pleasing, can but give very little delight when we call to mind the malignity of the minstrel. If considered, indeed, as they answer the animal's own occasions, they will be found well adapted to its nature, and fully answering the purpose of terrifying such as would venture to offend it.

With respect to motion, some serpents, particularly those of the viper kind, move slowly; while others, such as the ammodytes, dart with amazing swiftness. The motion in all is similar; but the strength of the body in some gives a very different appearance. The viper, which is but a slow, feeble-bodied animal, makes its way in a heavy, undulating manner—advancing its head, then drawing up its tail behind, and bending the body into a bow, then, from the spot where the head and tail were united, advancing the head forward as before. This, which is the motion of all serpents, is very different from that of the earth-worm or the naked snail. The serpent, as was said above, has a back-bone with numerous joints; and this bone the animal has a power of bending in every direction, but without being able to shorten or lengthen it at pleasure. The earth-worm, on the other hand, has no back-bone; but its body is composed of rings, which, like a barber's puff, it can lengthen or shorten as it finds necessary. The earth-worm, therefore, in order to move forward lengthens the body; and then by the fore part clings to the ground, where it has reached, and then contracts and brings up its rear; then, when the body is thus shortened, the fore part is lengthened again for another progression, and so on. The serpent, instead of shortening the body, bends it into an arch; and this is the principal difference between serpentine and vermicular progression.

I have instanced this motion in the viper as most easily discerned; but there are many serpents that dart with such amazing swiftness, that they appear rather to leap than crawl. It is most probable, however, that no serpent can dart upon even ground farther than its own length at one effort. Our fears, indeed, may increase the force of their speed, which is sometimes found so fatal. We are told by some that they will dart to a very great distance; but this my inquiries have never been able to ascertain. The manner of progression in the swiftest serpent we know, which is the jaculus, is by instantly coiling itself upon its tail, and darting from thence to its full extent; then carrying the tail as quick as lightning to the head, coiling and darting again: and by this means proceeding, with extreme rapidity, without ever quitting the ground. Indeed, if we consider the length and the weakness of the back-bone in all these animals—if we regard the make of their vertebræ, in which we shall find the junctures all formed to give play and none to give power, we cannot be of opinion that they have a faculty of springing from the ground, as they entirely want a "fulcrum," if I may so express it, from whence to take their spring—the whole body being composed of unsupported muscles and joints that are yielding. It must be confessed that they dart down from trees upon their prey; but their weight alone is sufficient for that purpose without much effort of their own.

Though all serpents are amphibious, some are much fonder of the water than others; and, though destitute of fins or gills, remain at the bottom or swim along the surface with great ease. From their internal structure, just sketched above, we see how well adapted they are for either element, and how capable their blood is of circulating at the bottom as freely as in the frog or the tortoise. They can, however, endure to live in fresh-water only; for salt is an effectual bane to the whole tribe. The greatest serpents are most usually found in fresh-water, either choosing it as their favourite element, or finding their prey in such places in the greatest abundance. But that all will live and swim in liquids appears from the experiment of Redi, who put a serpent into a large glass vessel of wine, where it lived swimming about for six hours; though, when it was by force immersed, and kept under that liquid, it lived only one hour and a half. He put another in common water, where it lived three days; but when it was kept under water it lived only about twelve hours. Their motion there, however, is perfectly the reverse of what it is upon land; for, in order to support themselves upon an element lighter than their bodies, they are obliged to increase their surface in a very artificial manner. On earth their windings are perpendicular to the surface—in water they are parallel to it; in other words, if I should wave my hand up and down, it will give an idea of the animal's progress on land; if I should wave it to the right and left, it will give some idea of its progress on the water.

Some serpents have a most horrible factor attending them, which is alone capable of intimidating the brave. This proceeds from two glands near the vent, like those in the weasel or polecat: and, like those animals, in proportion as they are excited by rage or by fear the scent grows stronger. It would seem, however, that such serpents as are most venomous are least offensive in this particular, since the rattle-snake and the viper have no smell whatever. Nay, we are told that at Calcut and Oranganon, in the East Indies, there are some very noxious serpents, who are so far from being disagreeable that their excrements are sought after and kept as the most pleasing perfume. The Esculapian serpent is also of this number.

Some serpents bring forth their young alive, as the viper; some bring forth eggs, which are hatched by the heat of their situation, as the common black snake and the majority of the serpent tribe. When a reader, ignorant of anatomy, is told that some of these animals produce their young alive and that some produce eggs only, he is apt to suppose a very great difference in the internal conformation which makes such a variety in the manner of bringing forth. But this is not the case; these animals are internally alike in whatever manner they produce their young; and the variety in their bringing forth is rather a slight than a real discrimination. The only difference is, that the viper hatches her eggs and brings them to maturity within her body; the snake is more premature in her productions, and sends her eggs into the light some time before the young ones are capable of leaving the shell. Thus, if either are opened the eggs will be found in the womb, covered with their membranous shell and adhering to each other like large beads on a string. In the eggs of both young ones will be found, though at different stages of maturity: those of the viper will crawl and bite the moment the shell that encloses them is broke open; those of the snake are not yet arrived at their perfect form.

Labat took a serpent of the viper kind that was nine feet long, and ordered it to be opened in his presence. He then saw the manner in which eggs of these animals lie in the womb. In this creature there were six eggs, each of the size of a goose-egg, but longer, more pointed, and covered with a membranous skin, by which also they were united to each other. Each of these eggs

contained from thirteen to fifteen young ones, about six inches long, and as thick as a goose-quill. Though the female from whence they were taken was spotted, the young seemed to have a variety of colours very different from the parent; and this led the traveller to suppose that the colour was no characteristic mark among serpents. These little mischievous animals were no sooner let loose from the shell than they crept about, and put themselves into a threatening posture, coiling themselves up and biting the stick with which he was destroying them. In this manner he killed seventy-four young ones: those that were contained in one of the eggs escaped at the place where the female was killed by the bursting of the egg and their getting among the bushes.

The last distinction that I shall mention, but the most material among serpents, is that some are venomous and some inoffensive. If we consider the poison of serpents as it relates to man, there is no doubt but that it is a scourge and an affliction. The various calamities that the poison of serpents is capable of producing are not only inflicted by the animal itself, but by men more mischievous than even serpents, who prepare their venom to destroy each other. With this the savages poison their arms, and also prepare their revengeful potions. The ancients were known to preserve it for the purpose of suicide; and even among semi-barbarous countries at this day the venom of snakes is used as a philtre.

But though the poison be justly terrible to us, it has been given to every good purposes for the animal's own proper support and defence. Without this, serpents, of all other animals, would be the most exposed and defenceless: without feet for escaping a pursuit—without teeth capable of inflicting a dangerous wound, or with out strength for resistance—incapable from their size of finding security in very small retreats, like the earth-worm, and disgusting all from their deformity, nothing was left for them but a speedy extirpation. But furnished as they are with powerful poison, every rank of animals approach them with dread, and never seize them but at an advantage. Nor is this all the advantage they derive from it. The malignity of a few serves for the protection of all. Though not above a tenth of their number, are actually venomous, yet the similitude they all bear to each other excites a general terror of the whole tribe; and the uncertainty of their enemies in which the poison chiefly resides makes even the most harmless formidable. Thus Providence seems to have acted with double precaution. He has given some of them poison for the general defence of a tribe naturally feeble; but it has thinned the numbers of those which are venomous, lest they should become too powerful for the rest of Animated Nature.

From these noxious qualities in the serpent kind it is no wonder that not only man, but beasts and birds, carry on an unceasing war against them. The ichneumon of the Indians, and they peccary of America destroy them in great numbers. These animals have the art of seizing them near the head; and it is said that they can skin them with great dexterity. The vulture and the eagle also prey upon them in great abundance, and, often sousing down from the clouds, drop upon a long serpent, which they snatch up struggling and writhing in the air. Dogs, also, are bred up to oppose them. Feuillée tells us, that being in the woods of Martinique he was attacked by a large serpent, which he could not easily avoid, when his dog immediately came to his relief, and seized the assailant with great courage. The serpent entwined him, and pressed him so violently that the blood came out of his mouth, and yet the dog never ceased till he had torn it to pieces. The dog was not sensible of his wounds during the fight; but soon after his head swelled prodigiously, and he lay on the ground as dead. But his master having found hard by a banana-tree, he applied its juice mixed

with treacle to the wounds, which recovered the dog and quickly healed his sores.

But it is in man that these venomous creatures find the most dangerous enemy. The Payli of old were famous for charming and destroying serpents. Some moderns pretend to the same art. Cassaubon says that he knew a man who could at any time summon a hundred serpents together, and draw them into the fire. Upon a certain occasion, when one of them bigger than the rest would not be brought in he only repeated his charm, and it came forward, like the rest, to submit to the flames. Philostratus describes particularly how the Indians charm serpents. "They take a scarlet robe, embroidered with golden letters, and spread it before a serpent's hole. The golden letters have a fascinating power; and by looking steadfastly, the serpent's eyes are overcome and laid asleep." These and many other feats have been often practised upon these animals by artful men, who had first prepared the serpents for their exercise, and then exhibited them as adventitiously assembled at their call. In India there is nothing so common as dancing serpents, which are carried about in a broad flat vessel, somewhat resembling a sieve. These erect and put themselves in motion at the word of command. When their keeper sings a slow tune they seem by their heads to keep time; when he sings a quicker measure they appear to move more brisk and lively. All animals have a certain degree of docility; and we find that serpents themselves can be brought to move and approach at the voice of their master. From this trick, successfully practised before the ignorant, it is most probable has arisen all the boasted pretensions which some have made to charming of serpents—an art to which the native Americans pretend at this very day. One of Linneus's pupils, we are told, purchased the secret from an Indian, and then discovered it to his master; but, like all secrets of the kind, it is probable this ended in a few unmeaning words of no efficacy.

Though the generality of mankind regard this formidable race with horror, yet there have been some nations, and there are some at this day, that consider them with veneration and regard. The adoration paid by the ancient Egyptians to a serpent is well known: many of the nations at present along the western coast of Africa retain the same unaccountable veneration. Upon the gold and slave coasts, a stranger upon entering the cottages of the natives is often surprised to see the roof swarming with serpents, that cling there without molesting and unmolested by the natives. But his surprise will increase upon going farther southward to the kingdom of Widah, when he finds that a serpent is the god of the country. This animal, which travellers describe as a huge, overgrown creature, has its habitation, its temple, and its priests. These impress the vulgar with an opinion of its virtues; and numbers are daily seen to offer not only their goods, their provisions, and their prayers at the shrine of their hideous deity, but also their wives and daughters. These the priests readily accept of, and after some days of penance return them to their suppliants, much benefited by the serpent's supposed embraces. Such a complicated picture of ignorance and imposture gives no very favourable impressions of our fellow-creatures; but we may say in defence of Human Nature, that the most frightful of reptiles is worshipped by the most uncultivated and barbarous of mankind.

From this general picture of the serpent tribe one great distinction obviously presents itself; namely, into those that are venomous and those that are wholly destitute of poison. To the first belong the viper, the rattlesnake, the cobra di capello, and all their affinities; to the other, the common black snake, the liboya, the boiguacu, the amphibæna, and various others, that, though destitute of venom, do not cease to be formidable. I will therefore give their history separately, beginning with the

venomous class, as they have the strongest claims to our notice and attention.

CHAP. II.

OF VENOMOUS SERPENTS IN GENERAL.

The poison of serpents has been for ages one of the greatest objects of human consideration. To us, who seldom feel the vengeful wound, it is merely a subject of curiosity; but to those placed in the midst of the serpent tribe, who are every day exposed to some new disaster, it becomes a matter of the most serious importance. To remedy the bite of a serpent is considered among our physicians as one of the slightest operations in medicine; but among the physicians of the East the antidotes for this calamity make up the bulk of their dispensaries. In our colder climates the venom does not appear with that instantaneous operation which it exhibits in the warmer regions; for either its powers are less exquisite or our fluids are not carried round in such rapid circulation.

In all countries, however, the poison of the serpent is sufficiently formidable to deserve notice, and to excite our attention to its nature and effects. It will therefore in the first place be proper to describe its seat in the animal, as also the instrument by which the wound is made and the poison injected. In all this venomous class of reptiles, whether the viper, the rattlesnake, or the cobra di capello, there are two large teeth or fangs that issue from the upper jaw, and that hang out beyond the lower. The rest of the snake tribe are destitute of these; and it is most probable that wherever these fangs are wanting the animal is harmless; on the contrary, wherever they are found it is to be avoided as the most pestilent enemy. These are the instruments that seem to place the true distinction between animals of the serpent kind; the wounds which these fangs inflict produce the most dangerous symptoms; the wounds inflicted by the teeth only are attended with nothing more than the ordinary consequences attending the bite of any other animal. Our first great attention, therefore, upon seeing a serpent should be directed to the teeth. If it has the fang teeth, it is to be placed among the venomous class; if it wants them, it may be set down as inoffensive. I am not ignorant that many serpents are said to be dangerous whose jaws are unfurnished with fangs; but it is most probable that our terrors only have furnished these animals with venom; for of all the tribe whose teeth are thus formed, not one will be found to have a bag for containing poison, nor a conduit for injecting it into the wound. The black snake, the liboya, the blind-worm, and a hundred others that might be mentioned, have their teeth of an equal size, fixed into the jaws, and with no other apparatus for inflicting a dangerous wound than a dog or a lizard; but it is otherwise with the venomous tribe we are now describing; these are well furnished, not only with an elaboratory where the poison is formed, but a canal by which it is conducted to the jaw, a bag under the tooth for keeping it ready for every occasion, and also an aperture in the tooth itself for injecting it into the wound. To be more particular, the glands that serve to fabricate this venomous fluid are situated on each side of the head behind the eyes, and have their canals leading from thence to the bottom of the fangs in the upper jaw, where they empty into a kind of bladder, from whence the fangs on each side are seen to grow. The venom contained in this bladder is a yellowish, thick, tasteless liquor, which injected into the blood is death, yet which may be swallowed without any danger.

The fangs that give the wound next come under observation; they are large in proportion to the size of the

animal that bears them; crooked, yet sharp enough to inflict a ready wound. They grow one on each side, and sometimes two, from two moveable bones in the upper-jaw, which by sliding backward or forward have a power of erecting or depressing the teeth at pleasure. In these bones are also fixed many teeth, but no way venomous, and only serving to take and hold the animal's prey. Besides this apt disposition of the fangs, they are hollow within, and have an opening towards the point like the slit of a pen, through which, when the fang is pressed down upon the bladder where it grows, there is seen to issue a part of the venom that lay below. To describe this operation at once—When the serpent is irritated to give a venomous wound it opens its formidable jaws to the widest extent; the moveable bones of the upper-jaw slide forward; the fangs that lay before inclining are thus erected; they are struck with force into the flesh of the obnoxious person; by meeting resistance at the points they press upon the bladder of venom from whence they grow; the venom issues up from the hollow of the tooth, and is pressed out through its slit into the wound, which by this time the tooth has made in the skin. Thus from a slight puncture, and the infusion of a drop of venom scarce larger than the head of a pin, the part is quickly inflamed, and, without a proper antidote, the whole frame contaminated.

The appearances which this venom produces are different according to the serpent that wounds, the season, or the strength of the animal that strikes the blow. If a viper inflicts the wound and the remedy be neglected, the symptoms are not without danger. It first causes an acute pain in the place affected, attended with swelling, first red and afterwards livid. This by degrees spreads to the neighbouring parts; great faintness and a quick though low and interrupted pulse ensues; to this succeeds great sickness at the stomach, bilious and convulsive vomitings, cold sweats, pains about the navel, and death itself. But the violence of the symptoms depend much on the season of the year, the difference of the climate, the size or age of the animal, and the depth and situation of the wound. These symptoms are much more violent and succeed each other more rapidly after the bite of a rattlesnake; but when the person is bit by the cobra di capello he dies in an hour, his whole frame being dissolved into a putrid mass of corruption.

Nothing surely can more justly excite our wonder than that so small a quantity of venom should produce such powerful and deadly effects. If the venom itself be examined through a microscope, it will be found to shoot into little crystals, that, to an imagination already impressed with its potency, look like so many darts fit for entering the blood-vessels and wounding their tender coats. But all these darts are wholly of our own making: the softest, mildest fluid whatever, possessed of any consistency, will form crystals under the eye of the microscope, and put on an appearance exactly like the venom of the viper. In fact, this venom has no acrid taste whatever, and, to all experiments that our senses can make upon it, appears a flimsy, insipid fluid. Charas, who often tasted it, assures us of the fact; and asserts that it may be taken inwardly without any sensible effects or any prejudice to the constitution. But the famous experiments that were tried by Redi and others, in the presence of the Grand Duke of Tuscany and his court, put this beyond any doubt whatsoever. By these it appears that the serpent, having once bitten, exhausted for that time the greatest part of its poison; and though the wound caused by its biting a second time was attended with some malignant symptoms, yet they were much milder than before. It appeared that the serpent biting upon a sponge or a piece of soft bread, and then biting a dog immediately after, did not inflict a wound more dangerous than the prick of a needle. It also appeared that the venom being collected and a

needle dipped therein, this produced almost as painful effects as the tooth of the animal itself. But what caused the greatest surprise in the court was the seeming rashness of one Tozzi, a viper-catcher, who, while the philosophers were giving elaborate lectures on the danger of the poison when taken internally, boldly desired a large quantity of it might be put together, and then, with the utmost confidence, drank it off before them all. The court was struck with astonishment, and expected that the man would instantly fall dead; but they soon perceived their mistake, and found that taken in this manner the poison was as harmless as water.

What, then, shall we say to the speedy effect of so seemingly harmless a liquid taken into the circulation? Let us first observe, that milk is one of the most mild and nourishing of all fluids, and seemingly the most friendly to the human constitution; yet if milk be injected into a vein it will quickly become fatal, and kill with more certain destruction than even the venom of the viper. From hence, then, we may infer that the introducing not only the serpentine venom but also a quantity of any other mixture into the circulation will be fatal, and that consequently serpents kill as well by their power of injecting the wound as by the potency of their poison. Some, indeed, may inject a more acrimonious mixture, and this may produce more speedy effects; but any mixture thus injected would be dangerous, and many would be fatal.

Ray gives us an instance of the potency of the serpent poison, which, though it has all the air of a fable, I cannot help transcribing. "A gentleman who went over to the East Indies, while he was one day sitting among some friends, was accosted by an Indian juggler, who offered to show him some experiments respecting the venom of serpents—an exhibition usual enough in that country. Having first, therefore, produced a large serpent, he assured the company that it was harmless; and to convince them of what he said he tied up his arm, as is usual with those that are going to be bled, and whipped the serpent till it was provoked to bite him. Having drawn in this manner about half a spoonful of blood from his arm, he put the congealed clot upon his thigh. He then took out a much smaller serpent, which was no other than the cobra di capello; and having tied up its neck he procured about half a drop of its venom, which he sprinkled on the clot of blood on his thigh, which instantly began to ferment and bubble, and soon changed colour from a red into a yellow."

This he pretended was caused by the extreme malignity of that animal's venom; however, I have no doubt that the whole is either a fable or a trick of the Indian; who, while he seemed to mix the serpent's venom, actually infused some stronger ingredient, some mineral acid, into the mass of blood, which was capable of working such a change. It cannot be supposed that any animal poison could act so powerfully upon the blood already drawn and coagulated; for a poison that could operate thus instantaneously upon cold blood could not fail of soon destroying the animal itself.

Be this as it will, the effects of serpent-poison are too well known, though the manner of operation is not so clear. As none of this malignant tribe grow to a great size, the longest of them not exceeding nine feet, they seldom seek the combat with larger animals, or offend others till they are first offended. Did they exert their malignity in proportion to their power they could easily drive the ranks of Nature before them; but they seem unconscious of their own superiority, and rather fly than offer to meet the meanest opposer. Their food chiefly consists of small prey, such as birds, moles, toads, and lizards; so that they never attack the more formidable animals that would seldom die unrevenged. They lurk, therefore, in the clefts of rocks or among stony places; they twine round the branches of trees, or sun themselves in the long grass at the bottom. There they only seek

repose and safety. If some unwary traveller invades their retreats their first effort is to fly; but when either pursued or accidentally trod upon, they then make a fierce and fatal resistance. For this purpose, they raise themselves according to their strength upon their tail, erect their head, seize the limb that presses them, the wound is given, and the head withdrawn in a moment. It is therefore not without reason that the Asiatics, who live in regions where serpents greatly abound, wear boots and long-cloths which very well protect their lower parts from the accidental resentment of their reptile annoyers.

In the eastern and western Indies the number of noxious serpents is various; in this country we are acquainted only with one. The viper is the only animal in Great Britain from whose bite we have anything to fear. In the tropical climates, the rattlesnake, the whipsnake, and the cobra di capello are the most formidable, though by no means the most common. From the general notoriety of the particular serpents, and the universal terror which they occasion, it would seem that few others are possessed of such powerful malignity.

Vipers are found in many parts of this island; but the dry, stony, and particularly the chalky countries abound with them. This animal seldom grows to a greater length than two feet; though sometimes they are found above three. The ground colour of their bodies is a dirty yellow; that of the female is deeper. The back is marked the whole length with a series of rhomboid black spots, touching each other at the points; the sides with triangular ones, the belly entirely black. It is chiefly distinguished from the common black snake by the colour, which in the latter is more beautifully mottled, as well as by the head, which is thicker than the body; but particularly by the tail, which in the viper, though it ends in a point, does not run tapering to so great a length as in the other. When, therefore, other distinctions fail, the difference of the tail can be discerned at a single glance.

The viper differs from most other serpents in being much slower, as also in excluding its young completely formed, and bringing them forth alive. The kindness of Providence seems exerted not only in diminishing the speed but also the fertility of this dangerous creature. They copulate in May, and are supposed to be about three months before they bring forth, and have seldom above eleven eggs at a time. These are of the size of a blackbird's egg, and chained together in the womb like a string of beads. Each egg contains from one to four young ones; so that the whole of a brood may amount to about twenty or thirty. They continue in the womb till they come to such perfection as to be able to burst from the shell; and they are said by their own efforts to creep from the confinement into the open air, where they continue for several days without taking any food whatsoever. "We have been often assured," says Mr. Pennant, "by intelligent people of the truth of a fact, that the young of the viper when terrified will run down the throat of the parent, and seek shelter in its belly in the same manner as the young of the opossum retire into the ventral pouch of the old one. From this," continues he, "some have imagined that the viper is so unnatural as to devour its own young; but this deserves no credit, as these animals live upon frogs, toads, lizards, and young birds, which they swallow whole, though the morsel is often three times as thick as their own body."

The viper is capable of supporting very long abstinence, it being known that some have been kept in a box six months without food; yet during the whole time they did not abate of their vivacity. They feed only a small part of the year, but never during their confinement; for if mice, their favourite diet, should at that time be thrown in the box, though they will kill, yet they will never eat them. When at liberty they remain torpid throughout the winter; yet when confined they have never been observed to take their annual repose.

Their poison, however, decreases in proportion to the length of their confinement; and it is thought that the virtues of the animal's flesh are by the same restraints considerably lessened.

They are usually taken with wooden tongs, by the end of the tail, which may be done without danger; for while held in that position they are unable to wind themselves up to hurt their enemy: yet, notwithstanding this precaution, the viper-catchers are frequently bitten by them; but by the application of olive-oil the bite is effectually cured.

One William Oliver, a viper-catcher at Bath, was the first who discovered this admirable remedy. On the first of June, 1735, in the presence of a great number of persons, he suffered himself to be bitten by an old black viper, brought by one of the company, upon the wrist and joint of the thumb of the right hand, so that drops of blood came out of the wounds: he immediately felt a violent pain both at the top of his thumb and up his arm, even before the viper was loosed from his hand; soon after he felt a pain, resembling that of burning trickle up his arm; in a few minutes his eyes began to look red and fiery, and to water much; in less than an hour he perceived the venom seize his heart with a pricking pain, which was attended with faintness, shortness of breath, and cold sweats; in a few minutes after this his belly began to swell, with great gripings and pains in his back, which were attended with vomitings and purgings; during the violence of these symptoms his sight was gone for several minutes, but he could hear all the while. He said that in his former experiments he had never deferred making use of his remedy longer than he perceived the effect of the venom reaching his heart; but this time, being willing to satisfy the company thoroughly, and trusting to the speedy effects of his remedy, which was nothing more than olive oil, he forbore to apply anything till he found himself exceeding ill and quite giddy. About an hour and a quarter after the first of his being bitten a chaffing-dish of glowing charcoal was brought in, and his naked arm was held over it as near as he could bear, while his wife rubbed in the oil with her hand, turning his arm continually round, as if she would have roasted it over the coals: he said the poison soon abated, but the swelling did not diminish much. Most violent purgings and vomitings soon ensued; and his pulse became so low and so often interrupted, that it was thought proper to order him a repetition of cordial potions: he said he was not sensible of any great relief from these; but that a glass or two of olive-oil taken inwardly seemed to give him ease. Continuing in this dangerous condition, he was put to bed, where his arm was again bathed over a pan of charcoal, and rubbed with olive-oil, heated in a ladle over the charcoal, by Dr. Mortimer's direction, who was the physician that drew up the account. From this last operation he declared that he found immediate ease, as though by some charm: he soon after fell into a profound sleep, and after about nine hours found rest, awaked about six the next morning, and found himself very well; but in the afternoon, on drinking some rum and stronger beer, so as to be almost intoxicated, the swelling returned, with much pain and cold sweats, which abated soon on bathing the arm as before, and wrapping it up in a brown paper soaked in the oil.

Such are the effects of the viper's bite; yet its flesh has long been celebrated as a noble medicine. A broth, made by boiling one viper in a quart of water till it comes to a pint, is the usual method in which it is given at present; and it is said to be a very powerful restorative in battered constitutions: the salt of vipers is also thought to exceed any other animal's salt whatever in giving vigour to the languid circulation and prompting to venery.

The rattlesnake is bred in America, and in no part of the old world. Some are as thick as a man's leg, and

formidable appearance. The usual length of this species is eleven inches. The eyes are red, the head small, the neck still more slender; from that part the body grows suddenly, and continues of an equal bulk to the tail, which ends quite blunt; the colour of the back is cinereous, marked with very small lines, composed of minute black specks; the sides are of a redish cast; the belly dusky, and marked like the back. The motion of this serpent is slow; from which, and from the smallness of the eyes, are derived its names—some calling it the slow and some the blind-worm. Like all the rest of the kind in our climates, they lie torpid during winter, and are sometimes found in vast numbers twisted together. This animal, like the former, is perfectly innocent; however, like the viper it brings forth its young alive. Gesner tells us that one of these being struck on the head when it was pregnant it immediately cast forth its young.

The amphibæna, or the double-headed serpent, is remarkable for moving along with either the head or the tail foremost; and from thence it has been thought to have two heads. This error took its rise from the thickness of the tail, which at a distance may be mistaken for another head. Upon a nearer view, however, the error is easily discovered, and the animal will be found formed according to the usual course of Nature. It is as thick at one end as at the other; and the colour of the skin is like that of the earth, being rough, hard, and variously spotted. Some have affirmed that its bite is dangerous; but this must be a mistake, as it wants the fangs, and, consequently, the elaboratory that prepares the poison.

These animals are only formidable from their similitude to the viper tribe; and in some countries, where such reptiles are common, they make the distinction so exactly, that while they destroy serpents of one kind with great animosity they take others into their houses, and even into their bosoms, with a kind of unaccountable affection. The Esculapian serpent of Italy is among this number. It is there suffered to crawl about the chambers, and often gets into the beds where people lie. It is a yellow serpent, of about an ell long; and, though innocent, yet will bite when exasperated. They are said to be great destroyers of mice; and this may be the reason why they are taken under human protection. The boyuna of Ceylon is equally a favourite among the natives; and they consider the meeting it as a sign of good luck. The Surinam serpent, which some improperly call the ammodytes, is equally harmless and desirable among the savages of that part of the world. They consider themselves as extremely happy if this animal comes into their huts. The colours of this serpent are so many and beautiful that they surpass all description; and these, perhaps, are the chief inducements to the savages to consider its visits as so very fortunate. A still greater favourite is the "prince of serpents," a native of Japan, that has not its equal for beauty. The scales which cover the back are redish, finely shaded, and marbled with large spots of irregular figures mixed with black. The fore-part of the head is covered with large beautiful scales, the jaws bordered with yellow, the forehead marked with a black marbled streak, and the eyes handsome and lively. But of all others, the gerenda of the East Indies is the most honoured and esteemed. To this animal, which is finely spotted with various colours, the natives of Calicut pay divine honours; and while their deity lies coiled up, which is its usual posture, the people fall upon their faces before it with stupid adoration. The African gerenda is larger, and worshipped in the same manner by the inhabitants of the coasts of Mozambique. The skin is not so finely spotted as the former; but it is variegated all over the body with very fine white ash-coloured and black spots. The brilliancy of colouring in these reptiles would only serve with us to increase our disgust; but in those

countries where they are common distinctions are made; and even in this horrid class there are some eyes that can discover beauty.

But in the larger tribe of serpents there is nothing but danger to be apprehended. This formidable class, though without venom, have something frightful in their colour as well as their size and form. They want that vivid hue with which the savages are so much pleased in the lesser kinds; they are all found of a dusky colour, with large teeth, which are more formidable than dangerous.

The first of this class is the great jiboya of Java and Brazil, which Legaut affirms he has seen fifty feet long. Nor is he singular in this report, as many of the missionaries affirm the same; and we have the concurrent testimony of historians as a further proof. The largest animal of this kind which has been brought into Europe is but thirty-six feet long; and it is probable that much greater have been seen and destroyed before they were thought worth sending so far to satisfy European curiosity. The most usual length, however, of the jiboya is about twenty feet, and the thickness in proportion. The teeth are small in proportion to the body; nor are they used but when it seizes the smallest prey. It lies in wait for wild animals near the paths, and when it throws itself upon them it wraps them round so closely as to break all their bones; then moistening the whole body over with its slaver, it makes it fit for deglutition and swallows it whole.

The boiguacu is supposed to be the next in magnitude, and has often been seen to swallow a goat whole. It is thickest in the middle of the body, and grows shorter and smaller towards the head and the tail; on the middle of the back there is a chain of small black spots running along the length of it, and on each side there are large, round, black spots, at some distance from each other, which are white in the centre; between these, near the belly, there are two rows of lesser black spots, which run parallel to the back. It has a double row of sharp teeth in each jaw, of a white colour, and shining like mother-of-pearl. The head is broad, and over the eyes it is raised into two prominences; near the extremity of the tail there are two claws resembling those of birds.

These serpents lie hid in thickets, from whence they sally out unawares, and, raising themselves upright on their tails, will attack both men and beasts. They make a loud, hissing noise when exasperated; and sometimes winding up trees, will dart upon travellers, and twist themselves so closely round their bodies as to despatch them in a very few minutes. Condamine, however, affirms that their bite is not dangerous; for though the teeth are so large as to inspire the beholder with terror, yet the wound they make is attended with no dangerous consequences whatever. Dellon affirms that they generally haunt desert places; and though they are sometimes seen near great towns or on the banks of rivers, yet it is generally after some great inundation: he never saw any but what were dead, and they appeared to him like the trunk of a great tree lying on the ground.

To this class of large serpents we may refer the depona, a native of Mexico, with a very large head and great jaws. The mouth is armed with cutting, crooked teeth, among which there are two longer than the rest, placed in the fore part of the upper-jaw, but very different from the fangs of the viper. All round the mouth there is a broad scaly border; and the eyes are so large that they give it a very terrible aspect. The forehead is covered with very large scales, on which are placed others which are smaller, curiously ranged; those on the back are greyish, and along it runs a double chain, whose ends are joined in the manner of a buckler. Each side of the belly is marbled with large square spots of a cheanut colour, in the middle of which is a spot which is round and yellow. They avoid the sight of man; and consequently never do much harm.



W. Sprenst. Neville S. Hull.



Such are the most noted animals of the serpent tribe ; but to recount all would be a vain as well as an useless endeavour. In those countries where they abound their discriminations are so numerous and their colours so various, that every thicket seems to produce a new animal. The same serpent is often found to bring forth animals of eight or ten different colours ; and the naturalist who attempts to arrange them by that mark will find that he has made distinctions which are entirely disowned by Nature ; however, a very considerable num-

ber might be added to enlarge the catalogue ; but having supplied a general history, the mind turns away from a subject where every object presents something formidable or loathsome to the imagination. Indeed, the whole tribe resemble each other so nearly that the history of one may almost serve for every other. They are all terrible to the imagination—all frightful to behold in their fury, and have long been considered as a race of animals between whom and man there is a natural antipathy.



PART VII.

INSECTS OF THE FIRST ORDER.

BOOK I.—CHAP. I.

OF INSECTS IN GENERAL.

Having gone through the upper ranks of Nature, we descend to that of insects—a subject almost inexhaustible from the number of its tribes and the variety of their appearance. Those who have professedly written on this subject seem to consider it as one of the greatest that can occupy the human mind, as the most pleasing in Animated Nature. “After an attentive examination,” says Swammerdam, “of the nature and anatomy of the smallest as well as the largest animals, I cannot help allowing the least an equal, or perhaps a superior, degree of dignity. If, while we dissect with care the larger animals we are filled with wonder at the elegant disposition of their parts, to what a height is our astonishment raised when we discover all these parts arranged in the least in the same regular manner! Notwithstanding the smallness of ants, nothing hinders our preferring them to the largest animals, if we consider either their unwearied diligence, their wonderful strength, or their inimitable propensity to labour. Their amazing love to their young is still more unparalleled than among the larger classes. They not only daily carry them to such places as may afford them food, but if by accident they are killed, and even cut into pieces, they with the uttermost tenderness will carry them away piecemeal in their arms. Who can show such an example among the larger animals, which are dignified with the title of perfect? Who can find an instance in any other creature that can come into competition with this?”

Such is the language of a man who, by long study, became enamoured of his subject; but to those who judge less partially, it will be found that the insect tribe for every reason deserve but the last and lowest rank in Animated Nature. As in mechanics the most complicated machines are required to perform the nicest operations, so in anatomy the noblest animals are most variously and wonderfully made. Of all living beings man offers the most wonderful variety in his internal conformation; quadrupeds come next, and other animals follow in proportion to their powers or their excellencies. Insects seem of all others the most imperfectly formed: from their minuteness, the dissecting knife can

go but a short way in the investigations; but one thing argues an evident imperfection, which is, that many of them can live a long time, though deprived of those organs which are necessary to life in the higher ranks of Nature. Many of them are furnished with lungs and a heart, like nobler animals; yet the caterpillar continues to live though its heart and lungs (which is often the case) are entirely eaten away.

But it is not from their conformation alone that insects are inferior to other animals, but from their instincts also. It is true that the ant and the bee present us with very striking instances of assiduity; but how far are theirs beneath the marks of sagacity exhibited in the bound of the stag! a bee taken from the swarm is totally helpless and inactive, incapable of giving the smallest variation to its instincts: it has but one single method of operating, and if put from that it can turn to no other. In pursuits of the hound there is something like a choice; in the labours of the bee the whole appears like necessity or compulsion.

If insects be considered as bearing a relation to man, and in assisting him in the pleasures or necessities of life, they will, even in this respect, sink in comparison with the larger tribes of Nature. It is true that the bee, the silk-worm, the cochineal fly, and the cantharides, render him signal services; but how many others of this class are either noxious or totally unserviceable to him. Even in a country like ours, where all the noxious animals have been reduced by repeated assiduity, the insect tribes still maintain their ground, and are but too often but unwelcome intruders upon the fruits of human industry. But in more uncultivated regions their annoyance and devastations are terrible. What an uncomfortable life the natives lead in Lapland and some parts of America, where if a candle be lighted the insects swarm in such abundance as instantly to extinguish it with their numbers—where the inhabitants are obliged to smear their bodies and faces with tar, or some other composition, to prevent them from the puncture of their minute enemies—where, though millions are destroyed, famished millions are still seen to succeed, and to make the torture endless!

Their amazing number is also an argument of their imperfection. It is a rule that obtains through all Nature that the nobler animals are slowly produced, and that Nature acts with a kind of dignified economy; but



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the meaner births are lavished in profusion, and thousands are brought forth merely to supply the necessities of the more favourite objects of Creation. Of all other productions in Nature insects are the most numerous. Vegetables that cover the surface of the earth bear no proportion to their multitudes; and though at first sight herbs of the field seem to be the parts of organized Nature produced in the greatest abundance, yet upon minuter inspection we shall find every plant supporting a number of scarce perceptible creatures, that fill up the various stages of youth, vigour, and age in the compass of a few days' existence.

All other animals are capable of some degree of education; their instincts may be suppressed or altered; the dog may be taught to fetch and carry, the bird to whistle a tune, and the serpent to dance; but the insect has but one invariable method of operating; no arts can turn it from its instincts; and, indeed, its life is too short for instruction, as a single season often terminates its existence.

For these reasons the insect tribe are deservedly placed in the lowest rank of Animated Nature; and in general they seem more allied to the vegetables on which they feed than to the nobler classes above them. Many of them are attached to one vegetable, often to a single leaf; there they increase with the flourishing plant and die as it decays; a few days fill up the measure of their contemptible lives; while the ends for which they were produced or the pleasures they enjoyed, to us at least, are utterly unknown.

Yet while I am thus fixing the rank of a certain class of animals, it seems necessary to define the nature of those animals which are thus degraded. Definitions in general produce little knowledge; but here, where the shades of Nature are so intimately blended, some discrimination is necessary to prevent confusion. The smallness of the animal, for instance, does not constitute an insect; for then many of the lizard kind, which are not above two inches long, would come under this denomination; and if the smaller lizards, why not the crocodile? which would be a terrible insect indeed! In the same manner, smallness, with a slow creeping motion, does not constitute an insect; for though snails might be called insects with the same propriety, the whole tribe of sea shell-fish would then have equal pretensions, and a very troublesome innovation would be brought into our language, which is already formed. Excluding such animals, therefore, from the insect tribe, we may define insects to be *little animals without red blood, bones, or cartilages, furnished with a trunk, or else a mouth, opening lengthwise, with eyes which they are incapable of covering, and with lungs which have their openings on the sides*. This definition comprehends the whole class of insects, whether with or without wings—whether in their caterpillar or butterfly state—whether produced in the ordinary method of generation between male and female, or from an animal that is itself both male and female, or from the same animal cut into several parts, and each part producing a perfect animal.

From hence it appears that in this class of animals there are numerous distinctions, and that a general description will by no means serve for all. Almost every species has its own distinct history, and exhibits manners, appetites, and modes of propagation peculiarly its own. In the larger ranks of existence, two animals that nearly resemble each other in form will be found to have a similar history; but here insects almost entirely alike will be often found perfectly dissimilar, as well in their manner of bringing forth and subsisting as in the changes which they undergo during their short lives. Thus as this class is prolific beyond computation, so are its varieties multiplied beyond the power of description. The attempt to enumerate all the species of a fly or a moth would be very fruitless; but to give a history of all would be utterly impracticable. So various are the appetites,

the manners, and the lives of this humble class of beings, that every species requires its distinct history. An exact plan, therefore, of Nature's operations in this minute set of creatures is not to be expected; and yet such a general picture may be given as is sufficient to show the protection which Providence affords its smallest as well as its largest productions, and to display that admirable circulation in Nature by which one set of living beings find subsistence from the destruction of another, and by which life is continued without a pause in every part of the Creation.

Upon casting a slight view over the whole insect tribe just when they are supposed to rouse from their state of annual torpidity, when they begin to feel the genial influence of spring, and again exhibit new life in every part of Nature, their numbers and their varieties seem to exceed all powers of calculation, and they are indeed too great for description. When we look closer, however, we shall find some striking similitudes, either in their propagation, their manners, or their form, that give us a hint for grouping several of them into one description, and thus enabling us to shorten the labour of a separate history for every species. Swammerdam, Reaumur, and Linnæus have each attempted to abridge the task of description by throwing a number of similar animals into distinct classes, and thus making one general history stand for all. I will avail myself of their labours; and, uniting their general distinctions, throw the whole class of insects into four separate distributions, giving under each the history of every species that seems to me considerable enough to deserve our notice. Thus our labour will be shortened; and the very rank in which an insect is placed will in some measure exhibit a considerable part of its history.

In our cursory inspection of the insect tribe, the first animals that offer themselves are those which want wings, that appear crawling about on every plant and on every spot of earth we regard with any degree of attention. Of these some never obtain wings at any period of their existence, but are destined to creep on the vegetable or the spot of earth where they are stationed for their whole lives. On the contrary, others are only candidates for a more happy situation, and only wait their growing wings, when they may be said to arrive at their state of full perfection.

Those that never have wings, but creep about till they die, may be considered as constituting the first class of insects. All these, the flea and the wood-louse only excepted, are produced from an egg; and when once they break the shell they never suffer any further change of form, but continue to grow larger till they die. Thus the louse or the spider are produced from an egg, never suffering any alteration when once they are excluded; but, like the chicken or the duck, remaining invariably the same from their birth to their dissolution.

The second order of insects consists of such as have wings; but which, when produced from the egg, have those wings cased up in such a manner as not to appear. This casing up of the wing, however, does not prevent the animal's running, leaping, and moving with its natural celerity; but when the case bursts, and the wings have a power of expanding, all the animal's motions become more extensive, and the animal arrives at full perfection. Thus the grasshopper, the dragon-fly, and the ear-wig have their wings at first bound down; but when the skin that, like a pair of stays, kept them confined bursts, they are then expanded, and the animal pursues the purposes for which it was produced.

The third order of insects is of the moth and butterfly kind. These all have four wings, each covered with a mealy substance of various colours, which when handled comes off upon the fingers; and, if examined by the microscope, will appear like scales, with which the wing is nicely embroidered all over. These, also, are produced in a manner peculiar to themselves. They are at first

hatched from an egg, from whence proceeds a caterpillar that eats, and often casts, its skin; the caterpillar, having divested itself for the last time, assumes a new covering, which is called a chrysalis, or the cone in the silk-worm, in which it continues hidden till it comes forth a perfect moth or butterfly.

The **FOURTH ORDER** is of those winged insects which come from a worm instead of a caterpillar, and yet go through changes similar to those which moths and butterflies are seen to undergo. They are at first excluded from the egg as a worm, and then become a chrysalis: in some their wings and legs are seen; in others the animal is quite detached from the cone in which it is concealed; but all at length break their prison, and come out perfect winged animals—some furnished with two wings and some with four. The wings of all these differ from those of the butterfly and moth kind, by not having the mealy scales which are ever found on the wings of the former. In this class we may place the numerous tribes of gnats, beetles, bees, and flies.

To these I will add, as a **FIFTH ORDER**, a numerous tribe lately discovered, to which naturalists have given the name of Zoophytes. These do not go through the ordinary forms of generation, but may be propagated by dissection. Some of these, though cut into a hundred parts, still retain life in each, and are endowed with such a vivacious principle that every part will in a short time become a perfect animal. They seem a set of creatures placed between animals and vegetables, and make the shade that connect Animated Nature and Insensible Nature. To this class belong the polypus, the earth-worm, and all the varieties of the sea-nettle.

Having thus given a general distribution of insects, I will proceed to describe each class in the order I have mentioned them, beginning with insects without wings, as they more nearly resemble the higher ranks of Nature as well in their habits as their conformation.

CHAP. II.

OF INSECTS WITHOUT WINGS.

Every moment's observation furnishes us with instances of insects without wings; but the difficulty is to distinguish those which are condemned continually to lead reptile lives from such as only wait the happy moment of transmutation. For this nothing but a long and intimate acquaintance will suffice; but in general all animals resembling the flea, the louse, the spider, the bug, the wood-louse, the water-louse, and the scorpion, never acquire wings, but are produced from the egg in that form which they never change afterwards.

If we consider this class as distinct from others, we shall find them in general longer lived than the rest, and often continuing their term beyond one season, which is the ordinary period of an insect's existence. They seem also less subject to the influence of the weather, and often endure the rigours of winter without being numbed into torpidity. The whole race of moths, butterflies, bees, and flies are rendered lifeless by the return of cold weather; but we need not be told that the louse, the flea, and many of these wingless creatures that seem formed to tease mankind, continue their painful depredations the whole year round.

They come to perfection in the egg, as was said before; and it sometimes happens that when the animal is interrupted in performing the offices of exclusion the young ones burst the shell within the parent's body, and are thus brought forth alive. This not unfrequently happens with the wood-louse and others of the kind, which are sometimes seen producing eggs, and sometimes young ones perfectly formed.

Though these creatures are perfect from the beginning, yet they are often during their existence seen to change their skin: this is a faculty which they possess in common with many of the higher ranks of animals, and which answers the same purposes. However tender their skins may seem to our feel, yet, if compared to the animal's strength and size, they will be found to resemble a coat of mail, or, to speak more closely, the shell of a lobster. By this skin the animals are defended from accidental injuries, and particularly from the attacks of each other. Within this they continue to grow, till their bodies become so large as to be imprisoned in their own covering, and then the shell bursts, but is quickly replaced by a new one.

Lastly, these animals are endowed with a degree of strength for their size that at first might exceed credibility. Had man an equal degree of strength, bulk for bulk, with a louse or a flea, the history of Samson would be no longer miraculous. A flea will draw a chain a hundred times heavier than itself; and, to compensate for this force, will eat ten times its own size of provisions in a single day.

CHAP. III.

OF THE SPIDER AND ITS VARIETIES.

The animal that deserves our first notice in this principal order of insects is the spider, whose manners are of all others the most subtle, and whose instincts are most various. Formed for a life of rapacity, and incapable of living upon any other than insect food, all its habits are calculated to deceive and surprise; it spreads toils to entangle its prey; it is endowed with patience to expect its coming; and is possessed of arms and strength to destroy it when fallen into the snare.

In this country, where all the insect tribes are kept under by human assiduity, the spiders are but small and harmless. We are acquainted with few but the house-spider, that spreads its toils from tree to tree, and rests in the centre; the wandering-spider, that has no abode like the rest; and the field-spider, that is sometimes seen mounting, web and all, into the clouds. These are the chief of our native spiders; which, though reputed venomous, are entirely inoffensive. But they form a much more terrible tribe in Africa and America. In those regions, where all the insect species acquire their greatest growth—where the butterfly is seen to expand a wing as broad as our sparrow, and the ant to build a habitation as tall as a man—it is not to be wondered at that the spiders are seen bearing a proportionable magnitude. In fact, the bottom of the Martinico spider's body is as large as a hen's egg, and covered all over with hair. Its web is strong and its bite dangerous. It is happy for us, however, that we are placed at a distance from these formidable creatures, and that we can examine their history without feeling their resentment.

Every spider has two divisions in its body. The fore-part, containing the head and breast, is separated from the hinder part or belly by a very slender thread, through which, however, there is a communication from one part to the other. The fore-part is covered with a hard shell, as well as the legs, which adhere to the breast. The hinder-part is clothed with a supple skin, beset all over with hair. They have several eyes all round the head, brilliant and acute; these are sometimes eight in number, sometimes but six—two behind, two before, and the rest on each side. Like all other insects their eyes are immoveable, and they want eye-lids; but this organ is fortified with a transparent horny substance, which at once secures and assists their vision. As the animal procures its subsistence by the most watchful attention, so large a number of eyes was necessary to give it the

earliest inf... capture of its prey. They have two pincers on the fore-part of the head, rough, with strong points, toothed like a saw, and terminating in claws like those of a cat. A little below the point of the claw there is a small hole through which the animal emits a poison, which, though harmless to us, is sufficiently capable of instantly destroying its prey. This is the most powerful weapon they have against their enemies; they can open or extend these pincers as occasion may require; and when they are undisturbed they suffer them to lie one upon the other, never opening them but when there is a necessity for their exertion. They have all eight legs, joined like those of lobsters, and similar also in another respect; for if a leg be torn away or a joint cut off, a new one will quickly grow in its place, and the animal will find itself fitted for combat as before. At the end of each leg there are three crooked moveable claws; namely, a small one, placed higher up, like a cock's spur, by the assistance of which it adheres to the threads of its web. There are two others larger, which meet together like a lobster's claws, by which they can catch hold of the smallest depressions, walking up or down the polished surfaces, on which they can find inequalities that are imperceptible to our grosser sight. But when they walk upon such bodies as are perfectly smooth, as glass or polished marble, they squeeze a little sponge, which grows near the extremity of their claws, and thus diffusing a glutinous substance, adhere to the surface until they make a second step. Besides the eight legs just mentioned these animals have two others, which may more properly be called arms, as they do not serve to assist motion, but are used in holding and managing their prey.

The spider, though thus formidably equipped, would seldom prove successful in the capture, were it not equally furnished with other instruments to assist its depredations. As it lives wholly upon flies, and is without wings to pursue them, it is obvious they must for ever escape so impotent an adversary; but the spider is a most experienced hunter, and spreads its nets to catch those animals it is unable to pursue. The spider's web is generally laid in those places where flies are most apt to come and shelter—in the corners of rooms, round the edges of windows, and in the open air among the branches of trees. There the little animal remains for days, nay, weeks together, in patient expectation, seldom changing its situation though never so unsuccessful.

For the purposes of making this web, Nature has supplied this animal with a large quantity of glutinous matter within its body, and five ducts or teats for spinning it into thread. This substance is contained in a little bag, and at first sight it resembles soft glue; but when examined more accurately, it will be found twisted into many coils of an agate colour, and upon breaking it the contents may be easily drawn out into threads, from the tenacity of the substance, not from those threads being already formed. Those who have seen the machine by which wire is spun will have an idea of the manner in which this animal forms the threads of its little net, the orifices of the five teats above-mentioned, through which the thread is drawn, contracting or dilating at pleasure. The threads which we see, and which appear so fine, are, notwithstanding, composed of five joined together, and these are many times doubled when the web is in formation.

When a house-spider proposes to begin a web, it first makes a choice of some commodious spot where there is an appearance of plunder and security. The animal then distils one little drop of its glutinous liquor, which is very tenacious, and then creeping up the wall, and joining its thread as it proceeds, it darts itself in a very surprising manner, as I have often seen, to the opposite place, where the other end of the web is to be fastened. The first thread thus formed, drawn tight and fixed at each end, the spider then runs upon it backward and

forward, still assiduously employed in doubling and strengthening it, as upon its force depends the strength and stability of the whole. The scaffolding thus completed, the spider makes a number of threads parallel to the first, in the same manner, and then crosses them with others—the clammy substance of which they are formed serving to bind them when newly made to each other. The insect after this operation doubles and trebles the thread that borders its web by opening all its teats at once, and secures the edges so as to prevent the wind from blowing the work away. The edges being thus fortified, the retreat is next to be attended to; and this is formed like a funnel at the bottom of the web, where the little creature lies concealed. To this are two passages or outlets, one above and the other below, very artfully contrived, to give the animal an opportunity of making excursions at proper seasons, of prying into every corner, and clearing those parts which are observed to be clogged or encumbered. Still attentive to its web, the spider from time to time cleans away the dust that gathers round it, which might otherwise clog and incommode it: for this purpose it gives the whole a shake with its paws; still, however, proportioning the blow so as not to endanger the fabric. It often happens, also, that from the main web there are several threads extended at some distance on every side; these are in some measure the outworks of the fortification, which, whenever touched from without, the spider prepares for attack or self-defence. If the insect impinging be a fly, it springs forward with great agility; if, on the contrary, it be the assault of an enemy stronger than itself, it keeps within its fortress, and never ventures out till the danger be over. Another advantage which the spider reaps from this contrivance of a cell or retreat behind the web is, that it serves for a place where the creature can feast upon its game with all safety, and conceal the fragments of those carcasses which it has picked without exposing to public view the least trace of barbarity that might create a suspicion in any insects that the enemy was near.

It often happens, however, that the wind, or the rustling of the branches, or the approach of some large animal, destroys in a minute the labours of an age. In this case the spider is obliged to remain a patient spectator of the universal ruin; and when the danger is passed away it sets about repairing the calamity. For this purpose it is furnished with a large store of the glutinous substance of which the web is made; and with this it either makes a new web or patches up the old one. In general, however, the animal is much fonder of mending than making, as it is furnished originally with but a certain quantity of glutinous matter, which, when exhausted, nothing can renew. The time seldom fails to come when their reservoirs are entirely dried up, and the poor animal is left to all the chances of irretrievable necessity. An old spider is thus frequently reduced to the greatest extremity; its web is destroyed, and it wants the materials to make a new one. But as these animals have been long accustomed to a life of shifting, it hunts about to find out the web of another spider, younger and weaker than itself, with whom it ventures a battle. The invader general succeeds: the young one is driven out to make a new web, and the old one remains in quiet possession. If, however, the spider is unable to dispossess any other of its web, it then endeavours for a while to subsist upon accidental depredation; but in two or three months it inevitably dies of hunger.

The garden-spider seems to work in a different manner. The method with this insect is to spin a great quantity of thread, which, floating in the air in various directions, happens from its glutinous quality at last to stick to some object near it—a lofty plant or the branch of a tree. The spider only wants to have one end of the line fast in order to secure and tighten the other.



It accordingly draws the line when thus fixed, and then by passing and repassing upon it, strengthens the thread in such a manner as to answer all its intentions. The first cord being thus stretched, the spider walks along a part of it and there fastens another, and, dropping from thence, fastens the thread to some solid body below, then climbs up again and begins a third, which it fastens by the same contrivance. When three threads are thus fixed it forms a square, or something that very nearly resembles one; and in this the animal is generally seen to reside. It often happens, however, when the young spider begins spinning that its web becomes too buoyant, and not only the thread floats in the air, but even the little spinster. In this manner we have often seen the threads of spiders floating in the air; and what is still more surprising, the young spiders themselves attached to their own web. The reason is obvious; for as even gold itself may be so finely drawn out as to float in the air, so the finer thread of a spider is so buoyant as not only to swim in the air, but also to lift the spider itself; which, like the tail of a kite, rises with its own manufacture.

The spider's web being thus completed and fixed in a proper place, its next care is to seize and secure whatever insect happens to be caught in the toil. For this purpose it remains for weeks, and even months, upon the watch without ever catching a single fly; for the spider, like most other insects, is surprisingly patient of hunger. It sometimes happens that too strong a fly strikes itself against the web, and thus instead of being caught, tears the net to pieces. In general, however, the butterfly or the hornet when they touch the web fly off again, and the spider seems no way disposed to interrupt their retreat. The large blue-bottle fly, the ichneumon-fly, and the common meat-fly, seem to be its favourite game. When one of these strike into the toils the spider is instantly seen alert and watchful at the mouth of its hole, careful to observe whether the fly be completely immeshed. If that be the case the spider walks leisurely forward, seizes its prey, and instantly kills it by instilling a venomous juice into the wound it makes. If, however, the fly be not entirely immeshed, the spider patiently waits, without appearing until its prey has fatigued itself by its struggles to obtain its liberty; for if the ravager should appear in all its terrors while the prey is but half involved, a desperate effort might give it force enough to get free. If the spider has fasted for a long time, it then drags the fly immediately into its hole and devours it; but if there has been plenty of game and the animal be no way pressed by hunger, it then gives the fly two or three turns in its web, so as completely to immesh it, and there leaves it impotently to struggle until the little tyrant comes to its appetite. Why the spider should at one time kill its prey and at another suffer it to struggle in the toils for several hours together I am not able to say; perhaps it only likes its prey newly killed, and therefore delays to put the captive to death until it is to be eaten.

It has been the opinion of some philosophers that the spider was in itself both male and female; but Lister has been able to distinguish the sexes, and to perceive that the males were much less in size than the females. But this is not the chief peculiarity; for, different from all other animals, except the fish called the "ray," it has its instruments of generation placed in the fore-arms, which have been already described. When these animals copulate they for some time teize each other with their legs and arms, then appear the instruments of generation in the male, as if bursting out from the points of its fore-feet, and are inserted into the receptacle beneath the body of the female.

The female generally lays from nine hundred to a thousand eggs in a season; they are of a blueish colour speckled with black, and separated from each other by a

glutinous substance not unlike frog spawn-water. These eggs are large or small in proportion to the size of the animal that produces them. In some they are as large as a grain of mustard-seed; in others they are scarcely visible. The female never begins to lay till she is two years old at least, and her first brood is never so numerous as when she has come to her greatest maturity.

When the number of eggs which the spider has brought forth have remained for an hour or two to dry after exclusion, the little animal then prepares to make them a bag, where they are to be hatched until they leave the shell. For this purpose she spins a web four or five times stronger than that made for catching flies; and also lines it within side by a down which she plucks from her own breast. This bag when completed is as thick as paper, smooth within side but rougher without. Within this they deposit their eggs; and it is almost incredible to relate the concern and industry which they bestow in the preservation of it. They stick it by means of their glutinous fluid to the end of the body; so that the animal when thus loaded appears as if she had one body placed behind another. If this bag be separated from her by any accident, she employs all her assiduity to stick it again in its former situation, and seldom abandons her treasure but with her life. When the young ones are excluded from their shells within the bag they remain for some time in their confinement, until the female, instinctively knowing their maturity, bites open their prison and sets them free. But her parental care does not terminate with their exclusion; she receives them upon her back for some time until they have strength to provide for themselves, when they leave her never to return, and each begins a separate manufactory of its own. The young ones begin to spin when they can scarcely be discerned, and prepare for a life of plunder before they have strength to overcome. Indeed, Nature seems to have formed them in every respect for a life of hostility. No other insect is possessed of such various powers of assault and defence; and they are able to destroy animals ten times larger than themselves. Even after a severe defeat they quickly recover of their wounds; and as for their legs, they consider the loss of them as but a small misfortune, as they grow again very speedily to their former magnitude.

Thus there is no insect to which they are not an enemy; but what is more barbarous still, spiders are the enemies of each other. Mr. Reaumur, who was fond of making experiments upon insects, tried to turn the labours of the spider to human advantage, and actually made a pair of gloves from their webs. For this purpose he collected a large number of these insects together: he took care to have them constantly supplied with flies and the ends of young feathers, fresh picked from chickens and pigeons, which being full of blood, are a diet that spiders are particularly fond of. But notwithstanding all his care he was soon convinced that it was impracticable to rear them, since they were of such a malignant nature that they could never be brought to live in society, but instead of their usual food chose to devour each other. Indeed, were it practicable to reconcile them to each other, it would require too much attendance to rear up a sufficient number to make the project any way useful. Their thread is four, if not five times finer than that of the silk-worm; so that upon the smallest calculation there must have been sixty thousand spiders to make a single pound of silk. That which Reaumur made use of was only the web in which they deposited their eggs, which is five times stronger than their ordinary manufacture.

Of this animal there are several kinds, slightly differing from each other either in habits or conformation. The water-spider is the most remarkable of the number. This insect resembles the common spider in its appearance, except that its hinder part is made rather in the shape of a nine-pin than a ball. They differ in being

able to live as well by land as water, and in being capable of spinning as well in one element as the other. Their appearance under water is very remarkable; for though they inhabit the bottom, yet they are never touched by the element in which they reside, but are enclosed in a bubble of air that, like a box, surrounds them on every side. This bubble has the bright appearance at the bottom of quicksilver; and within this they perform their several functions of eating, spinning, and sleeping, without its ever bursting, or in the least disturbing their operations: sometimes the bubble is seen divided into three distinct apartments; and in the spring the male enters one of these to impregnate the female in the manner mentioned above, while the bubble in which he was contained unites with the other, like two drops of water when approached to each other. They spin their webs as well in the water as upon land; and it is most probable that they make their food of the small insects of either element.

The tarantula is also of this species, and deserves particular notice, not for any remarkable properties that really attend it, but for the numerous falsehoods which have been propagated concerning it. What may be said with truth concerning it is, that it is the largest of the spider kind known in Europe, and is a native of Apulia, in Italy. Its body is three quarters of an inch long, and about as thick as one's little finger; the colour is generally an olive-brown, variegated with one that is more dusky: it has eight legs and eight eyes, like the rest, and nippers, which are sharp and serrated; between these and the fore-legs there are two little horns or feelers, which it is observed to move very briskly when it approaches its prey. It is covered all over the body with a soft down, and propagates, as other spiders, by laying eggs. In the summer months, particularly in the dog-days, the tarantula, creeping among the corn, bites the mowers and passengers; but in winter it lurks in holes and is seldom seen.

Thus far is true; but now the fable begins—for though the bite is attended with no dangerous symptoms, and will easily cure of itself, wonderful stories are reported concerning its virulence. The part which is bitten, as we are told, is soon after discoloured with a livid black or yellowish circle, attended with an inflammation. At first the pain is scarcely felt; but a few hours after come on a violent sickness, difficulty of breathing, fainting, and sometimes trembling. The person bitten after this does nothing but laugh, dance, skip about, putting himself into the most extravagant postures, and sometimes also is seized with a most frightful melancholy. At the return of the season in which he was bitten his madness begins again, and the patient always talks of the same things. Sometimes he fancies himself a shepherd—sometimes a king, appearing entirely out of his senses. These troublesome symptoms sometimes return for several years successively, and at last terminate in death. But so dreadful a disorder has, it seems, not been left without a remedy, which is no other than a well-played fiddle. For this purpose the medical musician plays a particular tune, famous for the cure, which he begins slow, and increases in quickness as he sees the patient affected. The patient no sooner hears the music but he begins to dance, and continues so doing till he is in a plentiful sweat, which forces out the venom that appeared so dangerous. This dancing sometimes continues for three or four hours before the patient is weary, and before the sweating is copious enough to cure the disorder. Such are the symptoms related of tarantula poison—symptoms which some of the best and gravest physicians have credited and attempted to account for. But the truth is, that the whole is an imposition of the peasants upon travellers who happen to pass through parts of Italy, and who procure a trifle for suffering themselves to be bitten by the tarantula. Whenever they find a traveller willing

to try the experiment they readily offer themselves, and are sure to counterfeit the whole train of symptoms which music is supposed to remove. A friend of mine, who passed through that part of the country, had a trusty servant bitten, without even administering the musical cure: the only symptoms were a slight inflammation, which was readily removed, and no other consequence ever attended the bite. It is thus that falsehoods prevail for a century or two; and mankind at last begin to wonder how it was possible to keep up the delusion so long.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE FLEA.

The history of those animals with which we are the best acquainted are the first objects of our chief curiosity. There are few but are well-informed of the agility and blood-thirsty disposition of the flea—of the caution with which it comes to the attack, and the readiness with which it avoids the pursuit. This insect, which is not only the enemy of mankind, but of the dog, cat, and several other animals, is found in every part of the world, but bites with greater severity in some countries than in others. Its numbers in Italy and France are much greater than in England; and yet its bite is much more troublesome here than I have found it in any other place. It would seem that its force increased with the coldness of the climate; and, though less prolific, that it became more predaceous.

If the flea be examined with a microscope it will be observed to have a small head, large eyes, and a roundish body. It has two feelers, or horns, which are short, and composed of four joints; and between these lies its trunk, which it buries in the skin, and through which it sucks the blood in large quantities. The body appears to be all over curiously adorned with a suit of polished sable armour, neatly jointed, and beset with multitudes of sharp pins, almost like the quills of a porcupine. It has six legs, the joints of which are so adapted that it can, as it were, fold them up one within another; and when it leaps they all spring out at once, whereby its whole strength is exerted, and the body raised above two hundred times its own diameter.

The young fleas are at first a sort of nits or eggs, which are round and smooth; and from these proceed white worms of a shining pearl colour; in a fortnight's time they come to a tolerable size, and are very lively and active; but if they are touched at this time they roll themselves up in a ball; soon after this they begin to creep like silk-worms that have no legs; and then they seek a place to lie hid in, where they spin a silken thread from their mouth, and with this they enclose themselves in a small round bag or case, as white within as writing-paper, but dirty without: in this they continue for a fortnight longer; after which they burst from their confinement perfectly formed, and armed with powers to disturb the peace of an emperor.

CHAP. V.

OF THE LOUSE AND ITS VARIETIES.

The antipathies of mankind are various—some considering the toad, some the serpent, some the spider, and some the beetle with a strong degree of detestation: but while all wonder at the strangeness of each other's aversions, they all seem to unite in their dislike to the louse, and regard it as their natural and most nauseous enemy. Indeed, it seems the enemy of man in the most odious

degrees; for wherever wretchedness, disease, or hunger seize upon him, the louse seldom fails to add itself to the tribe, and to increase in proportion to the number of his calamities.

In examining the human louse with the microscope, its external deformity first strikes us with disgust. The shape of the fore-part of the head is somewhat oblong; that of the hind-part somewhat round; the skin is hard, and, being stretched, transparent, with here and there several bristly hairs; in the fore-part is a proboscis or sucker, which is seldom visible; on each side of the head are antennæ or horns: behind these are the eyes, which seem to want those divisions observable in other insects, and appear encompassed with some few hairs; the neck is very short, and the breast is divided into three parts, on each side of which are placed six legs, consisting of six joints, covered also with bristly hairs; the ends of the legs are armed with two smaller and larger ruddy claws, serving those insects as a finger and thumb, by which they catch hold of such objects as they approach; the end of the body terminates in a cloven tail, while the sides are all over hairy—the whole resembling clear parchment, and, when roughly pressed, cracking with a noise.

When we take a closer view, its white veins and other internal parts appear; as likewise a most wonderful motion in its intestines, from the transparency of its external covering. When the louse feeds, the blood is seen to rush like a torrent into the stomach; and its greediness is so great, that the excrements contained in the intestines are ejected at the same time to make room for this new supply.

The louse has neither beak, teeth, nor any kind of mouth, as Dr. Hooke described it—for the entrance into the gullet is absolutely closed. In the place of all these it has a proboscis or trunk, or, as it may be otherwise called, a pointed, hollow sucker, with which it pierces the skin, and sucks the human blood, taking that for food only. The stomach is lodged partly in the breast and back; but the greatest portion of it is in the abdomen. When swoln with blood it appears of a dark-brown colour, which is visible through the skin; and is either a faint red or a full or bright brown, as the contents of the stomach are more or less changed. When it is empty it is colourless; but when filled it is plainly discernible, and its motion seems very extraordinary. It then appears working with very strong agitations, and somewhat resembles an animal within an animal. Superficial observers are apt to take this for the pulsation of the heart; but if the animal be observed when it is sucking, it will then be found that the food takes a direct passage from the trunk to the stomach, where the remainder of the old aliment will be seen mixing with the new, and agitated up and down on every side.

If this animal be kept from food two or three days, and then placed on the back of the hand, or any soft part of the body, it will immediately seek for food; which it will more readily find if the hand be rubbed till it grows red. The animal then turns its head, which lies between the two fore-legs, to the skin, and diligently searches for some pore; when found, it fixes the trunk therein, and soon the microscope discovers the blood ascending through the head in a very rapid and even frightful stream. The louse has at that time sufficient appetite to feed in any posture; it is then seen sucking with its head downward and its tail elevated. If during this operation the skin be drawn tight, the trunk is bound fast, and the animal is found incapable of disengaging itself; but it more frequently suffers from its gluttony, since it gorges to such a degree that it is crushed to pieces by the slightest impression.

Whether lice are distinguished by the parts of generation into males and females is not yet discovered. Swammerdam is inclined to think that they are hermaphrodites, having found an ovary in all those he ex-

amined; and he dissected not less than forty-two. In one of these animals were found ten large eggs and forty-four smaller, that were not yet come to their full perfection.

There is scarce any animal that multiplies so fast as this unwelcome intruder. It has been pleasantly said that a louse becomes a grandfather in twenty-four hours. This fact cannot be ascertained; but nothing is more true than that the moment the nit, which is no other than the egg of the louse, gets rid of its superfluous moisture and throws off its shell, it then begins to breed in its turn. Nothing so much prevents the increase of this nauseous animal as cold and want of humidity; the nits must be laid in a place that is warm and moderately moist to produce anything. This is the reason that many nits laid on the hairs in the night-time are destroyed by the cold of the succeeding day, and so stick for several months, till they at last come to lose even their external form.

The louse is found upon every part of the human body, but particularly in the heads of children. Those found upon the miners in Sweden are said by Linnæus to be very large; and he is of opinion that the head and the body-louse differ in no respect from each other. The pthiriasis, or lousy disease, though very little known at present, was frequent enough among the ancients; Herod, Antiochus, Epiphanes, Alcman the poet, Pherecydes, Cassander, Callisthenes, and Sylla, all died of this disorder. The use of mercury, which was unknown among the ancients, may probably have banished it from among the moderns; for certain it is that those animals seldom attack any in our climate but such as, from altho or famine, invite their company.

Such is the history of the human louse, which, from its connection with mankind, deserves first notice; but it would be endless to describe the various tribes that go under this name and swarm upon every part of Nature. There is scarce an animal, and scarce even a vegetable, that does not suffer under its own peculiar louse. The sheep, the horse, the hog, and the elephant are all teased by them; the whale, the shark, the salmon, and the lobster are not without their company; while every hot-house and every garden is infested with some peculiarly destructive. Linnæus tells us that he once found a vegetable-louse upon some plants newly arrived from America; and, willing to trace the little animal through its various stages, he took it with him from London to Leyden, where he carefully preserved it during the winter, until it bred in the spring; but the louse, it seems, did not treat him with all the gratitude he expected; for it became the parent of so numerous a progeny that it soon overrun all the physic-garden of that beautiful city, and leaves to this day many a gardener to curse the Swede's too indulgent curiosity.

The animal which some have called the leaf-louse is of the size of a flea, and of a bright green or blueish green colour; the body is nearly oval, and is largest and most convex on the hinder part; the breast is very small, and the head is blunt and green; the eyes may be seen very plainly, being prominent on the fore-part of the head, and of a shining black colour; near these there is a black line on each side; and the legs are very slender.

These animals are usually found upon the leaves of the orache and other plants; and the weaker the leaves, and buds are these insects swarm upon them in greater abundance. Some plants are covered over with them—though they are not the cause of the plant's weakness, but the sign: however, by wounding and sucking the leaf they increase the disease. They generally assume their colour from the plant on which they reside. Those that feed upon pot-herbs and plum-trees are of an ash-colour, only they are greenish when they are young: those that belong to the alder and cherry-tree are black, as also those upon beans, and some other plants; those on the

leaves of apple and rose-trees are white; but as they leap like grasshoppers, some place them in the number of the flea kind. The most uncommon colour is redish. Lice of this sort may be found on the leaves of tansy; and their juice, when rubbed in the hands, tinges them with no disagreeable red. All these live upon their respective plant, and are often engendered within the very substance of the leaf.

All these bring forth their young alive; and the foetus, when it is ready to be brought forth, entirely fills the belly of the female—its fore-parts being excluded first and then the hinder. The young one does not begin to move till the horns or feelers appear out of the body of the old one; and by the motion of these it first shows signs of life, moving them in every direction and bending all their joints. When the horns and head are excluded the two fore-feet follow, which they move with equal agility; after this follow the middle feet and then the hinder: still, however, the young one continues sticking to its parent, supported only at one extremity, and hanging, as it were, in air, until its small and soft members become hardened and fitted for self-support. The parent then gets rid of its burthen; by moving from the place where she was sitting, and forcing the young one to stand upon its legs, she leaves it to shift for itself.

As the animal has not far to go, its provision lying beneath it, during the summer it continues to eat and creep about with great agility. But as it is viviparous, and must necessarily lurk somewhere in winter where its body may be defended from the cold, it endeavours to secure a retreat near the trees or plants that serve to nourish it in the beginning of spring. They never hide themselves in the earth like many other insects, because they have no part of their bodies fitted to remove the earth; nor can they creep into every chink, as their legs are too long; besides, their bodies are so tender that the least rough particle of the earth would hurt them. They therefore get into the deep chinks of the bark and into the cavities of the stronger stalks; from thence they sally out upon the branches and leaves when the warmth of the sun begins to be felt. Neither the cold in the autumnal season nor the lesser degree of heat in the spring ever hurts them; they seldom, therefore, seek for hiding-places before the fall of the leaf, and are alert enough to take the earliest advantage of the returning spring.

Like many other insects they cast their skins four several times; and, what is very remarkable, the males have four wings, but the females never have any. They all have long legs, not only to enable them to creep over the long hairs of plants and leaves, but also to travel from one tree to another when they happen to stand at a distance. Their trunk or snout lies under their breast; and this they thrust into the pores of the plant to suck out the juice—for they do not gnaw them, like the caterpillar, but so hurt them by sucking that the leaves become spotted, and as it were overrun with scabs; for which reason their edges always turn up towards the middle.

It has been said that these insects are often carried away and devoured by ants; but this Frysach, from whom this description is taken, could never observe. The ants, indeed, are fond of those trees where there is a great number of those insects; but then it is only to suck the juice which flows from the leaves that have just been wounded. This more particularly happens in the heat of summer when other moisture is wanting: however, he never found them hurting or carrying away any of these insects while alive; nor indeed were they able, for the leaf-louse is more than a match for the ant at single combat. Whenever they perceive the ant approaching behind them they kick back with their hinder-feet, and thus drive off the invader as a horse would a lion.

The three principal and constant enemies to these insects are, first, the fire-fly, which lays its eggs where these insects are in greatest number, which, producing a worm, seizes and devours all the leaf-lice that come near it; another enemy is the worm of a peculiar kind of beetle, which destroys them in great numbers; but the most formidable of all enemies is the ichneumon fly, which seizes upon one of the largest females, and laying its egg upon her, this is hatched into a worm, which soon devours and destroys the animal from whose body it sprang.

CHAP. VI

OF THE BUG AND ITS VARIETIES.

The bug is another of those nauseous insects that intrude upon the retreats of mankind, and often banish that sleep which even sorrow and anxiety are permitted to approach. This to many men is of all other insects the most troublesome and obnoxious. The night is usually the season when the wretched have rest from their labour; but this seems the only season when the bug issues from its retreat to make its depredations. By day it lurks like a robber in the most secret parts of the bed, takes the advantage of every chink and cranny to make a secure lodgment, and contrives its habitation with so much art that scarce any industry can discover its retreat. It seems to avoid the light with great cunning; and even if candles be kept burning this formidable insect will not issue from its hiding-place. But when darkness promises security, it then issues from every corner of the bed—drops from the tester, crawls from behind the arras, and travels with great assiduity to the unhappy patient, who vainly wishes for rest and refreshment. It is generally vain to destroy one only, as there are hundreds more to revenge their companion's fate; so that the person who thus is subject to be bitten remains the whole night like a sentinel upon duty, rather watching the approach of fresh invaders than inviting the pleasing approaches of sleep.

Nor are these insects less disagreeable from their nauseous stench than their unceasing appetites. When they begin to crawl the whole bed is infected with the smell; but if they are accidentally killed, then it is insupportable.

These are a part of the inconveniences that result from the persecution of these odious insects; but happily for Great Britain, they multiply less in these islands than in any part of the continent. In France and Italy the beds, particularly in their inns, swarm with them; and every piece of furniture seems to afford them a retreat. They also grow larger with them than with us, and bite with more cruel appetite.

This animal if examined minutely appears to consist of three principal parts—the head, the corselet, and the belly. It has two brown eyes, which are very small and a little prominent, besides two feelers with three joints; underneath these there is a crooked trunk, which is its instrument of torture, and which when in motion lies close upon the breast. The breast is a kind of ring, in which are placed the two first pair of legs. The belly consists of nine rings, under which are placed two pair of legs more, making six in all. Each leg has three joints, which form the thigh, the leg, and the foot, which is armed with a crooked claw like a hook. The body is smooth, except a few short hairs that may be seen by the microscope about the vent, and on the two last rings. Its motion is slow and unwieldy; yet its sight is so exquisite, that the instant it perceives the light it generally makes good its retreat; and they are seldom caught, though the bed swarms with them.

If we examine this insect internally, we shall find the

great artery which in all insects performs the functions of the heart; we shall find the apertures of the lungs on the right side and the left, through which the animal breathes; we shall find a stomach and intestines, which, as in other animals, run from the mouth to the anus. If the insect has been kept long fasting there will be a mucus found in its body like the white of an egg; but if crushed after a full meal, the human blood which it has sucked in will appear a little darkened by having passed through the insect's body.

The male and female of these animals are plainly distinguishable from each other; and the parts of generation are obvious enough. They are often found coupling tail to tail; and in this state are very easily destroyed. The female has an ovary filled with eggs, joined together like a bunch of grapes; each egg being oblong, almost cylindrical, inclining to white and pretty transparent. In about two days after impregnation by the male she deposits her eggs, to the number of about one hundred and fifty, in some convenient place where they are likely to receive no disturbance. There they continue for some months; during which time neither cold nor heat, neither moisture nor fumigation, can in the least retard their exclusion, but they come forth active and ready for mischief. It is this hardness in the shell that seems to continue the breed—as the old ones die every winter, or are easily destroyed by any fumigation that is used for that purpose. But the eggs seem incapable of destruction: even those men who make a livelihood by killing these nauseous insects, though they can answer for the parent, can never be sure of the egg. For this reason they usually pay those houses to which they are called a second or a third visit, and at last exterminate them by perseverance.

The manner of destroying them seems rather the effects of assiduity than antidote; for the men called in upon this occasion take every part of the furniture asunder, brush every part of it with great assiduity, anoint it with a liquid, which I take to be a solution of corrosive sublimate, and having performed this operation twice or thrice, the vermin are most usually destroyed.

Cleanliness, therefore, seems to be the best antidote to remove these nauseous insects; and wherever that is wanting their increase seems but a just punishment. Indeed, they are sometimes found in such numbers among old furniture and neglected chambers exposed to the south, that, wanting other sustenance, they devour each other. They are also enemies to other vermin, and destroy fleas very effectually; so that we seldom have the double persecution of different vermin in the same bed. Of the bug kind Linnæus reckons up forty.

CHAP. VII.

OF THE WOOD-LOUSE AND ITS VARIETIES.

The common wood-louse is seldom above half an inch long and a quarter of an inch broad. The colour is of a livid black, especially when found about dunghills; but those that are to be met with under tiles and in drier places are of the colour of the hair of an ass. It has fourteen feet, seven on each side; and they have only one joint each, which is scarcely perceivable. It has two short feelers, and the body is of an oval shape. When it is touched it rolls itself up into a sort of a ball; and the sides near the feet are dentated like a saw. It is often found among rotten timber and on decayed trees; in winter it lies hid in the crevices of walls and all sorts of buildings. The male is easily distinguishable from the female, being less and more slender. The eggs they lay are white and shining, like seed-pearls, and are very numerous: however, more properly speaking, al-

though when excluded the young have all the appearance of an egg, yet they are alive, and without throwing off any shell stir and move about with great vivacity; so that this animal may properly be said to be viviparous. The little worms at first seem scarce able to stir; but they soon feed and become very brisk. These animals are of great use in medicine—being impregnated with a saline quality, which is diuretic and stimulating. Of this insect Linnæus makes three species.

CHAP. VIII.

OF THE MONOCULUS, OR ABORESCENT WATER-FLEA.

This animal, which is of the size of a flea, appears to the sight unassisted by the microscope to have but one eye; for the eyes, by reason of the smallness of the head, seem to be joined to each other; they are situated in the trunk of this insect, and the beak is likewise very small and sharp-pointed. The structure of the eye is seen by the microscope to be reticulated, or made like a net; and the trunk of this insect, by which it feeds, is not only small and sharp, but also transparent. The insects are of a blood-red colour; and sometimes are seen in such multitudes on the surface of standing waters as to make them appear all over red, whence many fanciful people have thought the water to be turned into blood.

Swammerdam tells us of a celebrated professor of Leyden who was at first astonished by an appearance of this kind. Being once intent upon his studies he heard a noise, of which, as it increased by degrees, he was desirous to know the cause. The maid-servant, attending to his summons, appeared quite petrified with fear, and told him with a tremulous voice that all the waters of Leyden were turned into blood! Upon this he went directly in a small bark to the place where the water was thus changed, and put some of the bloody water into a glass; but upon viewing it with attention, he observed that it abounded with infinite numbers of these little red insects, which tinged the whole body of the fluid with that seemingly formidable colour. Thus his sudden fright was changed into lasting admiration.

Of all parts of this animal, its branching arms and the motion it makes with them in the water deserve our greatest attention. By these the little creature can move in a straight line—waving its arms, as a bird does its wings in the air, sometimes upward, downward, sometimes to the right, sometimes to the left, yet still continuing to proceed in a right line. By striking the water with its arms it can ascend with great velocity; and by striking in a contrary direction it dives with equal ease. As these motions are very rapid the little animal appears to jump in the water, its head always tending to the surface and its tail stretched downward. This insect is produced from an egg, which when excluded is carried on the back of the female, and soon is seen floating in the water round her. Its appearance at first is that of a very small whitish insect endued with a very nimble motion. Except in colour it suffers no change, only continuing to grow larger and redder as it grows old. They sometimes remain several days on the surface of the water, and sometimes are seen at the bottom only; but they are never at rest. They change their skin, like most other insects; and the cast skin resembles the insect itself so exactly that one might mistake the mask for the animal.



CHAP. IX.

OF THE SCORPION AND ITS VARIETIES.

There is scarce an insect without wings that is not obnoxious to man: the smallest have the power of annoying him, either by biting or stinging him; and though each is in itself contemptible, they become formidable from their numbers. But of all this class there is none so terrible as the scorpion, whose shape is hideous, whose size among the insect tribe is enormous, and whose sting is generally fatal. Happy for England, the scorpion is entirely a stranger among us! In several parts of the continent of Europe it is but too well known, though it seldom grows above four inches long; but in the warm tropical climates it is seen a foot in length, and in every respect as large as a lobster.

The scorpion is one of the largest of the insect tribe, and not less terrible from its size than its malignity. It resembles a lobster somewhat in shape, but is infinitely more hideous. There have been enumerated nine different kinds of this dangerous insect, chiefly distinguished by their colour; there being scorpions yellow, brown, and ash-coloured; others that are the colour of rusty iron, green, pale-yellow, black, claret-colour, white, and grey.

There are four principal parts distinguishable in this animal—the head, the breast, the belly, and the tail. The scorpion's head seems, as it were, jointed to the breast; in the middle are seen two eyes; and a little more forward two eyes more, placed in the fore-part of the head: these eyes are so small that they are scarcely perceivable; and it is probable the animal has but little occasion for seeing. The mouth is furnished with two jaws; the undermost is divided into two, and the parts notched into each other, which serves the animal as teeth, and with which it breaks its food and thrusts it into its mouth: these the scorpion can at pleasure pull back into its mouth, so that no part of them can be seen. On each side of the head are two arms, each composed of four joints; the last of which is large, with strong muscles, and made in the manner of a lobster's claw. Below the breast are eight articulated legs, each divided into six joints; the two hindmost of which are each provided with two crooked claws, and here and there covered with hair. The belly is divided into seven little rings; from the lowest of which is continued a tail composed of six joints, which are bristly, and formed like little globes, the last being armed with a crooked sting. This is that fatal instrument that renders this insect so formidable: it is long, pointed, hard, and hollow; it is pierced near the base by two small holes, through which, when the animal stings, it ejects a drop of poison, which is white, caustic, and fatal. The reservoir in which this poison is kept is in a small bladder near the tail, into which the venom is distilled by a peculiar apparatus. If this bladder be gently pressed the venom will be seen issuing out through the two holes above-mentioned; so that it appears that when the animal stings the bladder is pressed, and the venom issues through the two apertures into the wound.

There are few animals more formidable or more truly mischievous than the scorpion. As it takes refuge in a small place, and is generally found sheltering in houses, so it cannot be otherwise than that it must frequently sting those among whom it resides. In some of the towns of Italy, and in France, in the province of Languedoc, it is one of the greatest pests that torment mankind: but its malignity in Europe is trifling when compared to what the natives of Africa and the East are known to experience. In Batavia, where they grow twelve inches long, there is no removing any piece of furniture without the utmost danger of being stung by them. Bosman assures us that along the Gold Coast they are often found larger than a lobster, and that their

sting is inevitably fatal. In Europe, however, they are by no means so large, so venomous, or so plentiful. The general size of this animal does not exceed two or three inches; and its sting is very seldom found to be fatal. Maupertuis, who made several experiments on the scorpion of Languedoc, found it by no means so invariably dangerous as had till then been represented. He provoked one of them to sting a dog in three places on the belly, where the animal was without hair; in about an hour after the poor animal seemed greatly swollen and became very sick: he then cast up whatever he had in his bowels; and for about three hours continued vomiting a whitish liquid. The belly was always greatly swollen when the animal began to vomit; but this operation always seemed to abate the swelling, which alternately expanded and was thus emptied for three hours successively. The poor animal after this fell into convulsions, bit the ground, dragged himself along upon his fore-feet, and at last died five hours after being bitten. He was not partially swollen round the place which was bitten, as is usual after the sting of a wasp or a bee; but his whole body was inflated, and there only appeared a red spot on the places where he had been stung.

Some days after, however, the same experiment was tried upon another dog, and even with more aggravated cruelty; yet the dog seemed no way affected by the wounds, but, howling a little when he received them, continued alert and well after them; and soon after was set at liberty without showing the smallest symptoms of pain. So far was this poor creature from being terrified at the experiment, that he left his own master's house to come to that of the philosopher, where he had received more plentiful entertainment. The same experiment was tried by fresh scorpions upon seven other dogs and upon three hens; but not the smallest deadly symptoms were seen to ensue. From hence it appears that many circumstances which are utterly unknown must contribute to give efficacy to the scorpion's venom. Whether it is food, long fasting, the season, the nature of the vessels it wounds, or its state of maturity, contribute to or retard its malignity is yet to be ascertained by succeeding experiment. In the trials made by our philosopher, he employed scorpions of both sexes, newly caught, and seemingly vigorous and active. The success of this experiment may serve to show that many of those boasted antidotes which are given for the cure of the scorpion's sting owe their success rather to accident than their own efficacy. They only happened to cure when the sting was no way dangerous; but in cases of actual malignity they might probably be utterly unserviceable.

The scorpion of the tropical climates, being much larger than the former, is probably much more venomous. Helbigius, however, who resided for many years in the East, assures us that he was often stung by the scorpion, and never received any material injury from the wound: a painful tumour generally ensued; but he always cured it by rubbing the part with a piece of iron or stone, as he had seen the Indians practice before him, until the flesh became insensible. Seba, Moore, and Bosman, however, give a very different account of the scorpion's malignity; and assert that, unless speedily relieved, the wound becomes fatal.

It is certain that no animal in the creation seems endured with such an irascible nature. I have often seen them taken and put into a place of security, exerting all their rage against the sides of the glass vessel that contained them. I have seen them attempt to sting a stick when put near them, and attack a mouse or a frog, while those animals were far from offering any injury. Maupertuis put three scorpions and a mouse into the same vessel together, and they stung the little animal in different places. The mouse, thus assaulted, stood for some time upon the defensive, and at last killed them all, one after another. He tried this experiment in order to see whether the mouse after it had killed would eat

the scorpions; but the little quadruped seemed entirely satisfied with the victory, and even survived the severity of the wounds it had received. Wolkamer tried the courage of the scorpion against the large spider, and enclosed several of both kinds in glass vessels for that purpose. The success of this combat was very remarkable. The spider at first used all its arts to immesh the scorpion in its web, which it immediately began spinning; but the scorpion rescued itself from the danger by stinging its adversary to death; it soon after cut off with its claws all the legs of the spider, and then sucked the internal parts at its leisure. If the scorpion's skin had not been so hard Wolkamer is of opinion that the spider would have obtained the victory; for he had often seen one of these spiders destroy a toad.

The fierce spirit of this animal is equally dangerous to its own species; for scorpions are the cruellest enemies to each other. Maupertuis put about a hundred of them together in the same glass; and they scarce came into contact when they began to exert all their rage in mutual destruction: there was nothing to be seen but one universal carnage, without any distinction of age or sex; so that in a few days there remained only fourteen, which had killed and devoured all the rest.

But their unnatural malignity is still more apparent in their cruelty to their offspring. He enclosed a female scorpion, big with young, in a glass vessel, and she was seen to devour them as fast as they were excluded: there was but one only of the number that escaped the general destruction by taking refuge on the back of its parent; and this soon after revenged the cause of its brethren by killing the old one in its turn.

Such is the terrible and unrelenting nature of this insect, which neither the bonds of society nor of Nature can reclaim: it is even asserted that, when driven to an extremity, the scorpion will often destroy itself. The following experiment was ineffectually tried by Maupertuis; but I am so well assured of it by so many eyewitnesses, who have seen it both in Italy and America, that I have no doubt remaining of its veracity. A scorpion, newly caught, is placed in the midst of a circle of burning charcoal, and thus an egress prevented on every side: the scorpion, as I am assured, runs for a minute round the circle in hopes of escaping; but finding that impossible, it stings itself on the back of the head, and in this manner the undaunted suicide instantly expires.

It is happy for mankind that these animals are destructive to each other; since otherwise they would multiply in so great a degree as to render some countries uninhabitable. The male and female of this insect are very easily distinguishable—the male being smaller and less hairy. The female brings forth her young alive, and perfect in their kind. Redi, having bought a quantity of scorpions, selected the females, which by their size and roughness were easily distinguishable from the rest, and putting them in separate glass vessels he kept them for some days without food. In about five days one of them brought forth thirty-eight young ones, well shaped, and of a milk-white colour, which changed every day more and more into a dark rusty hue. Another female in a different vessel brought forth twenty-seven of the same colour; and the day following the young ones seemed all fixed to the back and belly of the female. For near a fortnight all these continued alive and well; but afterwards some of them died daily; until, in about a month, they all died except two.

Were it worth the trouble, these animals might be kept living as long as curiosity might think proper. Their chief food is worms and insects; and upon a proper supply of these their lives might be lengthened to their natural extent. How long that may be we are not told; but if we may argue from analogy, it cannot

be less than seven or eight years—perhaps in the larger kind double that duration. As they have somewhat the form of a lobster, so they resemble that animal in casting their shell, or more properly their skin; since it is softer by far than the covering of the lobster, and set with hairs, which grow from it in great abundance, particularly at the joinings. The young lie in the womb of the parent, each covered up in its own membrane, to the number of forty or fifty, and united to each by an oblong thread, so as to exhibit altogether the form of a chaplet.

Such is the manner in which the common scorpion produces its young; but there is a scorpion of America produced from the egg in the manner of the spider. The eggs are no larger than pin-points; and they are deposited in a web which they spin from their bodies, and carry about with them till they are hatched. As soon as the young ones are excluded from the shell they get upon the back of the parent, who turns her tail over them and defends them with her sting. It seems probable, therefore, that captivity produces that unnatural disposition in the scorpion which induces it to destroy its young; since, at liberty, it is found to protect them with such unceasing assiduity.

CHAP. X.

OF THE SCOLOPENDRA AND GALLY-WORM.

Of these hideous and angry insects we know little, except the figure and the noxious qualities. Though with us there are insects somewhat resembling them in form, we are placed at a happy distance from such as are really formidable. With us they seldom grow above an inch long; in the tropical climates they are often found above a quarter of a yard.

The scolopendra is otherwise called the centipes, from the number of its feet; and it is very common in many parts of the world, especially between the tropics. Those of the East Indies, where they grow to the largest size, are about six inches long, of a ruddy colour, and as thick as a man's finger; they consist of many joints, and from each joint is a leg on each side; they are covered with hair, and seem to have no eyes; but there are two feelers on the head, which they make use of to find out the way that they are to pass; the head is very round, with two small sharp teeth, with which they inflict very painful and dangerous wounds. A sailor that was bitten by one on board ship felt an excessive pain, and his life was supposed to be in danger: however, he recovered by the application of three roasted onions to the part, and was soon quite well. Of this animal there are different kinds—some living, like worms, in holes in the earth; others under stones and among rotten wood: so that nothing is more dangerous than removing those substances in the places where they breed.

The gally-worm differs from the scolopendra in having double the number of feet—there being two on each side to every joint of the body. Some of these are smooth and others hairy; some are yellow, some black, and some brown. They are found among decayed trees, between the wood and the bark; as also among stones that are covered with moss. They all when touched contract their bodies, rolling themselves up like a ball. Whatever may be their qualities in the tropical parts of the world, in Europe they are perfectly harmless—having been often handled and irritated without any vindictive consequences.

All these, as well as the scorpion, are supposed to be produced perfect from the parent or the egg; and to undergo no changes after the first exclusion. They are seen of all sizes; and this is a sufficient inducement to suppose that they preserve their first appearance through

the whole of their existence. It is probable, however, that like most of this class they often change their skins; but of this we have no certain information.

CHAP. XI.

OF THE LEECH.

The last of this wingless tribe that I shall mention is the leech, which, like all the former, undergoes no varieties of transformation, but when once excluded from the body of the parent preserves its first figure to the end. [I place the history of the leech among the first class of insects; while I have degraded the earth-worm, the tænia, and the polypus into the class of zoophytes, or that imperfect tribe which serves to make the shade between Animal and Vegetable Nature. Not but that the earth-worm or the polypus have their motions, their appetites, and their vital principles as complete as the leech, and, to a cursory view, appear every way as complete animals. But there is one circumstance that lays the line between them—that exalts the one and degrades the other: the earth-worm and the polypus may be cut in two pieces, and each piece will produce a new and perfect animal; the leech cannot suffer this dissection, but dies when cut in two—an evident instance that it is possessed of a more perfect organization than those animals which it otherwise very much resembles.]

The leech, from its uses in medicine, is one of those insects that man has taken care to preserve; but of a great variety one kind only is considered as serviceable. The horse-leech, which is the largest of all, and grows to four inches in length, with a glossy black surface, is of no use, as it will not stick to the skin; the snail-leech is but an inch in length, and though it will stick, is not large enough to extract a sufficient quantity of blood from the patient; the broad-tailed leech, which grows to an inch and a half in length, with the back raised into a sort of a ridge, will stick but on very few occasions: it is the large brown leech with a whitish belly that is made use of in medicine, and whose history best merits our curiosity.

The leech has the general figure of a worm, and is about as long as one's middle finger. Its skin is composed of rings, by means of which it is possessed of its agility and swims in water. It contracts itself when out of water in such a manner, that when touched it is not above an inch long. It has a small head and a black skin, edged with a yellow line on each side, with some yellowish spots on the back. The belly, also, which is of a redish colour, is marked with whitish-yellow spots. But the most remarkable part of this animal is the mouth, which is composed of two lips, that take whatever form the insect finds convenient. When at rest the opening is usually triangular: and within it are placed three very sharp teeth, capable of piercing not only the human skin, but also that of a horse or an ox. Still deeper in the head is discovered the tongue, which is composed of a strong fleshy substance, and which serves to assist the animal in sucking when it has inflicted its triple wound; for no sooner is this voracious creature applied to the skin than it buries its teeth therein, and closes its lips round the wound which it has made; thus, in the manner of a cupping-glass, it extracts the blood as it flows to the different orifices.

In examining this animal's form farther towards the tail, it is seen to have a gullet and an intestinal canal, into which the blood flows in great abundance. On each side of this are seen running along several little bladders, which, when the animal is empty, seem to be filled with nothing but water; but when it is gorging blood they seem to communicate with the intestines, and receive a large portion of the blood which flows into

the body. If these bladders should be considered as so many stomachs, then every leech will be found to have twenty-four. But what is most extraordinary of all in this animal's formation is, that though it takes so large a quantity of food it has no anus or passage to eject it from the body when it has been digested. On the contrary, the blood which the leech has thus sucked remains for several months clotted within its body, blackened a little by the change, but no way putrefied, and very little altered in its texture or consistence. In what manner it passes through the animal's body, or how it contributes to its nourishment, is not easily accounted for. The water in which they are kept is very discoloured by their continuance; they cannot be supposed to return the blood by the same passage through which it was taken in: it only remains, therefore, that it goes off through the pores of the body, and that these are sufficiently large to permit its exclusion.

But it is not in this instance alone that leeches differ from all other insects. It was remarked in a former chapter that the whole insect tribe had the opening into their lungs placed in their sides, and that they breathed through those apertures as other animals through the mouth. A drop of oil poured on the sides of a wasp, a bee, or a worm would quickly suffocate them, by stopping up the passages through which they breathe; but it is otherwise with the leech, for this animal may be immersed in oil without injury, nay, it will live therein; and the only damage it will sustain is that, when taken out, it will be seen to cast a fine pellucid skin exactly of the shape of the animal, after which it is as alert and vigorous as before. It appears from hence that the leech breathes through the mouth; and, in fact, it has a motion that seems to resemble the act of respiration in more perfect animals: but concerning all this we are very much in the dark.

This animal seems to differ from all others in several respects: the rest of the reptile tribe are brought forth from eggs; the leech is viviparous, and produces its young one after the other to the number of forty or fifty at a birth. It is probable that, like the snail, each insect contains the two sexes, and that it impregnates and is impregnated in the same manner. The young ones are chiefly found in the month of July, in shallow running waters, and particularly where they are tepidified by the rays of the sun. The large ones are chiefly sought after; and being put into a glass vessel filled with water, they remain for months, nay for years, without taking any other subsistence. But they never breed in this confinement; and, consequently, what regards that part of their history still remains obscure.

In this part of the world they seldom grow to above four inches; but in America and the East they are found from six to seven. Their pools there abound with them in such numbers, that it would be dangerous bathing there if for no other consideration. Our sailors and soldiers, who during the last war were obliged to walk in those countries through marshy grounds, talk with terror of the number of leeches that infested them on their march. Even in some parts of Europe they increase so as to become formidable. Sedelius, a German physician, relates that a girl of nine years old, who was keeping sheep near the city of Bouist, in Poland, perceiving a soldier making up to her, went to hide herself in a neighbouring marsh among some bushes; but the number of leeches was so great in that place, and they stuck to her so close, that the poor creature expired from the quantity of blood which she lost by their united efforts. Nor is this much to be wondered at, since one of those insects that when empty generally weighs but a scruple, when gorged, weighs more than two drachmas.

When leeches are to be applied, the best plan is to take them from the water in which they are contained about an hour before, for they thus become more voracious and fasten more readily. When saturated with

blood they generally fall off of themselves: but if it be thought necessary to take them from the wound, care should be used to pull them very gently, or even to sprinkle them with salt if they continue to adhere; for if they be plucked rudely away it most frequently happens that they leave their teeth in the wound, which makes a very troublesome inflammation, and is often attended with danger. If they be slow in fixing to the part, they are often enticed by rubbing it with milk or blood, or water mixed with sugar. As salt is a poison to most insects, many people throw it upon the leech when it has dropped from the wound, by which means it disgorges the blood it has swallowed, and it is then kept for repeated application. They seldom, however, stick after this operation; and as the price is but small, fresh leeches should always be applied whenever such an application is thought necessary.

BOOK II.—CHAP. I.

OF THE SECOND ORDER OF INSECTS IN GENERAL.

In the former part we gave a concise history of the most considerable insects that, without wings, were produced in a perfect state—either from the body of the parent alive, like quadrupeds, or from the egg, in the manner of birds. We come now to a second order of insects, that are produced from the egg like the former, but not in a perfect state; for when first excluded they are without wings. This, however, does not hinder the exercise of their animal functions; the insect, although not yet come to perfection, walks, leaps, and eats; nor is it ever deprived of motion, only that it rests a little when it is about to cast that part of its skin previous to its state of perfection. It is then seen to assume two wings, which, like a budding flower, burst through the case that contained them, and the animal becomes a winged insect in its state of highest perfection. To this order we may refer the libella, or dragon-fly, the formica-leo, or lion-ant, the grasshopper, the locust, the cricket, the wood-cricket, the mole-cricket, the flea-locust, the flying-bug, the tipula, the water-scorpion, the notonecta or water-fly, and many others.

CHAP. II.

OF THE LIBELLA, OR DRAGON-FLY.

Of all the flies which adorn or diversify the face of Nature, these are the most various and the most beautiful; they are of all colours—green, blue, crimson, scarlet, white; some unite a variety of the most vivid tints, and exhibit in one animal more different shades than are to be found in the rainbow. They are called in different parts of the kingdom by different names; but none can be at a loss to know them, as they are distinguished from all other flies by the length of their bodies, by the largeness of their eyes, and by the beautiful transparency of their wings, which are four in number. They are seen in summer flying about with great rapidity near every hedge and by every running brook; they sometimes settle on the leaves of plants, and sometimes keep for hours together on the wing.

Dragon-flies, though there are three or four different kinds, yet agree in the most striking part of their history, and one account may serve for all. The largest sort are generally found from two to three inches long; their tail is forked; the body divided into eleven rings; their eyes are large, horny, and transparent, divided by a number of intersections; and their wings, which always lie flat when they are at rest, are of a beautiful

glossy transparency—sometimes shining like silver, and sometimes glistening like gold. Within the mouth are to be seen two teeth covered with a beautiful lip; with these the creatures bite fiercely when they are taken; but their bite is perfectly harmless, as I have experienced more than once.

These insects, beautiful as they are, are produced from eggs which are deposited in the water, where they remain for some time without seeming life or motion. They are ejected by the female in the water in clusters, like a bunch of grapes, where they sink to the bottom by their natural weight, and continue in that state till the young ones find strength enough to break the shell and to separate from each other. The form in which they first show life is that of a worm with six legs, bearing a strong resemblance to the dragon-fly in its winged state, except that the wings are yet concealed within a sheath peculiar to this animal. The rudiments of these appear in bunches on the back, within which the wings are folded up into each other, while all the colours and varieties of painting appear transparent through the skin. These animals upon quitting the egg still continue in the water, where they creep and swim, but do not move swiftly. They have likewise a sharp sight, and immediately sink to the bottom if any one comes to the places wherein they live, or whenever they perceive the least uncommon object. Their food at that time is soft mud and the glutinous earthy substances that are found at the bottom.

When these animals prepare to change from their reptile to their flying state, they then move out of the water to a dry place, as into grass, to pieces of wood, stone, or anything else they meet with. They there firmly fix their acute claws, and for a short time continue quite immoveable, as if meditating on the change they are to undergo. It is then observed that the skin first opens on the head and back; and out of this opening they exhibit their real head and eyes, and at length their six legs; whilst, in the meantime, the hollow and empty skin or slough of their legs remains firmly fixed in its place. After this the enclosed creature creeps forward by degrees, and by this means draws first its wings and then its body out of the skin; and, proceeding a little farther, sits at rest for some time as if immoveable. During this time the wings, which were moist and folded, begin by degrees to expand themselves, and to make smooth and even all those plaits which were laid against each other like a closed fan. The body is likewise insensibly extended, until all the limbs have obtained their proper size and dimensions. All these surprising and difficult operations are accomplished by the force of the blood and the circulating humours. The creature cannot at first make use of its new wings, and therefore is forced to stay in the same place until all its limbs are dried by the circumambient air. It soon, however, begins to enter upon a more noble life than it had hitherto led in the bottom of the brook; and from creeping slowly and living accidentally, it now wings the air, and makes choice from amidst the variety of its provisions.

Indeed, no animal is more amply fitted for motion, subsistence, and enjoyment. As it hunts and seeks after its food flying in the air, Nature has provided it with two large eyes, which make almost the whole head, and which resemble glittering mother-of-pearl. It has also four expansive silver-coloured wings, with which, as with oars, it can turn itself with prodigious velocity; and to assist these, it is furnished with a very long body, which, like a rudder, directs its motions. As the wings are long and the legs short they seldom walk, but are ever seen either resting or flying. For this reason they always choose dry branches of trees or shrubs to remain on; and when they have refreshed themselves a little they renew their flight. Thus they are seen adorning the summer with a profusion of beauty, lightly traversing

the air in a thousand directions, and expanding the most beautiful colours to the sun. The garden, the forest, the hedges, and the rivulets are animated by their sports; and there are few who have been brought up in the country who have not employed a part of their childhood in the pursuit.

But while these beautiful flies appear to us so idly and innocently employed, they are in fact the greatest tyrants of the insect tribe, and, like the hawk among birds, are only hovering up and down to seize their prey. They are the strongest and most courageous of all winged insects; nor is there one, how large soever, that they will not attack and devour. The blue-fly, the bee, the wasp, and the hornet make their constant prey; and even the butterfly, that spreads so large a wing, is often caught and treated without mercy. Their appetite seems to know no bounds; they spend the whole day in the pursuit, and have been seen to devour three times their own size in the capture of a single hour. They seize their prey flying with their six claws, and tear it easily to pieces with their teeth, which are capable of inflicting troublesome wounds.

But the males are upon the wing for another purpose beside that of food, as they are very falacious, and seek the female with great ardour. The sun no sooner begins to warm the fields than the males are found assiduously employed each in seeking its mate; and no sooner does a female appear but two or three males are seen pursuing and endeavouring to seize her with all their arts and agility. The instrument of generation in the male is placed very different from that of any other insect, being not in the end of the tail as in others, but immediately under the breast, and consequently, at first view, incapable of being united to the sexual part of the female, which, as in other insects, lies in the tail. To perform this junction Nature has provided the male with a very peculiar manner of proceeding. As soon as he perceives the female, and finds himself sufficiently near, he seizes upon the back of her head by surprise, and, fastening his claws upon her, turns round his forky tail, which he fastens round her neck, and in this manner fixes himself so closely and firmly that no efforts can remove him. It is in vain that she flies from one branch to another and settles upon them; he still keeps fixed, and often continues in this situation for three or four hours successively. When he flies she is obliged to fly with him; but he still directs the way; and though she moves her wings she seems entirely guided by his motions. As yet, however, the business of impregnation is not performed; for to this the female must contribute—and she at last seems, by the continuance of her constraint, to comply; for, turning up the end of her tail to that part of the breast of the male in which lies the part proper for generation, both instruments meet, and the eggs of the female receive the necessary fecundation. An hour or two after this she flies to some neighbouring pool, where she deposits her eggs, as was already mentioned. There they continue in a reptile state for a year; and then are changed into a beautiful fly resembling the parent.

CHAP. III.

OF THE FORMICA LEO, OR LION-ANT.

Although this animal properly belongs to an order of insects, yet as it is changed into a fly very much resembling that described in the preceding chapter, it may not be improper to give its history here. If we consider the life of this animal in its different stages of existence we shall find it equally wonderful in all; but as it changes to a dragon-fly, what we have said of that animal above need not be repeated here. The

lion-ant, when it becomes an inhabitant of the air, in every respect resembles that which has been already described; its glossy wings, its voracious appetites, its peculiar manner of generation, are entirely the same. It is in its reptile state that it differs from all other insects; and in that state it will be amusing to pursue its history.

The lion-ant in its reptile state is of the size of a common wood-louse, but somewhat broader. It has a pretty long head and a roundish body, which becomes a little narrower towards the tail. The colour is a dirty grey speckled with black, and the body is composed of several flat rings, which slip one upon another. It has six feet, four of which are fixed to the breast and two to the neck. The head is small and flat, and before there are two little smooth horns or feelers, which are hard, about a quarter of an inch long, and crooked at the ends. At the basis of the feelers there are two small, black, lively eyes, by which it can see the smallest object, as is easily discovered by its starting from everything that approaches.

To a form so unpromising and so ill-provided for the purposes of rapacity, this animal unites the most ravenous appetites in Nature; but to mark its imbecility still stronger, as other animals have wings or feet to enable them to advance towards their prey, the lion-ant is unprovided with such assistance from either. It has legs, indeed; but these only enable it to run backwards, so that it could as soon die as make the smallest progressive motion. Thus, famished and rapacious as it ever seems, its prey must come to it, or rather into the snare provided for it, or the insidious assassin must starve.

But Nature, that has denied it strength or swiftness, has given it an equivalent in cunning, so that no animal fares more sumptuously without ever stirring from its retreat. For this purpose it chooses a dry, sandy place, at the foot of a wall or under some shelter, in order to preserve its machinations from the rain. The driest and most sandy spot is the most proper for it, because a heavy, clogged earth would defeat its labour. When it goes about to dig the hole where it takes its prey it begins to bend the hinder part of its body, which is pointed, and thus works backward—making, after several attempts, a circular furrow, which serves to mark out the size of the hole it intends making as the ancients marked out the limits of a city with the plough. Within this first furrow it digs a second, then a third, and afterwards others, which are always less than the preceding. Then it begins to deepen its hole, sinking lower and lower into the sand, which it throws with its horns or feelers towards the edges, as we see men throw up sand in a gravel-pit. Thus, by repeating its labours all round, the sand is thrown up in a circle about the edge of a pit until the whole is quite completed. This hole is always formed in a perfect circle; and the pit itself resembles the inside of an inverted funnel. When this insect first leaves the egg and is newly hatched, the first pit it makes is very small; but as it grows bigger it makes a larger hole, which is destined, like a pit-fall, to entrap its prey. It is generally about two inches deep, and as much in diameter.

The work being thus with great labour finished, the insidious insect places itself in ambush, hiding itself at the bottom under the sand, in such a manner that its two horns encircle the bottom of the pit. All the sides of this pit-fall are made of the most loose and crumbling materials—so that scarce any insect can climb up that has once got down to the bottom. Conscious of this, the lion-ant remains in patient expectation, ready to profit by that accident which throws some heedless little animal into its den. If, then, by misfortune an ant, a wood-louse, or a small caterpillar walks too near the edge of the precipice, the sand gives way beneath them, and they fall to the bottom of the pit, where they meet inevitable destruction. The fall of a single grain of

sand gives the murderer notice at the bottom of its cave; and it never fails to sally forth to seize upon its prey. It happens sometimes, however, that the ant or the woodlouse is too nimble, and runs up the sides of the pit-fall before the other can make ready to seize it. The lion-ant has then another contrivance, still more wonderful than the former; for, by means of its broad head and feelers, it has a method of throwing up a shower of sand which falls upon the struggling captive with tremendous weight, and once more crushes it down to the bottom. When the insect is once fallen thus low no efforts can retrieve or release it; the lion-ant seizes it with its feelers, which are hollow, and darting them both into its body, sucks out all the little animal's juices with the utmost rapacity.

When the prey is thus reduced to a husk, and nothing but the external form remains, the next care of the murderer is to remove the body from its cell; since the appearance of dead carcases might forewarn other insects of the danger of the place. The insect therefore takes up the wasted trunk with its feelers, and throws it, with wonderful strength, at least six inches from the edge of its hole; and then patiently sets about mending the breaches which its fortifications had received in the last engagement. Nothing can abate its industry, its vigilance, its patience, or its rapacity. It will work for a week together to make its pit-fall; it will continue upon the watch for more than a month, patiently expecting the approach of its prey; and if it comes in greater quantities than is needful, yet still the little voracious creature will quit the insect it has newly killed, and leave it half-eaten to kill and attack any other that happens to fall within the sphere of its malignity; though so voracious, it is surprisingly patient of hunger—some of them having been kept in a box with sand for six months and upwards without feeding at all.

When the lion-ant attains a certain age, in which it is to change into another form, it then leaves off its usual rapacious habits, but keeps on its industry. It no longer continues to make pits, but furrows up the sand all round in an irregular manner, testifying those workings and violent agitations which most insects exhibit previous to their transformation. These animals are produced in autumn, and generally live a year, and perhaps two, before they assume a winged form. Certain it is that they are found at the end of winter of all sizes; and it would seem that many of the smaller kinds had not yet attained sufficient maturity for transformation. Be this as it may, when the time of change approaches, if the insect finds its little cell convenient it seeks no other; if it is obliged to remove after furrowing up the sand, it hides itself under it, horns and all. It there spins a thread, in the same manner of the spider; which being made of a glutinous substance, and being humid from the moisture of its body, sticks to the little particles of sand among which it is spun; and in proportion as it is thus excluded, the insect rolls up its web, sand and all, into a ball, of which itself is the centre. This ball is about half an inch in diameter, and within it the insect resides in an apartment sufficiently spacious for all its motions. The outside is composed of sand and silk; the inside is lined with silk only, of a fine pearl-colour, extremely delicate, and perfectly beautiful. But though the work is so curious within it exhibits nothing to external appearance but a lump of sand, and thus escapes the search of birds that might otherwise disturb the inhabitant within.

The insect continues thus shut up for six weeks or two months, and gradually parts with its eyes, its feelers, its feet, and its skin, all which are thrust into a corner of the inner apartment like a rag. The insect then appears almost in its winged state, except that there is a thin skin which wraps up the wings, and that appears to be nothing else but a liquor dried on their outside. Still, however, the little animal is too delicate and

tender to venture from its retreat, but continues enclosed for some time longer; at length, when the members of this new insect have acquired the necessary consistence and vigour, it tears open its lodging and breaks through its wall. For this purpose it has two teeth, like those of grasshoppers, with which it eats through and enlarges the opening till it gets out. Its body, which is turned like a screw, takes up no more than the space of a quarter of an inch; but when it is unfolded it becomes half an inch in length; while its wings, that seemed to occupy the smallest space, in two minutes time unfold, and become longer than the body. In short, it becomes a large beautiful fly of the libella kind, with a long, slender body, of a brown colour; a small head, with large bright eyes, long slender legs, and four large, transparent, reticulated wings. The rest of its habits resembles that insect whose form it bears; except that instead of dropping its eggs in the water it deposits them in sand, where they are soon hatched into that rapacious insect so justly admired for its method of catching its prey.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE GRASSHOPPER, THE LOCUST, THE CICADA, THE CRICKET, AND THE MOLE-CRICKET.

Belonging to the second order of insects, we find a tribe of little animals which, though differing in size and colour, strongly resemble each other in figure, appetites, nature, and transformation. But though they all appear of one family, yet man has been taught to hold them in different estimation; for while some of this tribe amuse him with their chirpings and banish solitude from the fields, others come in swarms, eat up everything that is green, and in a single night convert the most delightful landscape into a dreary waste. However, if these animals be separately considered, the devouring locust is not in the least more mischievous than the musical grasshopper; the only difference is that one species comes for food in a swarm, the other feeds singly.

That animal which is called the grasshopper with us differs greatly from the cicada of antiquity; for as our insect is active enough in hopping through the long grass, from whence it has taken its name, the cicada had not this power, but either walked or flew. The little hissing note, also, of our grasshopper is very different from the song of the cicada, which was louder and far more musical. The manner in which this note is produced by the two animals is very different; for the cicada makes it by a kind of a buckler, which the male has beneath its belly—the grasshopper by a transparent membrane that covers a hole at the base of its wings. There is still greater variety in all these with regard to shape and colour. Some are green, some black, some livid, and some variegated; but many of them do not show all their colours till they fly. Some have long legs, some short, some with more joints, others with fewer. Some sing, others are mute; some are innocent, doing no damage to the husbandman; while others do such prodigious mischief, that they are looked upon in some countries as one of the terrible scourges of incensed Divinity.

Of this variegated tribe the little grasshopper that breeds in such plenty in every meadow, and that continues its chirping through the summer is best known to us; and by having its history we shall be possessed of that of all the rest. This animal is of the colour of green leaves, except a line of brown which streaks the back, and two pale lines under the belly and behind the legs. It may be divided into the head, the corselet, and the belly. The head is oblong, looking towards the

earth, and bearing some resemblance to that of a horse. Its mouth is covered by a kind of round buckler jutting over it, and armed with teeth of a brown colour, hooked at the points. Within the mouth is perceivable a large redish tongue fixed to the lower jaw. The feelers or horns are very long, tapering off to a point; and the eyes are two black specks, a little prominent. The corselet is elevated, narrow, and armed above and below by two serrated spines. The back is armed with a strong buckler, to which the muscles of the legs are firmly bound; and round these muscles are seen the vessels by which the animal breathes, as white as snow. The last pair of legs are much longer and stronger than the first two pair, fortified by thick muscles, and very well formed for leaping. It has four wings—the anterior ones springing from the second pair of legs, the posterior from the third pair. The hinder wings are much finer and more expansive than the foremost, and are the principal instruments of its flight. The belly is very large, composed of eight rings, and terminated by a forked tail covered with down, like the tail of a rat. When examined internally, besides the gullet, we discover a small stomach; and behind that a very large one, wrinkled and furrowed within side: lower down there is still a third; so that it is not without reason that all the animals of this order are said to chew the cud, as they so much resemble ruminating animals in their internal conformation.

A short time after the grasshopper assumes its wings it fills the meadows with its note, which, like that among birds, is a call to courtship. The male only of this tribe is vocal; and, upon examining at the base of the wings, there will be found a little hole in its body, covered with a fine transparent membrane. This is thought by Linnæus to be the instrument it employs in singing: but others are of opinion the sound is produced by rubbing its hinder legs against each other: however this be, the note of one male is seldom heard but it is returned by another; and the two little animals, after many mutual insults of this kind, are seen to meet and fight desperately. The female is generally the reward of victory; for, after the combat, the male seizes her with his teeth behind the neck, and thus keeps her for several hours till the business of fecundation is performed. They are at that time so strongly united that they can scarcely be separated without tearing asunder. Towards the latter end of autumn the female prepares to deposit her burthen; and her body is then seen greatly distended with her eggs, which she carries to the number of one hundred and fifty. In order to make a proper lodgment in the earth for them, Nature has furnished her with an instrument at her tail, somewhat resembling a two-edged sword, which she can sheath and unsheath at pleasure; with this she pierces the earth as deep as she is able, and into the hole which her instrument has made she deposits her eggs, one after the other.

Having thus provided for the continuation of her posterity, the animal herself does not long survive; but as the winter approaches she dries up, seems to feel the effects of age, and dies from a total decay. Some, however, assert that she is killed by the cold, and others that she is eaten by worms: but certain it is that neither the male nor female are ever seen to survive the winter. In the meantime the eggs which have been deposited continue unaltered, either by the severity of the season or the retardation of the spring. They are of an oval figure, white, and of the consistence of horn: their size nearly equals that of a grain of anise; they are enveloped in the body within a covering branched all over with veins and arteries, and when excluded they crack on being pressed between the fingers; their substance within is a whitish, viscous, and transparent fluid. In this manner they remain deposited beneath the surface of the earth during the whole winter, till the genial

return of the spring season begins to vivify and hatch them. The sun with its warmth beginning to animate all Nature, the insect eggs feel its benign influence, and generally about the beginning of May every egg produces an insect about the size of a flea. These at first are of a whitish colour; at the end of two or three days they turn black, and soon after they become of a redish-brown. They appear from the beginning like grasshoppers wanting wings, and hop among the grass as soon as excluded with great agility.

Yet still they are by no means arrived at their state of full perfection, although they bear a strong resemblance to the animal in its perfect form. They want, or seem to want, the wings which they are at last seen to assume, and can only hop among the grass without being able to fly. The wings, however, are not wanting, but are concealed within four little bunches that seem to deform the sides of the animal; there they lie rolled up in a most curious manner, and occupying a smaller space than one would conceive who saw them extended. Indeed, all insects, whatever transmutations they seem to undergo, are yet brought forth with those very limbs, parts, and wings which they afterwards seem to acquire. In the most helpless caterpillar there is still to be seen the rudiments of that beautiful plumage which it afterwards expands when a butterfly; and though many new parts seem unfolded to the view, the animal acquires none but such as it was from the beginning possessed of. The grasshopper, therefore, though seemingly without wings, is in reality from the first possessed of those instruments, and only waits for sufficient force to break the bonds that hold them folded up, and to give them their full expansion.

The grasshopper, that for above twenty days from its exclusion has continued without the use of its wings, which are folded up to its body, at length prepares for its emancipation and for a life of greater liberty and pleasure. To make the proper dispositions for the approaching change, it ceases from its grassy food, and seeks about for a convenient place—beneath some thorn or thistle, that may protect it from an accidental shower. The same laborious writhings and workings, heavings and palpitations, which we have remarked in every other insect upon an approaching change are exhibited in this. It swells up its head and neck; it then seems to draw them in again; and thus alternately for some time it exerts its powers to get free. At length the skin covering the head and breast is seen dividing above the neck; the head is seen issuing out first from the bursting skin; the efforts still continuing, the other parts follow successively; so that the little animal with its long feelers, legs and all, works its way from the old skin that remains fixed to the thistle or the thorn. It is indeed inconceivable how the insect can thus extricate itself from so exact a sheath as that which covered every part of its body.

The grasshopper, thus disengaged from its outer skin, appears in its perfect form; but then so feeble, and its body so soft and tender, that it may be molded like wax. It is no longer of that obscure colour which it exhibited before, but a greenish-white, which becomes more vivid as the moisture on the surface is dried away. Still, however, the animal continues to show no signs of life, but appears quite spent and fatigued with its labour for more than an hour together. During this time the body is drying and the wings unfolding to their greatest expansion. The curious observer will perceive them, fold after fold, opening to the sun, till at last they become longer than the hinder legs. The insect's body also is lengthened during this operation, and it becomes much more beautiful than before.

These insects are generally vocal in the middle of summer, and they are heard at sun-setting much louder than during the heat of the day. They are fed upon grass; and, if their belly be pressed, they will be seen to return

the juices of the plants they have last fed upon. Though unwilling to fly and slow in flight, particularly when the weather is moist or cool, they are sometimes seen to fly to considerable distances. If they are caught by one of the hinder legs they quickly disengage themselves from it, and leave the leg behind them. This, however, does not grow again, as with crabs or spiders; for as they are animals but of a single year's continuance, they have not sufficient time for repairing these accidental misfortunes. The loss of their leg also prevents them from flying: for being unable to lift themselves in the air, they have not room upon the ground for the proper expansion of their wings. If they be handled roughly they will bite very fiercely; and when they fly they make a noise with their wings. They generally keep in the plain, and where the grass is luxuriant and the ground rich and fertile; there they deposit their eggs, particularly in those cracks which are formed by the heat of the sun.

Such are the habits and nature of those little vocal insects that swarm in our meadows and enliven the landscape. The larger kinds only differ from them in size, in rapidity of flight, and in the powers of injuring mankind, by swarming upon the productions of the earth. The quantity of grass which a few grasshoppers that sport in the fields can destroy is trifling; but when a swarm of locusts, two or three miles long and several yards deep, settle upon a field, the consequences are frightful. The annals of every country are marked with the devastation which such a multitude of insects produces; and though they seldom visit Europe in such dangerous swarms as formerly, yet in some of the southern kingdoms they are still formidable. Those which have at uncertain intervals visited Europe in our memory are supposed to have come from Africa, and the animal is called the brown locust. It was seen in several parts of England in the year 1748, and many dreadful consequences were apprehended from its appearance. This insect is about three inches long, and has two horns or feelers an inch in length. The head and horns are of a brownish colour; it is blue about the mouth, as also on the inside of the larger legs. The shield that covers the back is greenish, and the upper side of the body brown spotted with black, and the under side purple. The upper-wings are brown with small dusky spots, with one larger at the tips; the under-wings are more transparent, and of a light brown tinged with green, but there is a dark cloud of spots near the tips. This is that insect which has threatened us so often with its visitations, and which is so truly terrible in the countries where it is bred. There is no animal in the creation that multiplies so fast as these, if the sun be warm and the soil in which their eggs are deposited be dry. Happily for us, the coldness of our climate and the humidity of our soil are no way favourable to their production; and as they are but the animals of a year, they visit us and perish.

The Scripture, which was written in a country where the locust made a distinguished feature in the picture of Nature, has given us several very striking images of this animal's numbers and rapacity. It compares an army where the numbers are almost infinite to a swarm of locusts: it describes them as rising out of the earth, where they are produced—as pursuing a settled march to destroy the fruits of the earth and co-operate with Divine Indignation.

When the locusts take the field, as we are assured, they have a leader at their head, whose flight they observe, and pay strict attention to all its motions. They appear at a distance like a black cloud, which, as it approaches, gathers upon the horizon, and almost hides the light of the day. It often happens that the husbandman sees this imminent calamity pass away without doing him any mischief; and the whole swarm proceed onward, to settle upon the labours of some less

fortunate country. But wretched is the district upon which they settle: they ravage the meadow and the pasture ground—strip the trees of their leaves and the garden of its beauty: the visitation of a few minutes destroys the expectation of a year, and a famine but too frequently ensues. In their native tropical climates they are not so dreadful as in the more southern parts of Europe. There, though the plain and the forest be stripped of their verdure, the power of vegetation is so great that an interval of three or four days repairs the calamity; but our verdure is the livery of a season, and we must wait until the ensuing spring repairs the damage. Besides, in their long flights to this part of the world they are famished by the tediousness of their journey, and are therefore more voracious wherever they happen to settle. But it is not by what they devour that they do so much damage as by what they destroy. Their very bite is thought to contaminate the plant, and to prevent its vegetation. To use the expression of the husbandman, they burn whatever they touch, and leave the marks of their devastation for two or three years ensuing. But if they be noxious while living, they are still more so when dead, for wherever they fall they infect the air in such a manner that the smell is insupportable. Orosius tells us that in the year of the world 3800 there was an incredible number of locusts which infested Africa; and after having eaten up everything that was green, they flew off and were drowned in the African Sea, where they caused such a stench, that the putrefying body of hundreds of thousands of men could not equal it.

In the year 1690 a cloud of locusts was seen to enter Russia in three different places, and from thence to spread themselves over Poland and Lithuania in such astonishing multitudes, that the air was darkened and the earth covered with the numbers. In some places they were seen lying dead, heaped upon each other four feet deep; in others they covered the surface like a black cloth; the trees bent beneath their weight; and the damage which the country sustained exceeded computation. In Barbary their numbers are formidable and their visits frequent. In the year 1724 Dr. Shaw was a witness in that country of their devastations. Their first appearance was about the latter end of March, when the wind had been southerly for some time. In the beginning of April their numbers were so vastly increased, that in the heat of the day they formed themselves into large swarms, which appeared like clouds, and darkened the sun. In the middle of May they began to disappear, retiring into the plains to deposit their eggs. In the next month, being June, the young brood began to make their appearance, forming many compact bodies of several hundred yards square; which afterwards, marching forward, climbed the trees, walls, and houses, eating everything that was green in their way. The inhabitants, to stop their progress, laid trenches all over their fields and gardens, filling them with water. Some placed large quantities of heath, stubble, and such like combustible matter in rows, and set them on fire on the approach of the locusts. But all this was to no purpose; for the trenches were quickly filled up, and the fires put out by the vast swarms that succeeded each other. A day or two after one of these was in motion, others that were just hatched came to glean after them, gnawing off the young branches and the very bark of the trees. Having lived near a month in this manner they arrived at their full growth, and threw off their worm-like state by casting their skins. To prepare themselves for this change, they fixed their hinder feet to some bush or twig, or corner of a stone, when immediately, by an undulating motion used on this occasion, their heads would first appear, and soon after the rest of their bodies. The whole transformation was performed in seven or eight minutes; after which they were a little while in a languishing condition; but

as soon as the sun and air had hardened their wings and dried up the moisture that remained after casting off their sloughs, they returned again to their former greediness with an addition both of strength and agility. But they did not continue long in this state before they were entirely dispersed—after laying their eggs directing their course northward, and probably perishing in the sea. It is said that the holes these animals make to deposit their eggs in are four feet deep in the ground; the eggs are about fourscore in number, of the size of caraway comfits, and bundled up together in clusters.

It would be endless to recount all the mischief which these famished insects have at different times occasioned; but what can have induced them to take such distant flights when they come into Europe is not so easily to be accounted for. It seems most probable that, by means of a very dry season in the heart of Africa, they are propagated in such numbers that the vegetables of the spot where they are produced are not sufficient to sustain them. Thus being obliged to find out other countries, they traverse the sandy deserts, where they can find no sustenance; still meeting with nothing to allure them from their height, they proceed forward across the sea, and thus come into Europe, where they alight upon the first green pastures that occur.

In some parts of the world the inhabitants turn what seems a plague to their own advantage. Locusts are eaten by the natives in many kingdoms of the east, and are caught in small nets provided for that purpose. They parch them over the fire in an earthen pan; and when their wings and legs are fallen off they turn redish, of the colour of boiled shrimps. Dampier has eat them thus prepared, and thinks them a tolerable dish. The natives of Barbary also eat them fried with salt; and they are said to taste like cray-fish.

There is a locust in Tonquin about the bigness of the top of a man's finger and as long as the first joint. It breeds in the earth, in low grounds; and in the months of January and February, which is the season for taking them, they issue from the earth in vast swarms. At first they can hardly fly, so that they often fall into the rivers in great numbers; however, the natives in these months watch the rivers, and take them up in multitudes in small nets. They either eat them fresh, broiled on the fire, or pickle them for keeping. They are considered as a great delicacy in that part of the world, as well by the rich as the poor. In the countries where they are eaten they are regularly brought to market, and sold as larks or quails in Europe. They must have been a common food with the Jews, as Moses, in the book of Leviticus, permits them to eat four different kinds of this animal, which he takes care to specify. This dish, however, has not yet made its way into the kitchens of the luxurious in Europe; and though we may admire the delicacies of the East, we are as yet happily deprived of the powers of imitation.

Of all animals, however, of this noxious tribe the great West Indian locust, individually considered, is the most formidable. It is about the thickness of the barrel of a goose-quill, and the body is divided into nine or ten joints, in the whole about six or seven inches long. It has two small eyes, standing out of the head like those of crabs, and two feelers like long hair. The whole body is studded with small excrescences, which are not much bigger than the points of pins. The shape is roundish, and the body diminishes in circumference to the tail, which is forked into two horns. Between these there is a sort of a sheath containing a small dangerous sting. If any person happens to touch this insect he is sure to be stung, and is immediately taken with a shivering and trembling all over the body; which, however, may soon be put a stop to by rubbing the place affected with a little palm-oil.

From the locust we descend to the cricket, which is a very inoffensive and pretty animal. Though there be a

species of this insect that lives entirely in the woods and fields, yet that with which we are best acquainted is the house-cricket, whose voice is so well known behind a country fire in a winter's evening. There is something so unusual in hearing a sound while we do not see the animal producing it, nor discover the place from whence it comes, that among the country people the chirping of the cricket is always held ominous; and whether it deserts the fire-side or pays an unexpected visit, the credulous peasantry always find something to be afraid of. In general, however, the killing of a cricket is considered as a most unlucky omen; and though their company is not much desired, yet no methods must be taken to remove them.

The cricket very much resembles the grasshopper in its shape, its manner of ruminating, its voice, its leaping, and its methods of propagation. It differs in its colour, which is uniformly of a rusty brown; in its food, which is more various; and in its place of residence, which is most usually in the warmest chinks behind a country hearth. They are in some measure obliged to the bad masonry employed in making peasants' houses for their retreats. The smallest chink serves to give them shelter; and where they once make their abode they are sure to propagate. They are of a most chilly nature, seldom leaving the fire-side; and if undisturbed, are seen to hop from their retreats to chirrup at the blaze in the chimney. The wood-cricket is the most timorous animal in Nature; but the chimney-cricket, being used to noises, disregards not only those but the appearance of people near it. Whether the voice of this animal is formed in the same manner with that of the grasshopper—by a fine membrane at the base of the wings, which is moved by a muscle, and which, being coiled up, gives a sound like a quail-pipe—is not yet ascertained; nor do we well know the use of this voice, since anatomical inspection has not been able to discover the smallest organs of hearing. Still, however, we can make no doubt of their power of distinguishing sounds, though probably not in the same manner with the more perfect ranks of Nature. Certain it is that I have often heard them call, and this call was as regularly answered by another, although none but the males are vocal.

As the cricket lives chiefly in the dark, so its eyes seem formed for the gloominess of its abode; and those who would surprise it have only to light a candle unexpectedly, by which it is dazzled, and cannot find the way back to its retreat. It is a very voracious little animal, and will eat bread, flower, and meat; but it is particularly fond of sugar. They never drink, but keep for months together at the back of the chimney, where they possibly could have had no moisture. The warmth of their situation only serves to increase their mirth and loquacity. Except in the very coldest weather they never cease their chirruping, but continue that little piercing note, which is as pleasing to some as it is disagreeable to others. The great Scaliger was particularly delighted with the chirruping of crickets, and kept several of them for his amusement enclosed in a box, which he placed in a warm situation. Others, on the contrary, think there is something ominous and melancholy in the sound, and use every endeavour to banish this insect from their houses. Ledelius tells us of a woman who was very much incommoded by crickets, and tried, but in vain, every method of banishing them from her house. She at last accidentally succeeded; for having one day invited several guests to her house, where there was a wedding, in order to increase the festivity of the entertainment she procured drums and trumpets to entertain them. The noise of these was so much greater than what the little animals were used to, that they instantly forsook their situation, and were never heard in that mansion more.

But of all the cricket kind, that which is called the

"mole-cricket" is the most extraordinary. This animal is the largest of all the insects with which we are acquainted in this country, being two inches and a half in length, and three-quarters of an inch in breadth. The colour is of a dusky brown, and at the extremity of the colour of the tail of a mouse. The body consists of eight scaly joints or separate folds, is brown on the upper part, the more deeply tinged below. The wings are long, narrow, and terminate in a sharp point, each having a blackish line running down it; however, when they are extended they appear to be much broader than could at first sight be supposed. The shield of the breast is of a firm texture, of a blackish colour and hairy; it generally, however, runs backward; but it is commonly under-ground, where it burrows even faster than a mole. It is thought also to be amphibious, and capable of living under water as well as under ground.

Of all insects this is the most detested by gardeners, as it chiefly resides in that ground which lies light, and where it finds sufficient plenty under the surface. Thus, in a single night's time it will run along a furrow which has been newly sown and rob it of all its contents. Its legs are formed in such a manner that it can penetrate the earth in every direction—before, behind, and above it. At night it ventures from its underground habitation, and, like the cricket, has its chirping call. When the female is fecundated she makes a cell of clammy earth, the inside of which is large enough to hold two hazle-nuts; and in this she lays her eggs. The whole nest is about the size of a common hen's-egg, closed up on every side, and well defended from the smallest breath of air. The eggs generally amount to the number of a hundred and fifty, being white, and about the size of a carraway-comfit. They are thus carefully covered, as well to defend them from the injuries of the weather as from the attacks of the black-beetle, which, being itself an underground inhabitant, would but for this precaution devour or destroy them. To prevent this the female mole-cricket is often posted as a sentinel near the nest, and when the black invader plunges in to seize its prey, the guardian insect seizes him behind, and instantly bites him in two.

Nothing can exceed the care and assiduity which these animals exhibit in the preservation of their young. Wherever the nest is placed there seems to be a fortification, avenues, and entrenchments drawn round it; there are numberless winding ways that lead to it, and a ditch drawn about it, which few of its insect enemies are able to pass. But their care is not confined to this only; for at the approach of winter they carry their nest entirely away, and sink it deeper in the ground, so that the frost can have no influence in retarding the young brood from coming to maturity. As the weather grows milder they raise their magazine in proportion; till at last they bring it as near the surface as they can to receive the genial influence of the sun, without wholly exposing it to view; yet should the frost unexpectedly return they sink it again as before.

CHAP. V.

OF THE EARWIG, THE FROTH INSECT, AND OTHERS
BELONGING TO THE SECOND ORDER OF INSECTS.

We should still keep in memory that all insects of the second order, though not produced quite perfect from the egg, yet want very little of their perfection, and require but a very small change to arrive at that state which fits them for flight and generation. The natural functions in these are never suspended; from the instant they leave the egg they continue to eat, to move, to leap, and pursue their prey; a slight change ensues; a skin that enclosed a part of their body and

limbs bursts behind, like a woman's stays, and gives freedom to a set of wings, with which the animal expands, and flies in pursuit of its mate.

Of all this class of insects the earwig undergoes the smallest change. This animal is so common that it scarce needs a description: its swiftness in the reptile state is not less remarkable than its indefatigable velocity when upon the wing. That it must be very prolific appears from its numbers; and that it is very harmless every one's experience can readily testify. It is provided with six feet and two feelers; the tail is forked, and with this it often attempts to defend itself against every assailant. But its attempts are only the threats of impotence; they draw down the resentment of powerful animals, and no way serve to defend it. The deformity of its figure and slender make have also subjected it to an imputation, which, though entirely founded in prejudice, has more than once procured its destruction. It is supposed, as the name imports, that it often enters into the ears of people sleeping—thus causing madness from the intolerable pain, and soon after death itself. Indeed, the French name, which signifies the ear-piercer, urges the calumny against this harmless insect in very plain terms; yet nothing can be more unjust: the ear is already filled with a substance which prevents any insect from entering; and besides, it is well lined with membranes, which would keep out any little animal, even though the ear-wax were away. These reproaches, therefore, are entirely groundless; but it were well if the accusations which gardeners bring against the earwig were as slightly founded. There is nothing more certain than that it lives among flowers, and destroys them. When fruit also has been wounded by flies, the earwig generally comes in for a second feast, and sucks those juices which they first began to broach. Still, however, this insect is not so noxious as it would seem, and seldom is found but where the mischief has been originally begun by others. Like all of this class, the earwig is hatched from an egg. As there are various kinds of animals, so they choose different places to breed in: in general, however, they lay their eggs under the bark of plants, or in the clefts of trees when beginning to decay. They proceed from the egg in that reptile state in which they are most commonly seen, and as they grow larger the wings bound under the skin begin to appear. It is amazing how very little room four large wings take up before they are protruded; for no person could ever conceive such an expansion of natural drapery could be rolled up in so small a packet. The sheath in which they are enveloped folds and covers them so neatly, that the animal seems quite destitute of wings; and even when they are burst from their confinement the animal, by the power of the muscles and joints which it has in the middle of its wings, can closely fold them into a very narrow compass. When the earwig has become a winged insect it flies in pursuit of the female, ceasing to feed, and is wholly employed in the business of propagation. It lives in its winged state but a few days; and having taken care for the continuance of posterity, dries up, and dies to all appearance consumptive.

To this order of insects we may also refer the cuckoo-spit, or froth-worm, that is often found hid in that frothy matter we find on the surface of plants. It has an oblong, obtuse body, and a large head with small eyes. The external wings, for it has four, are of a dusky brown, marked with two white spots; the head is black. The spume in which it is found wallowing is all of its own formation, and very much resembles frothy spittle. It proceeds from the vent of the animal and other parts of the body; and if it be wiped away a new quantity will be instantly seen ejected from the animal's body. Within this spume it is seen in time to acquire four tubercles on its back, wherein the wings are enclosed; these bursting, from a reptile it becomes a

winged animal; and thus rendered perfect, it flies to meet its mate and propagate its kind.

The water-tipula also belongs to this class. It has an oblong slender body, with four feet fixed upon the breast and four feelers near the mouth. It has four weak wings, which do not at all seem proper for flying, but for leaping only. But what this insect chiefly demands our attention for is the wonderful lightness wherewith it runs on the surface of the water, so as scarce to put it in motion. It is sometimes seen in rivers and on their banks, especially under shady trees, and generally in swarms of several together.

The common water fly also breeds in the same manner with those above-mentioned. This animal is by some called "notonecta," because it does not swim in the usual manner upon its belly, but on its back; nor can we help admiring that fitness in the insect for its situation, as it feeds on the under-side of plants which grow on the surface of the water; and therefore it is thus formed with its mouth upwards to take its food with greater convenience and ease.

We may also add the water-scorpion, which is a large insect, being near an inch in length and about half an inch in breadth. Its body is nearly oval, but very flat and thin, and its tail long and pointed. The head is small; and the feelers appear like legs, resembling the claws of a scorpion, but without sharp points. This insect is generally found in ponds, and is of all others the most tyrannical and rapacious. It destroys, like a wolf among sheep, twenty times as many as its hunger requires. One of these, when put into a basin of water in which were thirty or forty worms of the libellula kind, each as large as itself, destroyed them all in a few minutes—getting on their backs, and piercing with its trunk through their body. These animals, however, though so formidable to others, are nevertheless themselves greatly over-run with a small kind of louse, about the size of a nit, which very probably repays the injury which the water-scorpion inflicts upon others.

The water-scorpions live in the water by day, out of which they rise in the dusk of the evening into the air, and so flying from place to place, often betake themselves in quest of food to other waters. The insect, before its wings are grown, remains in the place where it was produced; but when come to its state of perfection sallies forth in search of a companion of the other sex, in order to continue its noxious posterity.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE EPHEMERA.

The last insect we shall add to this second order is the ephemera, which, though not strictly belonging to it, yet seems more properly referred to this rank than any other. Indeed, we must not attend to the rigour of method in a history where Nature seems to take delight to sport in variety.

That there should be a tribe of flies whose duration extends but to a day seems at first surprising; but the wonder will increase when we are told that some of this kind seem to be born to die in the space of a single hour. The reptile, however, from which they are bred is by no means so short lived, but is sometimes seen to live two years, and often three years together.

All ephemeras, of which there are various kinds, are produced from the eggs in the form of worms, from whence they change into a more perfect form, namely, that of aurelias, which is a kind of middle state between a worm and a fly; and from thence they take their last mutation, which is into a beautiful fly, of longer or shorter duration according to its kind.

The ephemera, in its fly state, is a very beautiful

winged insect, and has a strong similitude to the butterfly, both from its shape and its wings. It is about the size of a middling butterfly; but its wings differ, in not being covered with the painted dust with which those of butterflies are adorned and rendered opaque, for they are very transparent and very thin. These insects have four wings, the uppermost of which are much the largest; when the insect is at rest it generally lays its wings one over the other on the back. The body is long, being formed of six rings, that are larger at the origin than near the extremity; and from this a tail proceeds, that is longer than all the rest of the fly, and consists sometimes of three threads of an equal length, or sometimes of two long and one short. To acquire this beautiful form the insect has been obliged to undergo several transmutations; but its glory is very short lived, for the hour of its perfection is the hour of its death; and it seems scarcely introduced to pleasure when it is obliged to part with life.

The reptile that is to become a fly, and that is granted so long a term when compared to its latter duration, is an inhabitant of the water, and bears a very strong resemblance to fishes in many particulars—having gills by which it breathes at the bottom, and also the tapering form of aquatic animals. These insects have six scaly legs fixed on their corselet. Their head is triangular; the eyes are placed forward, and may be distinguished by their largeness and colour. The mouth is furnished with teeth; and the body consists of six rings, that next the corselet being largest, but growing less and less to the end; the last ring is the shortest, from which the three threads proceed, which are as long as the whole body. Thus we see that the reptile bears a very strong resemblance to the fly, and only requires wings to be very near its perfection.

As there are several kinds of this animal their aurelias are consequently of different colours—some yellow, some brown, and some cream-coloured. Some of these also bore themselves cells at the bottom of the water, from which they never stir out, but feed upon the mud composing the walls of their habitation in contented captivity; others, on the contrary, range about, go from the bottom to the surface, swim between two waters, quit that element entirely to feed upon plants by the river-side, and then return to their favourite element for safety and protection.

The reptile, however, though it lives two or three years, offers but little in its long duration to excite curiosity: it is hid at the bottom of the water, and feeds almost wholly within its narrow habitation. The peculiar sign whereby to know that these reptiles will change into flies in a short time consists in a protuberance of the wings on the back. About that time the smooth and depressed form of the upper part of the body is changed into a more swollen and rounder shape, so that the wings are in some degree visible through the external sheath that covers them. As they are not natives of England, he who would see them in their greatest abundance must walk about sun-set along the banks of the Rhine or the Seine, where for about three days in the midst of summer he will be astonished at their numbers and assiduity. The thickest descent of the flakes of snow in winter seem not to equal their number; the whole air seems alive with the new-born race, and the earth itself is all covered with their remains. The aurelias or reptile insects, that are as yet beneath the surface of the water, wait only for the approach of evening to begin their transformation. The most industrious shake off their old garments about eight o'clock, and those who are the most tardy are transformed before nine.

We have already seen that the operation of change in other insects is laborious and painful; but with these nothing seems shorter, or performed with greater ease. The aurelias are scarce lifted above the surface of the

water than their old sheathing skin bursts; and through the cavity which is thus formed a fly issues, whose wings at the same instant are unfolded, and at the same time lift into the air. Millions and millions of aurelias rise in this manner to the surface, at once becoming flies, and filling every quarter with their flutterings. But all these sports are shortly to have an end; for as the little strangers live but an hour or two the whole swarm soon falls to the ground, and covers the earth like a deep snow for several hundred yards on every side of the river. Their numbers are then incredible, and every object they touch becomes fatal to them; for they instantly die if they hit against even each other.

At this time the males and females are very differently employed. The males, quite inactive and apparently without desires, seem only born to die: no way like the males of other insects, they neither follow the opposite sex nor bear any enmity to each other; after fluttering for an hour or two, they drop upon land without seeming to receive wings for scarce any other purpose but to satisfy an idle curiosity. It is otherwise with the females; they are scarce risen from the surface of the water and dried their wings but they hasten to drop their eggs back again. If they happen also to flutter upon land, they deposit their burthen in the place where they drop. But then it may be demanded, Where and in what manner are these eggs fecundated, as no copulation whatever appears between the sexes in their transitory visits in air? Swammerdam is of opinion that they are impregnated, in the manner of fish-spawn, by the male after being ejected by the female; but, beside that this doctrine is exploded even from the history of fishes, it is certain that the males have not time for this operation, as the eggs drop to the bottom the instant they are laid on the water. Reaumur is of opinion that they copulate, but that the act bears a proportion in shortness to the small duration of their lives, and, consequently, must be soon performed as to be scarcely visible. This, however, is at best forcing a theory; and it is probable that as there are many insects known to breed without any impregnation from the male—as we have already seen in muscles and oysters, and shall hereafter see in the gnat and a species of the beetle—so the ephemera may be of this number. Be this as it may, the females are in such haste to deposit their eggs that multitudes of them fall to the ground, but the greatest part are laid in the water. As they flutter upon the surface, two clusters are seen issuing from the extremity of their body, each containing about three hundred and fifty eggs, which make seven hundred in all. Thus, of all insects this appears to be the most prolific; and it would seem that there was a necessity for such a supply, as, in its reptile state, it is the favourite food of every kind of fresh-water fish. It is in vain that these little animals form galleries at the bottom of the river, from whence they seldom remove; many kinds of fish break in upon their retreats, and thin their numbers. For this reason fishermen are careful to provide themselves with these insects as the most grateful bait, and thus turn the fish's rapacity to its own destruction.

But though the usual date of these flies is two or three hours at farthest, there are some kinds that live several days; and one kind in particular, after quitting the water, has another case or skin to get rid of. These are often seen in the fields and woods distant from the water; but they are more frequently found in its vicinity. They are often found sticking upon walls and trees, and frequently with the head downwards, without changing place or having any sensible motion. They are then waiting for the moment when they shall be divested of their last incommodious garment, which sometimes does not happen for two or three days together.

BOOK III.—CHAP. I.

OF INSECTS OF THE THIRD ORDER.

OF CATERPILLARS.

If we take a cursory view of insects in general, caterpillars alone, and the butterflies and moths they give birth to, will make a third part of the number. Wherever we move, wherever we turn, these insects, in one shape or another, present themselves to our view. Some in every state offer the most entertaining spectacle; others are beautiful only in their winged form. Many persons, of which number I am one, have an invincible aversion to caterpillars and worms of every species; there is something disagreeable in their slow, crawling motion, for which the variety of their colouring can never compensate. But others feel no repugnance at observing, and even handling them with the most attentive application.

There is nothing in the butterfly state so beautiful or splendid as these insects. They serve, not less than the birds themselves, to banish solitudes from our walks, and to fill up our idle intervals with the most pleasing speculations. The butterfly makes one of the principal ornaments of oriental poetry; but in those countries the insect is larger and more beautiful than with us.

The beauties of the fly may therefore very well excite our curiosity to examine the reptile. But we are still more strongly attached to this tribe from the usefulness of one of the number. The silk-worm is, perhaps, the most serviceable of all other animals—since from its labours and the manufacture attending it near a third part of the world are clothed, adorned, and supported.

Caterpillars may be easily distinguished from worms or maggots by the number of their feet, and by their producing butterflies or moths. When the sun calls up vegetation, and vivifies the various eggs of insects, the caterpillars are the first that are seen upon almost every vegetable and tree, eating its leaves, and preparing for a state of greater perfection. They have feet both before and behind, which not only enable them to move forward by a sort of steps made by their fore and hinder parts, but also to climb up vegetables and to stretch themselves out from the boughs and stalks to reach their food at a distance. All of this class have from eight feet, at the least, to sixteen; and this may serve to distinguish them from the worm tribe, that never have so many. The animal into which they are converted is always a butterfly or a moth; and these are always distinguished from other flies by having their wings covered over with a painted dust, which gives them such various beauty. The wings of flies are transparent, as we see in the common flesh-fly, while those of beetles are hard, like horn; from such the wing of a butterfly may be easily distinguished, and words would obscure their differences.

From hence it appears that caterpillars, whether in the reptile state or advanced to their last state of perfection into butterflies, may easily be distinguished from all other insects, being animals peculiarly formed, and also of a peculiar nature. The transmutations they undergo are also more numerous than those of any insect hitherto mentioned, and in consequence they have been placed in the third order of changes by Swammerdam, who has thrown such lights on this part of natural history. In the second order of changes, mentioned before, we saw the grasshopper and the earwig when excluded from the egg assume a form very like that which they were after to preserve, and seemed arrived at a state of perfection in all respects, except in not having wings, which did not bud forth until they came to maturity. But the insects of this third order, which we are now about to describe, go through a much greater variety of transformations; for when they are excluded from the egg they assume the form of a small caterpillar,

which feeds and grows larger every day, often changing its skin, but still preserving its form. When the animal has come to a certain magnitude in this state it discontinues eating, makes itself a covering or husk, in which it remains wrapped up seemingly without life or motion; and after having for some time continued in this state, it once more bursts its confinement, and comes forth a butterfly. Thus we see this animal put on no less than three different appearances from the time it is first excluded from the egg. It appears a crawling caterpillar; then an insensible aurelia, as it is called, without life or motion; and lastly, a beautiful butterfly, variously painted according to its different kind. Having thus distinguished this class of insects from all others, we will first survey their history in general, and then enter particularly into the manners and nature of a few of them.

CHAP. II.

OF THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE CATERPILLAR INTO ITS CORRESPONDING BUTTERFLY OR MOTH FORM.

When winter has disrobed the trees of their leaves, Nature then seems to have lost her insects. There are thousands of different kinds with and without wings, though swarming at other seasons, then entirely disappear. Our fields are re-peopled when the leaves begin to bud by the genial influence of spring, and caterpillars of various sorts are seen feeding upon the promise of the year, even before the leaves are unfolded. Those caterpillars which we then see may serve to give us a view of the general means which Nature employs to preserve such a number of insects during that season, when they can no longer find subsistence. It is known by united experience that all these animals are hatched from the eggs of butterflies; and those who observe them more closely will find the fly very careful in depositing its eggs in those places where they are likely to be hatched with the greatest safety and success. During winter, therefore, the greatest number of caterpillars are in an egg state, and in this lifeless situation brave all the rigours and the humidity of the climate, and though often exposed to all its changes, still preserve the latent principles of life, which is more fully exerted at the approach of spring. That same Power which pushes forth the budding leaf and the opening flower impels the insect into animation, and Nature at once seems to furnish a guest and the banquet. When the insect has found force to break its shell it always finds its favourite aliment provided in abundance before it.

But all caterpillars are not sent off from the egg in the beginning of spring; for many of them have subsisted during the winter in their aurelia state, in which, as we have briefly observed above, the animal is seemingly deprived of life and motion. In this state of insensibility many of these insects continue during the rigours of winter—some enclosed in a kind of shell, which they have spun themselves at the end of autumn—some concealed under the bark of trees—others in the chinks of old walls—and many buried under ground. From all these a variety of butterflies are seen to issue in the beginning of spring, and adorn the earliest part of the year with their painted flutterings.

Some caterpillars do not make any change whatsoever at the approach of winter, but continue to live in their reptile state through all the severity of the season. These choose themselves some retreat, where they may remain undisturbed for some months together; and there they remain quite motionless, and as insensible as if they were actually dead. Their constitution is such, that food at that time would be useless; and the cold prevents their making those dissipations which require restoration.

In general, caterpillars of this kind are found in great numbers together, enclosed in one common web that covers them all, and serves to protect them from the injuries of the air.

Lastly, there are some of the caterpillar kind whose butterflies live all the winter, and who, having fluttered about for some part of the latter end of autumn, seek for some retreat during the winter, in order to answer the ends of propagation at the approach of spring. These are often found lifeless and motionless in the hollows of trees or the clefts of timber; but on being brought to the fire they recover life and activity, and seem to anticipate the desires of the spring.

In general, however—whether the animal has subsisted in an egg state during the winter, or whether as a butterfly bred from an aurelia in the beginning of spring; or a butterfly that has subsisted during the winter, and lays eggs as soon as the leaves of plants are shot forward—the whole swarm of caterpillars are in motion to share the banquet that Nature has provided. There is scarce a plant that has not its own peculiar insects; and some are known to support several of different kinds. Of these many are hatched from the egg, at the foot of the tree, and climb up to its leaves for subsistence; the eggs of others have been glued by the parent butterfly to the leaves; and they are no sooner excluded from the shell but they find themselves in the midst of plenty.

When the caterpillar first bursts from the egg it is small and feeble; its appetites are in proportion to its size, and it seems to make no great consumption; but as it increases in magnitude it improves in its appetites—so that in its adult caterpillar state it is the most ravenous of all animals whatsoever. A single caterpillar will eat double its own weight of leaves in a day, and yet seems no way disordered by the meal. What would mankind do if their oxen or their horses were so voracious?

These voracious habits, with its slow crawling motion, but still more a stinging like that of nettles which follows upon handling the greatest number of them, make these insects not the most agreeable objects of human curiosity. However, there are many philosophers who have spent years in their contemplation, and who have not only attended to their habits and labours, but minutely examined their structure and internal conformation.

The body of the caterpillar when anatomically considered is found composed of rings, whose circumference is pretty near circular or oval. They are generally twelve in number, and are all membranous—by which caterpillars may be distinguished from many other insects that nearly resemble them in form. The head of the caterpillar is connected to the first ring by the neck, which is generally so short and contracted that it is scarce visible. All the covering of the head in caterpillars seems to consist of a shell; and they have neither upper nor under jaw, for they are both placed rather vertically, and each jaw armed with a large thick tooth, which is singly equal to a great number. With these the animals devour their food in amazing quantities, and with these some of the kind defend themselves against their enemies. Though the mouth be kept shut the teeth are always kept uncovered; and while the insect is in health they are seldom without employment. Whatever the caterpillar devours these teeth serve to chop it into small pieces, and render the parts of the leaf fit for swallowing. Many kinds while they are yet young eat only the succulent part of the leaf, and leave all the fibres untouched; others, however, attack the whole leaf, and eat it clean away. One may be amused for a time in observing the avidity with which they are seen to feed; some are seen eating the whole day, others have their hours of repast; some choose the night, and others the day. When the caterpillar attacks a leaf it places its body in such a manner that the edge of the leaf shall fall between its feet, which keeps it steady while the teeth are employed in cutting it; these fall upon the leaf somewhat in the

manner of a pair of gardener's shears, and every morsel is swallowed as soon as cut. Some caterpillars feed upon leaves so very narrow, that they are not broader than their mouths: in this case the animal is seen to devour it from the point as we would eat a raddish.

As there are various kinds of caterpillars, the number of their feet are various; some having eight, and some sixteen. Of these feet the six foremost are covered with a sort of shining gristle, and are therefore called the shelly-legs. The hindmost feet, whatever be their number, are soft and flexible, and are called membranous. Caterpillars also, with regard to their external figure, are smooth or hairy. The skin of the first kind is soft to the touch, or hard like ashgreen; the skin of the latter is hairy, and, as it were, thorny; and generally, if handled, stings like nettles. Some of them even cause this stinging pain if but approached too nearly.

Caterpillars in general have six small black spots placed on the circumference of the fore ring, and a little to the side of the head. Three of these are larger than the rest, and are convex and transparent; these Reaumur takes to be the eyes of the caterpillar; however, most of these reptiles have very little occasion for sight, and seem only to be directed by their feeling.

But the parts of the caterpillar's body which most justly demand our attention are the stigmata, as they are called, or those holes on the sides of its body through which the animal is supposed to breathe. All along this insect's body on each side these holes are easily discoverable. They are eighteen in number, nine on a side, rather nearer the belly than the back; there is a hole for every ring of which the animal's body is composed, except the second, the third, and the last. These oval openings may be considered as so many mouths, through which the insect breathes; but with this difference, that as we have but one pair of lungs, the caterpillar has no less than eighteen. It requires no great anatomical dexterity to discover these lungs in the larger kind of caterpillars; they appear at first view to be hollow cartilaginous tubes, and of the colour of mother-of-pearl. These tubes are often seen to unite with each other; some are perceived to open into the intestines, and some go to different parts of the surface of the body. That these vessels serve to convey the air appears evidently from the famous experiment of Malpighi; who, by stopping up the mouths of the stigmata with oil, quickly suffocated the animal, which was seen to die convulsed the instant after. In order to ascertain his theory he rubbed oil upon other parts of the insect's body, leaving the stigmata free; and this seemed to have no effect on the animal's health, but it continued to move and eat as usual; he rubbed oil on the stigmata of one side, and the animal underwent a partial convulsion, but recovered soon after. However, it ought to be observed that air is not so necessary to these as to the nobler ranks of animals, since caterpillars will live in an exhausted receiver for several days together; and though they seem dead at the bottom, yet, when taken out, recover, and resume their former vivacity.

If the caterpillar be cut open longitudinally along the back, its intestines will be perceived running directly in a straight line from the mouth to the anus. They resemble a number of small bags opening into each other; and strengthened on both sides by a fleshy cord by which they are united. These insects are upon many occasions seen to cast forth the internal coat of their intestines with their food, in the changes which they so frequently undergo. But the intestines take up but a small part of the animal's body, if compared to the fatty substance in which they are involved. This substance changes its colour when the insect's metamorphosis begins to approach; and from white it is usually seen to become yellow. If to these parts we add the caterpillar's implements for spinning (for all caterpillar's spin at one time or another), we shall have a rude sketch of this

animal's conformation; however, we shall reserve the description of those parts till we come to the history of the silk-worm, where the manner in which these insects spin their webs will most properly find a place.

The life of a caterpillar seems one continued succession of changes; and it is seen to throw off one skin only to assume another, which also is divested in its turn, and this for eight or ten times successively. We must not, however, confound this changing of the skin with the great metamorphosis which it is afterwards to undergo. The throwing off one skin and assuming another seems in comparison but a slight operation among these animals; this is but the work of a day—the other is the great adventure of their lives. Indeed, this faculty of changing the skin is not peculiar to caterpillars only, but is common to all the insect kind; and even to some animals that claim a higher rank in Nature. We have already seen the lobster and the crab out-growing their first shells, and then bursting from their confinement in order to assume a covering more roomy and convenient. It is probable that the louse, the flea, and the spider change their covering from the same necessity, and, growing too large for the crust in which they have been for some time enclosed, burst it for another. This period is probably that of their growth; for as soon as their new skin is hardened round them the animal's growth is necessarily circumscribed while it remains within it. With respect to caterpillars, many of them change their skins five or six times in a season; and this covering when cast off often seems so complete, that many might mistake the empty skin for the real insect. Among the hairy caterpillars, for instance, the cast skin is covered with air; the feet, as well gristly as membranous, remain fixed to it; even the parts which nothing but a microscope can discover are visible in it—in short, all the parts of the head, not only the skull but the teeth.

In proportion as the time approaches in which the caterpillar is to cast its old skin its colours become more feeble, the skin seems to wither and grow dry, and in some measure resembles a leaf when it is no longer supplied with moisture from the stock. At that time the insect begins to find itself under a necessity of changing; and it is not effected without violent labour, and perhaps pain. A day or two before the critical hour approaches the insect ceases to eat, loses its usual activity, and seems to rest immovable. It seeks some place to remain in security, and, no longer timorous, seems regardless even of the touch. It is now and then seen to bend itself and elevate its back; again it stretches to its utmost extent; it sometimes lifts up the head, and then lets it fall again; it sometimes waves it three or four times from side to side, and then remains in quiet. At length some of the rings of its body, particularly the first and second, are seen to swell considerably, the old skin distends and bursts, till, by repeated swellings and contractions in every ring, the animal disengages itself, and creeps from its inconvenient covering.

How laborious soever this operation may be, it is performed in the space of a minute; and the animal, having thrown off its old skin, seems to enjoy new vigour, as well as acquired colouring and beauty. Sometimes it happens that it takes a new appearance and colours very different from the old. Those that are hairy still preserve their covering, although their ancient skin seems not to have lost a single hair; every hair appears to have been drawn, like a sword from the scabbard. However, the fact is that a new crop of hair grows between the old skin and the new, and probably helps to throw off the external covering.

The caterpillar having in this manner continued for several days feeding, and at intervals casting its skin, begins at last to prepare for its change into an aurelia. It is most probable that from the beginning all the parts of the butterfly lay hid in this insect in its reptile state;

but it required time to bring them to perfection, and a large quantity of food to enable the animal to undergo all the changes requisite for throwing off these skins, which seem to clog the butterfly form. However, when the caterpillar has fed sufficiently, and the parts of the future butterfly have formed themselves beneath its skin, it is then time for it to make its first, great, and principal change into an aurelia, or a crysalis, as some have chosen to call it; during which, as was observed, it seems to remain for several days, or even months, without life or motion.

Preparatory to this important change, the caterpillar most usually quits the plant or the tree on which it fed, or at least attaches itself to the stalk of the stem more gladly than the leaves. It forsakes its food, and prepares by fasting to undergo its transmutation. In this period all the food it has taken is thoroughly digested; and it often voids even the internal membrane which lined its intestines. Some of this tribe at this period are also seen entirely to change colour, and the vivacity of the tints in all seems faded. Those of them which are capable of spinning themselves a web set about this operation; those which have already spun await the change in the best manner they are able. The web or cone with which some cover themselves hides the aurelia contained within from the view; but in others, where it is more transparent, the caterpillar, when it has done spinning, strikes into the claws of the two feet under the tail, and afterwards forces in the tail itself, contracting those claws, and violently striking the feet one against the other. If, however, they be taken from their web at this time, they appear in a state of great languor, and, incapable of walking, remain on that spot where they are placed. In this condition they remain one or two days, preparing to change into an aurelia, somewhat in the manner they made preparations for changing their skin. They then appear with their bodies bent into a bow, which they now and then are seen to straighten; they make no use of their legs, but if they attempt to change place do it by the contortions of their body. In proportion as their change into an aurelia approaches their body becomes more and more bent, while their extensions and convulsive contractions become more frequent. The hinder end of the body is the part which the animal disengages from its caterpillar skin; that part of the skin remains empty, while the body is drawn up contractedly towards the head. In the same manner they disengage themselves from the two succeeding rings, so that the animal is then lodged entirely in the fore part of its caterpillar covering; that half which is abandoned remains placid and empty, while the fore-part, on the contrary, is swollen and distended. The animal, having thus quitted the hinder part of its skin to drive itself up into the fore part, still continues to heave and work as before; so that the skull is soon seen to burst into three pieces, and a longitudinal opening is made in the three first rings of the body, through which the insect thrusts forth its naked body with strong efforts. Thus at last it entirely gets free from its caterpillar skin, and for ever forsakes its most odious reptile form.

The caterpillar, thus stripped of its skin for the last time, is now become an aurelia, in which the parts of the future butterfly are all visible, but in so soft a state that the smallest touch can discompose them. The animal is now become helpless and motionless, but only waits for the assistance of the air to dry up the moisture on its surface, and supply it with a crust capable of resisting external injuries. Immediately after being stripped of its caterpillar skin it is of a green colour, especially in those parts which are distended by an extraordinary afflux of animal moisture; but in ten or twelve hours after being thus exposed its parts harden, the air forms its external covering into a firm crust, and in about four and twenty hours the aurelia may be handled without endangering the little animal that is thus left in so

defenceless a situation. Such is the history of the little pod or cone that is found so common by every pathway, sticking to nettles, and sometimes shining like polished gold. From the beautiful and resplendent colour with which it is thus sometimes adorned some authors have called it a crysalis—implying a creature made of gold.

Such are the efforts by which these little animals prepare for a state of perfection; but their care is still greater to provide themselves a secure retreat during this season of their imbecility. It would seem like erecting themselves a monument, where they were to rest secure until Nature had called them in a new and more improved existence. For this purpose some spin themselves a cone or web, in which they lie secure till they have arrived at maturity: others, that cannot spin so copious a covering, suspend themselves by the tail, in some retreat where they are not likely to meet disturbances. Some mix sand with their gummy and moist webs, and thus make themselves a secure incrustation; while others, before their change, bury themselves in the ground, and thus avoid the numerous dangers that might attend them. One would imagine they were conscious of the precise time of their continuance in their aurelia state; since their little sepulchres, with respect to the solidity of the building, are proportioned to such duration. Those that are to lie in that state of existence but a few days make choice of some tender leaf, which they render still more pliant by diffusing a kind of glue upon it; the leaf thus gradually curls up, and, withering as it enfolds, the insect wraps itself within, as in a mantle, till the genial warmth of the sun enables it to struggle for new life and burst from its confinement. Others, whose time of transformation is also near at hand, fasten their tails to a tree, or to the first worm-hole they meet in a beam, and wait in that defenceless situation. Such caterpillars, on the other hand, as are seen to lie several months in their aurelia state act with much greater circumspection. Most of them mix their web with sand, and thus make themselves a strong covering; others build in wood, which serves them in the nature of a coffin. Such as have made the leaves of willows their favourite food break the tender twigs of them first into small pieces, then pound them as it were to powder, and, by means of their glutinous silk, make a kind of paste, in which they wrap themselves up. Many are the forms which these animals assume in their helpless state; and it often happens that the most deformed butterflies issue from the most beautiful aurelias.

In general, however, the aurelia takes the rude outline of the parts of the animal which is contained within it; but as to the various colours which it is seen to assume, they are rather the effect of accident; for the same species of insect does not at all times assume the same hue when it becomes an aurelia. In some the beautiful gold-colour is at one time found, in others it is wanting. This brilliant hue, which does not fall short of the best gilding, is formed in the same manner in which we see leather obtain a gold colour, though none of that metal ever enters into the tincture. It is only formed by a beautiful brown varnish laid upon a white ground; and the white thus gleaming through the transparency of the brown, gives a charming golden yellow. These two colours are found, one over the other, in the aurelia of the little animal we are describing, and the whole appears gilded without any real gilding.

The aurelia thus formed, and left to time to expand into a butterfly, in some manner resembles an animal in an egg, which has to wait for external warmth to hatch it into life and vigour. As the quantity of moisture that is enclosed within the covering of the aurelia continues to keep its body in the most tender state, so it is requisite that this humidity should be dried away before the little butterfly can burst its prison. Many have been the experiments to prove that Nature may in

this respect be assisted by art, and that the life of the insect may be retarded or quickened without doing it the smallest injury. For this purpose it is only requisite to continue the insect in its aurelia state by preventing the evaporation of its humidity, which will consequently add some days, nay weeks, to its life; on the other hand, by evaporating its moisture in a warm situation the animal assumes its winged state before its usual time, and goes through the offices assigned its existence. To prove this, Mr. Reaumur enclosed the aurelia in a glass tube, and found the evaporated water which exhaled from the body of the insect collected in drops at the bottom of the tube; he covered the aurelia with varnish; and this making the evaporation more difficult and slow, the butterfly was two months longer than its natural term in coming out of its case; he found, on the other hand, that by laying the animal in a warm room he hastened the disclosure of the butterfly, and by keeping it in an ice-house in the same manner he delayed it. Warmth acted in this case in a double capacity—invisorating the animal and evaporating the moisture.

The aurelia, though it bears a different external appearance, nevertheless contains within it all the parts of the butterfly in perfect formation, and lying each in a very orderly manner, though in the smallest compass. These, however, are so fast and tender, that it is impossible to visit without discomposing them. When either by warmth or increasing vigour the parts have acquired the necessary force and solidity, the butterfly then seeks to disembarass itself of those bands which kept it so long in confinement. Some insects continue under the form of an aurelia not above ten days, some twenty, some several months, and even for a year together.

The butterfly, however, does not continue so long under the form of an aurelia as one would be apt to imagine. In general, those caterpillars that provide themselves with cones continue within them but a few days after the cone is completely finished. Some, however, remain buried in this artificial covering for eight or nine months, without taking the smallest sustenance during the whole time; and though in the caterpillar state no animals were so voracious, when thus transformed they appear a miracle of abstinence. In all, sooner or later, the butterfly bursts from its prison—not only that natural prison which is formed by the skin of the aurelia, but also from that artificial one of silk, or any other substance in which it enclosed itself.

The efforts which the butterfly makes to get free from its aurelia state are by no means so violent as those which the insect had in changing from the caterpillar into the aurelia. The quantity of moisture surrounding the butterfly is not near so great as that attending its former change; and the shell of the aurelia is so dry that it may be cracked between the fingers.

If the animal be shut up within a cone, the butterfly always gets rid of the natural internal skin of the aurelia before it eats its way through the external covering which its own industry has formed round it. In order to observe the manner in which it thus gets rid of the aurelia covering we must cut open the cone, and then we shall have an opportunity of discovering the insect's efforts to emancipate itself from its natural shell. When this operation begins there seems to be a violent agitation in the humours contained within the little animal's body. Its fluid seems driven by hasty fermentation through all the vessels, while it labours strenuously with its legs, and makes several other violent struggles to get free. As all these motions concur with the growth of the insect's wings and body, it is impossible that the brittle skin which covers it should longer resist; it at length gives way by bursting into four distinct and regular pieces. The skin of the head and legs first separates; then the skin at the back flies open, and, dividing into two regular portions, disengages the back and wings;

then there likewise happens another rupture in that portion which covered the rings of the back of the aurelia. After this the butterfly, as if fatigued with its struggles, remains very quiet for some time, with its wings pointed downwards and its legs fixed in the skin which it had just thrown off. At first sight the animal, just set free and permitted the future use of its wings, seems to want them entirely; they take up such little room, that one would wonder where they were hidden. But soon after they expand so rapidly, that the eye can scarce attend their unfolding. From reaching scarce half the length of the body, they acquire in a most wonderful manner their full extent and bigness, so as to be each five times larger than they were before. Nor is it the wings alone that are thus increased; all their spots and paintings, before so minute as to be scarce discernible, are proportionably extended—so that, what a few minutes before seemed only a number of confused, unmeaning points, now become distinct and most beautiful ornaments. Nor are the wings when thus expanded unfolded in the manner in which earwigs and grasshoppers display theirs, who unfurl them like a lady's fan; on the contrary, those of butterflies actually grow to their natural size in this very short space. The wing, at the instant it is freed from its late confinement, is considerably thicker than afterwards; so that it spreads in all its dimensions, growing thinner as it becomes broader. If one of the wings be plucked from the animal just set free, it may be spread by the fingers, and it will soon become as broad as the other which has been left behind. As the wings extend themselves so suddenly they have not yet had time to dry, and accordingly appear like pieces of wet paper, soft, and full of wrinkles. In about half an hour they are perfectly dry, their wrinkles entirely disappear, and the little animal assumes all its splendour. The transmutation being thus perfectly finished, the butterfly discharges three or four drops of a blood-coloured liquid, which are the last remains of its superfluous moisture. Those aurelias which are enclosed within a cone find their exit more difficult, as they have still another prison to break through; this, however, they perform in a short time; for the butterfly, freed from its aurelia skin, butts with its head violently against the walls of its artificial prison—and probably with its eyes, which are rough and like a file, it rubs the internal surface away—till it is at last seen bursting its way into open air; and in less than a quarter of an hour the animal acquires its full perfection.

Thus, to use the words of Swammerdam, we see a little insignificant creature distinguished in its last birth with qualifications and ornaments, which man during his stay upon earth can never even hope to acquire. The butterfly, to enjoy life, needs no other food but the dews of Heaven, and the honeyed juices which are distilled from every flower. The pageantry of princes cannot equal the ornaments with which it is invested, nor the rich colouring that embellishes its wings. The skies are the butterfly's proper habitation, and the air its element; whilst man comes into the world naked, and often roves about without habitation or shelter—exposed on the one hand to the heat of the sun, and on the other to the damps and exhalations of the earth—both alike enemies of his happiness and existence. A strong proof that, while this little animal is raised to its greatest height, we are as yet in this world only candidates for perfection!

CHAP. III.

OF BUTTERFLIES AND MOTHS.

It has been already shown that all butterflies are bred from caterpillars; and we have exhibited the various circumstances of that surprising change. It has been

remarked that butterflies may be easily distinguished from flies of every other kind by their wings; for in others they are either transparent, like gauze, as we see in the common flesh-fly; or they are hard and crusted, as we see in the wings of the beetle. But in the butterfly the wings are soft, opaque, and painted over with a beautiful dust, that comes off with handling.

The number of these beautiful animals is very great; and though Linnæus has reckoned up above seven hundred and fifty different kinds, the catalogue is still very incomplete. Every collector of butterflies can show undescribed species; and such as are fond of minute discovery can here produce animals that have been examined only by himself. In general, however, those of the warm climates are larger and more beautiful than such as are bred at home; and we can easily admit the beauty of the butterfly, since we are thus freed from the damage of the caterpillar. It has been the amusement of some to collect these animals from different parts of the world, or to breed them from caterpillars at home. These they arrange in systematic order, or dispose so as to make striking and agreeable pictures; and all must grant that this specious idleness is far preferable to that unhappy state which is produced by a total want of employment.

The wings of butterflies, as was observed, fully distinguish them from flies of every other kind. They are four in number; and though two of them be cut off the animal can fly with the two others remaining. They are in their own substance transparent, but owe their opacity to the beautiful dust with which they are covered, and which has been likened by some naturalists to the feathers of birds; by others to the scales of fishes, as their imaginations were disposed to catch the resemblance. In fact, if we regard the wing of a butterfly with a good microscope we shall perceive it studded over with a variety of little grains of different dimensions and forms, generally supported upon a footstalk regularly laid upon the whole surface. Nothing can exceed the beautiful and regular arrangement of these little substances, which thus serve to paint the butterfly's wing like the tiles of a house. Those of one rank are a little covered by those that follow; they are of many figures. On one part of the wing may be seen a succession of oval studs; on another part a cluster of studs, each in the form of a heart; in one place they resemble a hand open, and in another they are long or triangular; while all are interspersed with taller studs, that grow between the rest like mushrooms upon a stalk. The wing itself is composed of several thick nerves, which render the construction very strong, though light; and though it be covered over with thousands of these scales or studs, yet its weight is very little increased by the number. The animal is with ease enabled to support itself a long while in the air, although its flight is not very graceful. When it designs to fly to a considerable distance it ascends and descends alternately, going sometimes to the right, sometimes to the left, without any apparent reason. Upon closer examination, however, it will be found that it flies thus irregularly in pursuit of its mate; and as dogs bait and quarter the ground in pursuit of their game, so these insects traverse the air in quest of their mates, whom they can discover at more than a mile's distance.

If we prosecute our description of the butterfly the animal may be divided into three parts—the head, the corselet, and the body.

The body is the hinder part of the butterfly, and is composed of rings, which are generally concealed under long hair, with which that part of the animal is clothed. The corselet is more solid than the rest of the body, because the fore-wings and the legs are fixed therein. The legs are six in number, although four only are made use of by the animal—the two fore-legs being often so much concealed in the long hair of the body that it is sometimes difficult to discover them. If we examine

these parts internally, we shall find the same set of vessels in the butterfly that we observed in the caterpillar, but with this great difference, that as the blood or humours in the caterpillar circulate from the tail to the head, they are found in the butterfly to take a direct contrary course, and to circulate from the head to the tail; so that the caterpillar may be considered as the embryo animal, in which, as we have formerly seen, the circulation is carried on differently from what it is in animals when excluded.

But leaving the other parts of the butterfly, let us turn our attention particularly to the head. The eyes of butterflies have not all the same form; for in some they are large, in others small; in some they are the larger portion of a sphere, in others they are but a small part of it, and just appearing from the head. In all of them, however, the outward coat has a lustre, in which may be discovered the various colours of the rainbow. When examined a little closely, it will be found to have the appearance of a multiplying-glass—having a great number of sides or facets, in the manner of a brilliant-cut diamond. In this particular the eye of the butterfly and of most other insects entirely correspond; and Leunhoeck pretends there are above six thousand facets on the cornea of a flea. These animals therefore see not only with great clearness, but view every object multiplied in a surprising manner. Puget adapted the cornea of a flea in such a position as to see objects through it by the means of a microscope; and nothing could exceed the strangeness of its representations. A soldier who was seen through it appeared like an army of pigmies; for while it multiplied it also diminished the object; the arch of a bridge exhibited a spectacle more magnificent than human skill could perform; the flame of a candle seemed a beautiful illumination. It still, however, remains a doubt whether the insect sees objects singly, as with one eye, or whether every facet is itself a complete eye, exhibiting its own object distinct from all the rest.

Butterflies, as well as most other flying insects, have two instruments like horns on their heads, which are commonly called feelers. They differ from the horns of greater animals in being moveable at their base, and in having a great number of joints, by which means the insect is enabled to turn them in every direction. Those of butterflies are placed at the top of the head, pretty near the external edge of each eye. What the use of these instruments may be which are thus formed with so much art, and by a WORKMAN who does nothing without reason, is as yet unknown to man. They may serve to guard the eye—they may be of use to clean it—or they may be the organ of some sense which we are ignorant of; but this is only explaining one difficulty by another. We are not so ignorant of the uses of the trunk, which few insects of the butterfly kind are without. This instrument is placed exactly between the eyes; and when the animal is not employed in seeking its nourishment it is rolled up like a curl. A butterfly when it is feeding flies round some flower and settles upon it. The trunk is then uncurled, and thrust out either wholly or in part, and is employed in searching the flower to its very bottom, let it be ever so deep.

This search being repeated seven or eight times, the butterfly then passes to another, and continues to hover over those agreeable to its taste like a bird over its prey. This trunk consists of two equal hollow tubes, nicely joined to each other like the pipes of an organ.

Such is the figure and conformation of those beautiful insects that cheer our walks and give us the earliest intimations of summer. But it is not by day alone that they are seen fluttering wantonly from flower to flower, as the greatest number of them fly by night, and expand the most beautiful colouring at those hours when there is no spectator. This tribe of insects has therefore been divided into diurnal and nocturnal flies, or, more properly speaking, into butterflies and moths—the one fly-

ing only by day, the other most usually on the wing in the night. They may easily be distinguished from each other by their horns or feelers—those of the butterfly being clubbed or knobbed at the end; those of the moth tapering finer and finer to point. To express it technically—the feelers of butterflies are clavated—those of moths are filiform.

The butterflies as well as moths employ the short life assigned them in a variety of enjoyments. Their whole time is spent either in quest of food (which every flower offers) or in pursuit of the female, whose approach they can often perceive at two miles' distance. Their sagacity in this particular is not less astounding than true; but by what sense they are thus capable of distinguishing each other at such distances is not easy to conceive. It cannot be by the sight, since such small objects as they are must be utterly imperceptible at half the distance at which they perceive each other: it can scarcely be by the sense of smelling, since the animal has no sense for that purpose. Whatever be their powers of perception, certain it is that the male, after having fluttered as if carelessly about for some time, is seen to take wing and go forward, sometimes for two miles together, in a direct line to where the female is perched on a flower.

The general rule among insects is that the female is to larger than the male; and this obtains particularly in the tribe I am describing. The body of the male is smaller and slenderer, that of the female more thick and oval. Previous to the junction of these animals they are seen sporting in the air, pursuing and flying from each other, and preparing by a mock combat for the more important business of their lives. If they be disturbed while united the female flies off with the male on her back, who seems entirely passive upon the occasion.

But the females of many moths and butterflies seem have assumed their airy form for no other reason but to fecundate their eggs and lay them. They are not seen fluttering about in quest of food or a mate: all that passes during their short lives is a junction with the male of about half an hour; after which they deposit their eggs and die, without taking any nourishment or seeking any. It may be observed, however, that in all the females of this tribe they are impregnated by the male by one aperture and lay their eggs by another.

The eggs of female butterflies are disposed in the body like a bed of chaplets, which, when excluded, are usually oval, and of a whitish colour: some, however, are quite round, and others flattened like a turnip. The covering or shell of the egg, though solid, is thin and transparent; and in proportion as the caterpillar grows within the egg the colours change and are distributed differently. The butterfly seems well instructed by Nature in its choice of the plant or the leaf where it shall deposit its burthen. Each egg contains but one caterpillar; and it is requisite that this little animal when excluded should be near its peculiar provision. The butterfly, therefore, is careful to place her brood only upon those plants that afford good nourishment to its posterity. Though the little winged animal has been fed itself upon dew or the honey of flowers, yet it makes choice for its young of a very different provision, and lays its eggs on the most unsavoury plants—the rag-weed, the cabbage, or the nettle. Thus every butterfly chooses not the plant most grateful to it in its winged state, but such as it has fed upon in its reptile form.

All the eggs of butterflies are attached to the leaves of the favourite plant by a sort of size or glue, where they continue unobserved, unless carefully sought after. The eggs are sometimes placed round the tender shoots of plants in the form of bracelets, consisting of above two hundred in each, and generally surrounding the shoot like a ring upon a finger. Some butterflies secure their eggs from the injuries of air by covering them with

hair plucked from their own bodies, as birds sometimes are seen to make their nests; so that the eggs are thus kept warm, and also entirely concealed.

All the tribe of female moths lay their eggs a short time after they leave the aurelia; but there are many butterflies that flutter about the whole summer, and do not think of laying until the winter begins to warn them of their approaching end: some even continue the whole winter in the hollows of trees, and do not provide for posterity until the beginning of April, when they leave their retreats, deposit their eggs, and die. Their eggs soon begin to feel the genial influence of the season, the little animal bursts from them in their caterpillar state, to become aurelias and butterflies in their turn, and thus to continue the round of Nature.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE ENEMIES OF THE CATERPILLAR.

Nature, though it has rendered some animals surprisingly fruitful, yet ever takes care to prevent their too great increase. One set of creatures is generally opposed to another; and those are chiefly the most prolific that are, from their imbecility, incapable of making any effectual defence. The caterpillar has, perhaps, of all other animals the greatest number of enemies, and seems only to exist by its surprising fecundity. Some animals devour them by hundreds; others, more minute yet more dangerous, mangle them in various ways; so that, how great soever their numbers may be, their destroyers are equal in proportion. Indeed, if we consider the mischiefs these reptiles are capable of occasioning, and the various damages we sustain from their insatiable rapacity, it is happy for the other ranks of Nature that there are thousands of fishes, birds, and even insects, that live chiefly upon caterpillars, and make them their most favourite repast.

When we describe the little birds that live in our gardens and near our houses as destructive neighbours, sufficient attention was not paid to the services which they are frequently found to render us. It has been proved that a single sparrow and its mate, that have young ones, destroy above three thousand caterpillars in a week—not to mention several butterflies, in which numberless caterpillars are destroyed in embryo. It is in pursuit of these reptiles that we are favoured with the visits of our most beautiful songsters, that amuse us during their continuance, and leave us when the caterpillars disappear.

The maxim which has often been urged against man—that he, of all other animals, is the only creature that is an enemy to his own kind, and that the human species only are found to destroy each other—has been adopted by persons who never considered the history of insects. Some of the caterpillar kind in particular, that seem fitted only to live upon leaves and plants, will, however, eat each other; and the strongest will devour the weak in preference to their vegetable food. That which lives upon the oak is found to seize any of its companions, which it conveniently can by the first rings, and inflict a deadly wound; it then feasts in tranquillity on its prey, and leaves nothing of the animal but its husk.

But it is not from each other they have the most to fear, as in general they are inoffensive; and many of this tribe are found to live in a kind of society. Many kind of flies lay their eggs either upon or within their bodies; and as these turn into worms, the caterpillar is seen to nourish a set of intestine enemies within its body that must shortly be its destruction—Nature having taught flies as well as all other animals the surest methods of perpetuating their kind. "Towards the end of August," says Reaumur, "I perceived a little fly, of a

CHAP. V.

OF THE SILKWORM.

beautiful gold-colour, busily employed in the body of a large caterpillar, of that kind which feeds upon cabbage. I gently separated that part of the leaf on which these insects were placed from the rest of the plant, and placed it where I might observe them more at my ease. The fly, wholly taken up by the business in which it was employed, walking along the caterpillar's body, now and then remaining fixed to a particular spot. Upon this occasion I perceived it every now and then dart a sting, which it carried at the end of its tail, into the caterpillar's body, and then draw it out again, to repeat the same operation in another place. It was not difficult for me to conjecture the business which engaged this animal so earnestly; its whole aim was to deposit its eggs in the caterpillar's body, which was to serve as a proper retreat for bringing them to perfection. The reptile thus rudely treated seemed to bear all very patiently, only moving a little when stung too deeply, which, however, the fly seemed entirely to disregard. I took particular care to feed this caterpillar, which seemed to me to continue as voracious and vigorous as any of the rest of this kind. In about ten or twelve days it changed into an aurelia, which seemed gradually to decline, and died: upon examining its internal parts the animal was entirely devoured by worms—which, however, did not come to perfection, as it is probable they had not enough to sustain them within.

What the French philosopher perceived on this occasion is every day to be seen in several of the larger kinds of caterpillars, whose bodies serve as a nest to various flies, that very carefully deposit their eggs within them. The large cabbage caterpillar is so subject to its injuries, that at certain seasons it is much easier to find them with than without them. The ichneumon fly, as it is called, particularly infests these reptiles, and prevents their fecundity. This fly is of all others the most formidable to insects of various kinds. The spider, that destroys the ant, the moth, and the butterfly, yet often falls a prey to the ichneumon; who pursues the robber to his retreat, and, despising his nets, tears him in pieces in the very labyrinth he has made. This insect, as redoubtable as the little quadruped that destroys the crocodile, has received the same name; and from its destruction of the caterpillar tribe is probably more serviceable to mankind. This insect, I say, makes the body of the caterpillar the place for depositing its eggs, to the number of ten, fifteen, or twenty. As they are laid in those parts that are not mortal, the reptile still continues to live and to feed, showing no signs of being incommoded by its new guests. The caterpillar changes its skin, and sometimes undergoes the great change into an aurelia; but still the fatal intruders work within, and secretly devour its internal substance: soon after they are seen bursting through its skin, and moving away in order to spin themselves a covering previous to their own little transformation. It is indeed astonishing sometimes to see the number of worms, and those pretty large, that thus issue from the body of a single caterpillar, and eat their way through its skin; but it is more extraordinary still that they should remain within the body, devouring its entrails without destroying its life. The truth is, they seem instructed by Nature not to devour its vital parts; for they are found to feed only upon that fatty substance which composes the largest part of the caterpillar's body. When this surprising appearance was first observed it was supposed that the animal thus gave birth to a number of flies different from itself; and that the same caterpillar sometimes bred an ichneumon and sometimes a butterfly: but it was not till after more careful inspection it was discovered that the ichneumon tribe was not the caterpillar's offspring, but its murderers.



Having mentioned in the last chapter the damages inflicted by the caterpillar tribe, we now come to an animal of this kind that alone compensates for all the mischief occasioned by the rest. This little creature, which only works for itself, has been made of the utmost service to man, and furnishes him with a covering more beautiful than any other animal can supply. We may declaim, indeed, against the luxuries of the times, when silk is so generally worn; but were such garments to fail, what other art could supply their deficiency?

Though silk was anciently brought in small quantities to Rome, yet it was so scarce as to be sold for its weight in gold; and was considered as such a luxurious refinement in dress, that it was infamous for a man to appear in habits of which silk formed but half the composition. It was most probably brought among them from the remotest parts of the East; since it was, at the time of which I am speaking, scarcely known even in Persia.

Nothing can be more remote from the truth than the manner in which their historians describe the animal by which silk is produced. Pausanius informs us that silk came from the country of the Seres, a people of Asiatic Scythia; in which place an insect as large as the beetle, but in every other respect resembling a spider, was bred up for that purpose. They take great care, as he assures us, to feed and defend it from the weather, as well during the summer's heat as the rigours of winter. This insect, he observes, makes its web with its feet, of which it has eight in number. It is fed for the space of four years upon a kind of paste, prepared for it; and at the beginning of the fifth year it is supplied with the leaves of the green willow, of which it is particularly fond. It then feeds till it bursts with fat; after which they take out its bowels, which are spun into the beautiful manufacture so scarce and costly.

The real history of this animal was unknown among the Romans till the time of Justinian; and it is supposed that silkworms were not brought into Europe till the beginning of the twelfth century, when Roger of Sicily brought workmen in this manufacture from Asia Minor after his return from his expedition to the Holy Land, and settled them in Sicily and Calabria. From these the other kingdoms of Europe learned the manufacture; and it is now one of the most lucrative carried on among the southern provinces of Europe.

The silkworm is now very well known to be a large caterpillar, of a whitish colour, with twelve feet, and producing a butterfly of the moth kind. The cone on which it spins is formed for covering it while it continues in the aurelia state; and several of these, properly wound off and united together, form those strong and beautiful threads which are woven into silk. The feeding these worms, the gathering, the winding, the twisting, and the weaving their silk, is one of the principal manufactures of Europe; and, as our luxuries increase, seems every day to become more and more necessary to human happiness.

There are two methods of breeding silkworms; for they may be left to grow, and to remain at liberty upon the trees where they are hatched; or they may be kept in a place built for that purpose, and fed every day with fresh leaves. The first method is used in China, Tonquin, and other hot countries; the other is used in those places where the animal has been artificially propagated, and still continues a stranger. In the warm climates the silkworm proceeds from an egg, which has been glued by the parent moth upon proper parts of the mulberry-tree, and which remains in that situation during the winter. The manner in which they are situated and fixed to the tree keeps them unaffected by the influence of the weather; so that those frosts which are severe

enough to kill the tree have no power to injure the silkworm.

The insect never proceeds from the egg till Nature has provided it a sufficient supply, and till the budding leaves are furnished in sufficient abundance for its support. When the leaves are put forth the worms seem to feel the genial summons, and, bursting from their little eggs, crawl upon the leaves, where they feed with a most voracious appetite. Thus they become larger by degrees; and after some months' feeding they lay upon every leaf small bundles or cones of silk, which appear like so many golden apples painted on a fine green ground. Such is the method of breeding them in the East: and without doubt it is the best for the worms, and least trouble for the feeder of them. But it is otherwise in our colder European climates: the frequent changes of the weather, and the heavy dews of our evenings, render the keeping them all night exposed subject to so many inconveniences as to admit of no remedy. It is true that, by the assistance of nets, they may be preserved from the insults of birds; but the severe cold weather, which often succeeds the first heats of summer, as well as the rain and high winds, will destroy them all; and therefore, to breed them in Europe, they must be sheltered and protected from every external injury.

For this purpose a room is chosen with a south aspect; and the windows are so well glazed as not to admit the least air; the walls are well built, and the planks of the floor exceedingly close so as to admit neither birds nor mice, nor even so much as an insect. In the middle there should be four pillars erected, or four wooden posts, so placed as to form a pretty large square. Between this are different stories made with osier hurdles; and under each hurdle there should be a floor, with an upright border all round. These hurdles and floors must hang upon pulleys, so as to be placed or taken down at pleasure.

When the worms are hatched some tender mulberry leaves are provided, and placed in the cloth or paper-box in which the eggs were laid, and which is large enough to hold a great number. When they have acquired some strength, they must be distributed on beds of mulberry-leaves in the different stories of the square in the middle of the room, round which a person may freely pass on every side. They will fix themselves to the leaves, afterwards to the sticks of the hurdles when the leaves are devoured. They have then a thread, by which they can suspend themselves on occasion to prevent any shock by a fall; but this is by no means to be considered as the silk which they spin afterwards in such abundance. Care must be taken that fresh leaves be brought every morning, which must be strewed very gently and equally over them; upon which the silk-worms will forsake the remainder of the old leaves, which must be carefully taken away, and everything kept very clean; for nothing hurts these insects so much as moisture and uncleanness. For this reason their leaves must be gathered when the weather is dry, and kept in a dry place, if it be necessary to lay in a store. As these animals have but a short time to live they make use of every moment, and almost continually are spinning, except at those intervals when they change their skins. If mulberry-leaves be difficult to be obtained the leaves of lettuce or holyoak will sustain them; but they do not thrive so well upon their new diet, and their silk will neither be so copious nor of so good a quality.

Though the judicious choice and careful management of their diet is absolutely necessary, yet there is another precaution of equal importance, which is to give them air, and open their chamber windows at such times as the sun shines warmest. The place also must be kept as clean as possible—not only the several floors that are laid to receive their ordure, but the whole apart-

ments in general. These things well observed contribute greatly to their health and increase.

The worm at the time it bursts the shell is extremely small, and of a black colour; but the head is of a more shining black than the rest of the body: some days after they begin to turn whitish, or of an ash-coloured grey. After the skin begins to grow too rigid, or the animal is stunted within it, the insect throws it off, and appears clothed anew; it then becomes larger and much whiter, though it has a greenish cast: after some days, which are more or less according to the different heat of the climate or to the quality of the food, it leaves off eating, and seems to sleep for two days together: then it begins to stir and put itself into violent motions, till the skin falls off the second time, and is thrown aside by the animal's feet. All these changes are made in three weeks or a month's time; after which it begins to feed once more, still in its caterpillar form, but a good deal differing from itself before its change. In a few days' time it seems to sleep again; and when it awakes it again changes its clothing, and continues feeding as before. When it has thus taken a sufficiency of food, and its parts are disposed for assuming the aurelia form, the animal forsakes for the last time all food and society, and prepares itself a retreat to defend it from external injuries, while it seem deprived of life and motion.

This retreat is no other than its cone, or ball of silk, which Nature has taught it to compose with great art, and within which it buries itself till it assumes its winged form. This cone or ball is spun from two little longish kinds of bags that lie above the intestines, and are filled with a gummy fluid of a marigold colour. This is the substance of which the threads are formed; and the little animal is furnished with a surprising apparatus for spinning it to the degree of fineness which its occasions may require. This instrument in some measure resembles a wire-drawer's machine, in which gold or silver threads are drawn to any degree of minuteness: and through this the animal draws its thread with great assiduity. As every thread proceeds from two gum-bags, it is probable that each supplies its own—which, however, are united, as they proceed from the animal's body. If we examine the thread with a microscope, it will be found that it is flattened on one side and grooved along its length; from hence we may infer that it is doubled just upon leaving the body, and that the two threads stick to each other by that gummy quality of which they are possessed. Previous to spinning its web the silkworm seeks out some convenient place to erect its cell without any obstruction. When it has found a leaf or a chink fitted to its purpose, it begins to wreath its head in every direction, and fastens its thread on every side to the sides of its retreat. Though all its first essays seem perfectly confused, yet they are not altogether without design; there appears, indeed, no order or contrivance in the disposal of its first threads; they are by no means laid artfully over each other, but are thrown out at random, to serve as an external shelter against rain; for Nature having appointed the animal to work upon trees in the open air, its habits remain, though it is brought up in a warm apartment.

Malpighi pretends to have observed six different layers in a single cone of silk; but what may easily be observed is, that it is composed externally of a kind of rough cotton-like substance, which is called floss; within the thread is more distinct and even; and next the body of the aurelia the apartment seemed lined with a substance of the hardness of paper, but of a much stronger consistence. It must not be supposed that the thread which goes to compose the cone is rolled on as we roll a bobbin; on the contrary, it lies upon it in a very irregular manner, and winds off now from one side of the cone and then from the other. This whole thread, if measured, will be found about three hundred yards long; and so very fine, that eight or ten of them are

generally rolled off into one by the manufacturers. The cone when completed is in form like a pigeon's egg, and more pointed at one end than the other; at the smaller end the head of the aurelia is generally found; and this is the place that the insect when converted into a moth is generally seen to burst through.

It is generally a fortnight or three weeks before the aurelia is changed into a moth; but no sooner is the winged insect completely formed than, having divested itself of its aurelia skin, it prepares to burst through its cone or outward prison: for this purpose it extends its head towards the point of the cone, butts with its eyes, which are rough, against the lining of its cell, wears it away, and at last pushes forward through a passage which is small at first, but which enlarges as the animal increases its efforts for emancipation, while the tattered remnants of its aurelia skin lie in confusion within the cone like a bundle of dirty linen.

The animal, when thus set free from its double confinement, appears exhausted with fatigue, and seems produced for no other purpose but to transmit a future brood. It neither flies nor eats—the male only seeking the female, whose eggs he impregnates; and their union continues for four days without interruption. The male dies immediately after separation from his mate; and she survives him only till she has laid her eggs, which are not hatched into worms till the ensuing spring.

However, there are few of these animals suffered to come to a state of maturity; for as their bursting through the cone destroys the silk, the manufacturers take care to kill the aurelia by exposing it to the sun before the moth comes to perfection. This done, they take off the floss and throw the cones into warm water, stirring them till the first thread offers them a clue for winding all off. They generally take eight of the silken threads together—the cones still kept under water till a proper quantity of the silk is wound off; however, they do not take all; for the latter part grows weak, and are of a bad colour. As to the paper-like substance which remains, some stain it with a variety of colours to make artificial flowers, others let it lie in the water till the glutinous matter which cements it is all dissolved; it is then carded like wool, spun with a wheel, and converted into silk stuffs of an inferior kind.

BOOK IV.—CHAP. I.

OF THE FOURTH ORDER OF INSECTS IN GENERAL.

In the foregoing part we treated of caterpillars changing into butterflies: in the present will be given the history of grubs changing into their corresponding winged animals. These, like the former, undergo their transformation, and appear as grubs or maggots, as aurelias, and at last as winged insects. Like the former, they are bred from eggs; they feed in their reptile state; they continue motionless and lifeless as aurelias, and fly and propagate when furnished with wings. But they differ in many respects; the grub or maggot wants the number of feet which the caterpillar is seen to have; the aurelia is not so totally wrapped up but that its feet and its wings appear. The perfect animal when emancipated also has its wings either cased or transparent, like gauze—not coloured with that beautiful painted dust which adorns the wings of the butterfly.

In this class of insects, therefore, we may place a various tribe, that are at first laid as eggs, then are excluded as maggots or grubs, then change into aurelias, with their legs and wings not wrapped up, but appearing; and lastly, assuming wings, in which state they propagate their kind. Some of these have four transparent wings, as bees; some have two membranous cases to their wings, as beetles; and some have two wings,

which are transparent, as ants. Here, therefore, we will place the bee, the wasp, the humble-bee, the ichneumon-fly, the gnat, the tipula or longlegs, the beetle, the may-bug, the glow-worm, and the ant. The transformations which all these undergo are pretty nearly similar, and though very different animals in form, are yet produced nearly in the same manner.

CHAP. II.

OF THE BEE.

To give a complete description of this insect in a few pages, which some have devoted volumes in describing, and whose nature and properties still continue in dispute, is impossible. It will be sufficient to give a general idea of the animal's operations, which, though they have been studied for more than two thousand years, are still but incompletely known. The account given us by Reaumur is sufficiently minute, and, if true, sufficiently wonderful; but I find many of the facts which he relates doubted by those who are most conversant with bees; and some of them actually declared not to have a real existence in Nature.

It is unhappy, therefore, for those whose method demands a history of bees that they are unfurnished with those materials which have induced so many observers to contradict so great a naturalist. His life was spent in the contemplation; and it requires an equal share of attention to prove the errors of his discoveries. Without entering, therefore, into the dispute, I will take him for my guide; and just mention as I go along those particulars in which succeeding observers have begun to think him erroneous. Which of the two are right time can only discover; for my part I have only heard one side, for as yet none have been so bold as openly to oppose Reaumur's delightful researches.

There are three different kinds of bees in every hive. First, the labouring bees, which make up the far greatest number, and are thought to be neither male nor female, but merely born for the purposes of labour, and continuing the breed by supplying the young with provision while yet in their helpless state. The second sort are the drones; they are of a darker colour, longer, and more thick by one-third than the former; they are supposed to be the males, and there is not above a hundred of them in the hive of seven or eight thousand bees. The third sort is much larger than either of the former, and still fewer in number: some assert that there is not above one in every swarm; but this later observers affirm not to be true, there being sometimes five or six in the same hive. These are called queen-bees, and are said to lay all the eggs from which the whole swarm is hatched in a season.

In examining the structure of the common working bee, the first remarkable part that offers is the trunk which serves to extract the honey from the flowers. It is not formed like that of other flies, in the manner of a tube, by which the fluid is to be sucked up; but like a besom, to sweep, or a tongue, to lick it away. The animal is furnished also with teeth, which serve it in making wax. This substance is gathered from flowers, like honey; it consists of that dust or farina which contributes to the fecundation of plants, and is moulded into wax by the little animal at leisure. Every bee when it leaves the hive to collect this precious store enters into the cup of the flower, particularly such as seemed charged with the greatest quantity of this yellow farina. As the animal's body is covered over with hair, it rolls itself within the flower and soon becomes quite covered with the dust, which it soon after brushes off with its two hind-legs, and kneads it into two little balls. In the thighs of the hind-legs there are two

cavities, edged with hair, and into these, as into a basket, the animal sticks its pellets. Thus employed, the bee flies from flower to flower, increasing its store, and adding to its stock of wax; until the ball upon each thigh becomes as big as a grain of pepper; by this time, having got a sufficient load, it returns, making the best of its way to the hive.

The belly of the bee is divided into six rings, which sometimes shorten the body by slipping one over the other. It contains within it, beside the intestines, the honey-bag, the venom-bag, and the sting. The honey-bag is as transparent as crystal, containing the honey that the bee has brushed from the flowers, of which the greatest part is carried to the hive, and poured into the cells of the honey-comb, while the remainder serves for the bee's own nourishment; for during summer it never touches what has been laid up for the winter. The sting, which serves to defend this little animal from its enemies, is composed of three parts—the sheath and two darts, which are extremely small and penetrating. Both the darts have several small points or barbs, like those of a fish-hook, which render the sting more painful, and makes the dart rankle in the wound. Still, however, this instrument would be very slight did not the bee poison the wound. The sheath, which has a sharp point, makes the first impression; which is followed by that of the darts, and then the venomous liquor is poured in. The sheath sometimes sticks so fast in the wound that the animal is obliged to leave it behind, by which the bee soon after dies, and the wound is considerably inflamed. It might at first appear well for mankind if the bee were without its skin; but upon recollection it will be found that the little animal would have then too many rivals in sharing its labours. A hundred other lazy animals, fond of honey and hating labour, would intrude upon the sweets of the hive, and the treasure would be carried off for want of armed guardians to protect it.

From examining the bee singly, we now come to consider it in society, as an animal not only subject to laws, but active, vigilant, laborious, and disinterested. All its provisions are laid up for the community, and all its arts in building a cell designed for the benefit of posterity. The substance with which bees build their cells is wax, which is fashioned into convenient apartments for themselves and their young. When they begin to work in their hives they divide themselves into four companies—one of which roves in the fields in search of materials; another employs itself in laying out the bottoms and partitions of their cells; a third is employed in making the inside smooth from the corners and angles; and the fourth company bring food for the rest, or relieve those who return with their respective burthens. But they are not kept constant to one employment; they often change the tasks assigned to them—those that have been at work being permitted to go abroad, and those that have been in the fields already take their places. They seem even to have signs by which they understand each other; for when any of them wants food it bends down its trunk to the bee from whom it is expected, which then opens its honey-bag and lets some drops fall into the other's mouth, which is at that time open to receive it. Their diligence and labour is so great, that in a day's time they are able to make cells which lie upon each other, numerous enough to contain three thousand bees.

If we examine their cells, they will be found formed in the most exact proportion. It was said by Pappus, an ancient geometrician, that of all other figures hexagons were the most convenient; for when placed touching each other the most convenient room would be given and the smallest lost. The cells of the bees are perfect hexagons; these in every honeycomb are double, opening on either side and closed at the bottom. The bottoms are composed of little triangular panes, which, when united together, terminate in a point, and lie ex-

actly upon the extremities of other panes of the same shape in opposite cells. These lodgings have spaces like streets between them, large enough to give the bees a free passage in and out, and yet narrow enough to preserve the necessary heat. The mouth of every cell is defended by a border, which makes the door a little less than the inside of the cell, and which serves to strengthen the whole. These cells serve for different purposes—for laying up their young; for their wax, which in winter becomes a part of their food; and for their honey, which makes their principal subsistence.

It is well known that the habitation of bees ought to be very close; and what their hives want from the negligence or unskilfulness of man these animals supply by their own industry; so that it is their principal care when first hived to stop up all the crannies. For this purpose they make use of a resinous gum, which is more tenacious than wax, and differs greatly from it. This the ancients called "propolis;" it will grow considerably hard in June—though it will in some measure soften by heat, and is often found different in consistence, colour, and smell. It has generally an agreeable aromatic odour when it is warmed; and by some it is considered as a most grateful perfume. When the bees begin to work with it it is soft, but it acquires a firmer consistence every day; till at length it assumes a brown colour, and becomes much harder than wax. The bees carry it on their hinder legs; and some think it is met with on the birch, the willow, and poplar. However it is procured, it is certain that they plaster the inside of their hives with this composition.

If examined through a glass hive, from the hurry the whole swarm is in the whole appears at first like anarchy and confusion; but the spectator soon finds every animal diligently employed, and following one pursuit with a settled purpose. Their teeth are the instruments by which they model and fashion their various buildings, and give them such symmetry and perfection. They begin at the top of the hive; and several of them work at a time at the cells which have two faces. If they are stinted with regard to time they give the new cells but half the depth which they ought to have, leaving them imperfect till they have stretched out the number of cells necessary for the present occasion. The construction of their combs costs them a great deal of labour: they are made by insensible additions, and not cast at once in a mould, as some are apt to imagine. There seems no end of their shaping, finishing, and turning them neatly up. The cells for their young are most carefully formed; those designed for lodging the drones are larger than the rest; and that for the queen-bee the largest of all. The cells in which the young brood are lodged serve at different times for containing honey; and this proceeds from an obvious cause: every worm, before it is transformed into an aurelia, hangs its old skin on the partitions of its cell; and thus, while it strengthens the wall, diminishes the capacity of its late apartment. The same cell in a single summer is often tenanted by three or four worms in succession, and the next season by three or four more. Each worm takes particular care to fortify the pannels of its cell by hanging up its spoils there: thus, the partitions being lined six or eight deep, become at last too narrow for a new brood, and are converted into store-houses for honey.

Those cells where nothing but honey is deposited are much deeper than the rest. When the harvest of honey is so plentiful that they have not sufficient room for it, they either lengthen their combs or build more, which are much longer than the former. Sometimes they work at three combs at a time; for when there are three work-houses, more bees may be thus employed without embarrassing each other.

But honey, as was before observed, is not the only food upon which these animals subsist. The meal of flowers, of which their wax is formed, is one of their

most favourite repasts. This is a diet which they live upon during the summer, and of which they lay up a large winter provision. The wax of which their combs are made is no more than this meal digested and wrought into a paste. When the flowers upon which bees generally feed are not fully blown, and this meal or dust is not offered in sufficient quantities, the bees pinch the tops of the stamina in which it is contained with their teeth, and thus anticipate the progress of vegetation. In April and May the bees are busy from morning to evening in gathering this meal; but when the weather becomes too hot in the midst of summer they work only in the morning.

The bee is furnished with a stomach for its wax as well as its honey. In the former of the two their powder is altered, digested, and concocted into real wax, and is thus ejected by the same passage by which it is swallowed. Every comb newly made is white; but it becomes yellow as it grows old, and almost black when kept too long in the hive. Beside the wax thus digested, there is a large portion of the powder kneaded up for food in every hive, and kept in separate cells for winter provision. This is called by the country people bee-bread, and contributes to the health and strength of the animal during the winter. Those who rear bees may rob them of their honey, and feed them during the winter with treacle: but no proper substitute has yet been found for the bee-bread, and without it the animals become consumptive and die.

As for the honey, it is extracted from that part of the flower called the nectareum. From the mouth this delicious fluid passes into the gullet, and then into the first stomach or honey-bag, which, when filled, appears like an oblong bladder. Children that live in country places are well acquainted with this bladder, and destroy many bees to come at their store of honey. When a bee has sufficiently filled its first stomach it returns back to the hive, where it disgorges the honey into one of the cells. It often happens the bee delivers its store to some others at the mouth of the hive, and flies off for a fresh supply. Some honey-combs are always left open for common use; but many others are stopped up till there is a necessity of opening them. Each of these are covered carefully with wax, so close, that the covers seem to be made at the very instant the fluid is deposited within them.

Having thus given a cursory description of the insect, individually considered, and of the habitation it forms, we next come to its social habits and institutions: and, in considering this little animal attentively, after the necessary precautions for the immediate preservation of the community, its second care is turned to the continuance of posterity. How numerous soever the multitude of bees may appear in one swarm, yet they all owe their origin to a single parent, which is called the queen-bee. It is indeed surprising that a single insect shall in one summer give birth to above twenty thousand young; but upon opening her body the wonder will cease, as the number of eggs appearing at one time amounts to five thousand. This animal, whose existence is of such importance to her subjects, may easily be distinguished from the rest by her size and the shape of her body. On her safety depends the whole welfare of the commonwealth; and the attention paid her by all the rest of the swarm evidently show the dependence her subjects have upon her security. If this insect be carefully observed, she will be seen at times attended with a numerous retinue, marching from cell to cell, plunging the extremity of her body into many of them, and leaving a small egg in each.

The bees which generally compose her train are thought to be males, which serve to impregnate her by turns. These are larger and blacker than the common bees—without stings and without industry. They seem formed only to transmit a posterity, and to attend the queen whenever she thinks proper to issue from the

secret retreats of the hive, where she most usually resides. Upon the union of these two kinds depends all expectations of a future progeny; for the working bees are of no sex, and only labour for another offspring: yet such is their attention to their queen, that if she happens to die they will leave off working, and take no further care of posterity. If, however, another queen is in this state of universal despair presented them, they immediately acknowledge her for their sovereign, and once more diligently apply to their labour. It must be observed, however, that all this fertility of the queen-bee, and the great attentions paid to her by the rest, are controverted by more recent observers. They assert that the common bees are parents themselves; that they deposit their eggs in the cells which they have prepared; that the females are impregnated by the males, and bring forth a progeny which is wholly their own.

However, to go on with their history as delivered us by Mr. Reaumur—When the queen-bee has deposited the number of eggs necessary in the cells, the working bees undertake the care of the rising posterity. They are seen to leave off their usual employments, to construct proper receptacles for eggs, or to complete those that are already formed. They purposely build little cells, extremely solid, for the young, in which they employ a great deal of wax; those designed for lodging the males, as was already observed, are larger than the rest; and those for the queen-bees the largest of all. There is usually but one egg deposited in every cell; but when the fecundity of the queen is such that it exceeds the number of cells already prepared, there are sometimes three or four eggs crowded together in the same apartment. But this is an inconvenience that the working bees will by no means suffer. They seem sensible that two young ones, stuffed up in the same cell, when they grow larger will but embarrass and at last destroy each other; they therefore take care to leave a cell to every egg, and remove or destroy the rest.

The single egg that is left remaining is fixed to the bottom of the cell, and touches it but in a single point. A day or two after it is deposited the worm is excluded from the shell of the egg, having the appearance of a maggot rolled up in a ring, and lying softly on a bed of a whitish coloured jelly; upon which also the little animal begins to feed. In the meantime, the instant it appears the working bees attend it with the most anxious and parental tenderness; they furnish it every hour with a supply of this whitish substance, on which it feeds and lies, and watch the cell with unremitting care. There are nurses that have greater affection for the offspring of others than many parents have for their own children. They are constant in visiting each cell, and seeing that nothing is wanting—preparing the white mixture (which is nothing but a composition of honey and wax) in their own bowels, with which they feed them. Thus attended and plentifully fed, the worm in less than six days' time comes to its full growth, and no longer accepts the food offered it. When the bees perceive that it has no further occasion for feeding they perform the last offices of tenderness, and shut the little animal up in its cell, walling up the mouth of its apartment with wax; there they leave the worm to itself, having secured it from every external injury.

The worm is no sooner left enclosed, but from a state of inaction it begins to labour, extending and shortening its body, and by this means lining the walls of its apartment with a silken tapestry, which it spins in the manner of caterpillars before they undergo their last transformation. When their cell is thus prepared the animal is soon after transformed into an aurelia, but differing from that of the common caterpillar, as it exhibits not only the legs but the wings of the future bee in its present state of inactivity. Thus, in about twenty or one and twenty days after the egg is laid the bee is completely formed, and fitted to undergo the fatigues of

its state. When all its parts have acquired their proper strength and consistence, the young animal opens its prison by piercing with its teeth the waxen door that confines it. When just freed from its cell it is as yet moist, and incommode with the spoils of its former situation; but the officious bees are soon seen to flock round it, and to lick it clean on all sides with their trunks; while another band, with equal assiduity, are observed to feed it with honey; others again begin immediately to cleanse the cell that has been just left, to carry the ordures out of the hive, and to fit the place for a new inhabitant. The young bee soon repays their care by its industry; for as soon as its external parts become dry it discovers its natural appetite for labour, and industriously begins the task, which it pursues unremittingly through life. The toil of man is irksome to him, and he earns his subsistence with pain; but this little animal seems happy in its pursuit, and finds delight in all its employment.

When just freed from the cell, and properly equipped by its fellow-bees for duty, it at once issues from the hive, and, instructed only by Nature, goes in quest of flowers, chooses only those that yield it a supply, rejects such as are barren of honey or have been already drained by other adventurers, and when loaded is never at a loss to find its way back to the common habitation. After this first sally it begins to gather the mealy powder that lies on every flower, which is afterwards converted into wax; and with this, the very first day, it returns with two large balls stuck to its thighs.

When bees first begin to break their prisons there are generally above a hundred excluded in one day. Thus, in the space of a few weeks the number of the inhabitants in one hive of moderate size becomes so great, that there is no place to contain the new comers; and they are scarcely excluded from the cell when they are obliged by the old bees to sally forth in quest of new habitations. In other words the hive begins to swarm, and the new progeny prepares for exile.

While there is room enough in the hive the bees remain quietly together; it is necessity alone that compels the separation. Sometimes, indeed, the young brood with graceless obstinacy refuse to depart, and even venture to resist their progenitors. The young ones are known by being browner than the old, with whiter hair: the old ones are of a lighter colour, with red hair. The two armies are therefore easily distinguishable, and dreadful battles are often seen to ensue. But the victory almost ever terminates with strict poetical justice in favour of the veterans, and the rebellious offspring are driven off, not without loss and mutilation.

In different countries the swarms make their appearance at different times of the year, and there are several signs previous to this intended migration. The night before, an unusual buzzing is heard in the hive; in the morning, though the weather be soft and inviting, they seem not to obey the call, being intent on more important meditations within. All labour is discontinued in the hive—every bee is either employed in forcing or reluctantly yielding a submission; at length, after some noise and tumult, a queen-bee is chosen to guard rather than conduct the young colony to other habitations, and then they are marshalled without any apparent conductor. In less than a minute they leave their native abode, and, forming a cloud round their protectress, they set off without seeming to know the place of destination—"the world before them, where to choose their place of rest." The usual time of swarming is from ten in the morning to three in the afternoon, when the sun shines bright, and invites them to seek their fortunes. They flutter for a while in the air like flakes of snow, and sometimes undertake a distant journey, but more frequently are contented with some neighbouring asylum—the branch of a tree, a chimney-pot, or some other exposed situation. It is, indeed, re-

markable that all these animals, of whatever kind, that have long been under the protection of man seem to lose a part of their natural sagacity in providing for themselves. The rabbit when domesticated forgets to dig holes—the hen to build a nest—and the bee to seek a shelter that shall protect it from the inclemencies of winter. In those countries where the bees are wild and unprotected by man they are always sure to build their waxen cells in the hollow of a tree; but with us they seem improvident in their choice, and the first green branch that stops their flight seems to be thought sufficient for their abode through winter. However, it does not appear that the queen chooses the place where they are to alight, for many of the stragglers, who seem to be pleased with a particular branch, go and settle upon it; others are seen to succeed, and at last the queen herself, when she finds a sufficient number there before her, goes to make it the place of her headquarters. When the queen is settled the rest of the swarm soon follow; and in about a quarter of an hour the whole body seem to be at ease. It sometimes is found that there are two or three queens to a swarm, and the colony is formed into parties; but it most usually happens that one of these is more considerable than the other, and the bees by degrees desert the weakest to take shelter under the most powerful protector. The deserted queen does not long survive this defeat; she takes refuge under the new monarch, and is soon destroyed by her jealous rival. Till this cruel execution is performed the bees never go out to work; and if there should still be a queen-bee belonging to the new colony left in the old hive, she always undergoes the fate of the former. However, it must be observed that the bees never sacrifice any of their queens when the hive is full of wax and honey; for there is at that time no danger in maintaining a plurality of breeders.

When the swarm is thus conducted to a place of rest, and the policy of government is settled, the bees soon resume their former labours. The making cells, storing them with honey, impregnating the queen, making proper cells for the rising progeny, and protecting them from external danger, employ their unceasing industry. But soon after, and towards the latter end of summer, when the colony is sufficiently stored with inhabitants, a most cruel policy ensues. The drone bees, which are (as has been said) generally in the hive to the number of a hundred, are marked for slaughter. These—which had hitherto led a life of indolence and pleasure, whose only employment was in impregnating the queen, and rioting upon the labours of the hive without aiding in the general toil—now share the fate of most voluptuaries, and fall a sacrifice to the general resentment of society.

The working bees in a body declare war against them; and in two or three days' time the ground all round the hive is covered with their dead bodies. Nay, the working bees will even kill such drones as are yet in the worm state in the cell, and eject their bodies from the hive among the general carnage.

When a hive sends out several swarms in the year, the first is always the best and the most numerous. These, having the whole summer before them, have the more time for making wax and honey, and consequently their labours are the most valuable to the proprietor. Although the swarm chiefly consists of the youngest bees, yet it is often found that bees of all ages compose the multitude of emigrants, and it often happens that bees of all ages are seen remaining behind. The number of them is more considerable than that of some cities, for sometimes upwards of forty thousand are found in a single hive. So large a body may well be supposed to work with great expedition; and in fact, in less than twenty-four hours they will make combs above twenty inches long and seven or eight broad. Sometimes they will half fill their hives with wax in less than five days. In the first

fifteen days they are always found to make more wax than they do afterwards during the rest of the year.

Such are the outlines of the natural history of these animals, as usually found in our own country. How they are treated so as to produce the greatest quantity of honey belongs rather to the rural economist than the natural historian; volumes have been written on the subject, and still more remains equally curious and new. One thing, however, it may be proper to observe, that a farm or a country may be over-stocked with bees as with any other sort of animal; for a certain number of hives always require a certain number of flowers to subsist on. When the flowers near home are rifled, then are these industrious insects seen taking more extensive ranges, but their abilities may be overtaxed; and if they are obliged in quest of honey to go far from home, they are over-wearied in the pursuit, they are devoured by birds, or beat down by the winds and rain.

From a knowledge of this, in some parts of France and Piedmont they have contrived, as I have often seen, a kind of floating bee-house.

They have on board one barge threescore or a hundred bee-hives, well defended from the inclemency of an accidental storm: and with these the owners suffer themselves to float gently down the river. As the bees are continually choosing their flower pasture along the banks of the stream they are furnished with sweets before unrifled; and thus a single floating bee-house yields the proprietor a considerable income. Why a method similar to this has never been adopted in England, where we have more gentle rivers and more flowery banks than in any other parts of the world, I know not; certainly it might be turned to advantage, and yield the possessor a secure, though perhaps a moderate income.

Having mentioned the industry of these admirable insects, it will be proper to say something of the effects of their labour—of that wax and honey which is turned by man to such various uses. Bees gather two kinds of wax, one coarse and the other fine. The coarser sort is bitter, and with this, which is called "propolis," they stop up all the holes and crevices of their hives. It is of a more resinous nature than the fine wax, and is consequently better qualified to resist the moisture of the season, and preserve the works warm and dry within. The fine wax is as necessary to the animal's preservation as the honey itself. With this they make their lodgings, with this they cover the cells of their young, and in this they lay up their magazines of honey. This is made, as has been already observed, from the dust of flowers, which is carefully kneaded by the little insect, then swallowed, and, having undergone a kind of digestion, is formed into the cells which answer such a variety of purposes. To collect this the animal rolls itself in the dust of the flower it would rob, and thus takes up the vegetable dust with the hair of its body. Then carefully brushing it up into a lump, with its fore-paws it thrusts the composition into two cavities behind the thighs, which are made like spoons to receive the wax, and the hair that lines them serves to keep it from falling.

As of wax, there are also two kinds of honey—the white and the yellow. The white is taken without fire from the honey-combs. The yellow is extracted by heat, and squeezed through bags in a press. The best honey is new, thick, and granulated, of a clear transparent white colour, of a soft and aromatic smell, and of a sweet and lively taste. Honey made in mountainous countries is preferable to that of the valley. The honey made in the spring is more highly esteemed than that gathered in summer, which last is still more valuable than that of autumn, when the flowers begin to fade and lose their fragrance.

The bees are nearly alike in all parts of the world, yet there are differences worthy our notice. In Guadaloupe

the bee is less by one-half than the European bee, and more black and round. They have no string, and make their cells in hollow trees, where, if the hole they meet with is too large, they form a sort of waxen house of the shape of a pear, and in this they lodge and store their honey and lay their eggs. They lay up their honey in waxen vessels of the size of a pigeon's egg, of a black or deep violet colour; and these are so joined together that there is no space left between them. The honey never congeals, but is fluid, of the consistence of oil, and the colour of amber. Resembling these, there are found little black bees without a string in all the tropical climates; and though those countries are replete with bees like our own, yet those form the most useful and laborious tribe in that part of the world. The honey they produce is neither so unpalatable nor so surfeiting as ours; and the wax is so soft that it is only used for medicinal purposes, it being never found hard enough to form into candles, as in Europe.

Of insects that receive the name of bees among us there are several, which, however, differ widely from that industrious, social race we have been just describing. The humble-bee is the largest of all this tribe, being as large as the first joint of one's middle finger. These are seen in every field and perched on every flower. They build their nest in holes in the ground, of dry leaves mixed with wax and wool, defended with moss from the weather. Each humble-bee makes a separate cell about the size of a small nutmeg, which is round and hollow, containing the honey in a bag. Several of these cells are joined together, in such a manner that the whole appears like a cluster of grapes. The females, which have the appearance of wasps, are very few, and their eggs are laid in cells, which the rest soon cover over with wax. It is uncertain whether they have a queen or not; but there is one much larger than the rest, without wings and without hair, and all over black, like polished ebony. This goes and views all the works from time to time, and enters into the cell as if it wanted to see whether everything was done right. In the morning the young humble-bees are very idle, and seem not at all inclined to labour, till one of the largest, about seven o'clock, thrusts half its body from a hole designed for that purpose, and seated on the top of the nest, beats its wings for twenty minutes successively, buzzing the whole time, till the whole colony is put in motion. The humble-bees gather honey as well as the common bees; but it is neither so fine nor so good, nor the wax so clean or so capable of fusion.

Besides the bees already mentioned, there are various kinds among us that have much the appearance of honey-makers, and yet make only wax. The wood-bee is seen in every garden. It is rather larger than the common queen-bee; its body is of a blueish black, which is smooth and shining. It begins to appear at the approach of spring, and is seen flying near walls exposed to a sunny aspect. This bee makes its nest in some piece of wood, which it contrives to scoop and hollow for its purpose. This, however, is never done in trees that are standing, for the wood it makes choice of is half rotten. The holes are not made directly forward, but turning to one side, and having an opening sufficient to admit one's middle finger, from whence runs the inner apartment, generally twelve or fifteen inches long. The instruments used in boring these cavities are their teeth; the cavity is usually branched into three or four apartments, and in each of these they lay their eggs, to the number of ten or twelve, each separate and distinct from the rest. The egg is involved in a sort of paste, which serves at once for the young animal's protection and nourishment. The grown bees, however, feed upon small insects, particularly a louse of a redish-brown colour, of the size of a small pin's head.

Mason-bees make their cells with a sort of mortar made of earth, which they build against a wall that is

exposed to the sun. The mortar, which at first is soft, soon becomes as hard as stone, and in this their eggs are laid. Each nest contains seven or eight cells, an egg in every cell, placed regularly one over the other. If the nest remains unharmed or wants but little repairs, they make use of them the year ensuing; and thus they often serve three or four years successively. From the strength of their houses one would think these bees in perfect security, yet none are more exposed than they. A worm with very strong teeth is often found to bore into their little fortifications, and devour their young.

The ground-bee builds its nest in the earth, wherein they make round holes five or six inches deep—the mouth being narrow, and only just sufficient to admit the little inhabitants.

It is amusing enough to observe the patience and assiduity with which they labour. They carry out all the earth, grain by grain, to the mouth of the hole, where it forms a little hillock—an Alps compared to the power of the artist by which it is raised. Sometimes the walks of a garden are found undermined by their labours, some of the holes running directly downwards, others horizontally beneath the surface. They lay up in these cavities provisions for their young, which consists of a paste that has the appearance of corn, and is of a sweetish taste.

The leaf-cutting bees make their nest and lay their eggs among bits of leaves, very artificially placed in holes in the earth of about the length of a tooth-pick case. They make the bits of leaves of a roundish form, and with them line the inside of their habitations. This tapestry is still further lined by a redish kind of paste, somewhat sweet or acid. These bees are of various kinds; those that build their nests with chestnut-leaves are as big as drones, but those of the rose-tree are smaller than the common bee.

The wall-bees are so called because they make their nests in walls of a kind of silky membrane, with which they fill up the vacuities between the small stones which form the sides of their habitation. Their apartment consists of several cells placed end to end, each in the shape of a woman's thimble. Though the web which lines this habitation is thick and warm, yet it is transparent, and of a whitish colour. This substance is supposed to be spun from the animal's body. The males and females are of a size, but the former are without a sting. To these varieties of the bee kind might be added several others which are all different in nature, but not sufficiently distinguished to excite curiosity.

CHAP. III.

OF THE WASP.

However similar many insects may be in appearance, this does not imply a similitude in their history. The bee and the wasp resemble each other very strongly, yet, in examining their manner and their duration, they differ very widely. The bee labours to lay up honey, and lives to enjoy the fruits of its industry; the wasp appears equally assiduous; but only works for posterity, as the habitation is scarcely completed when the inhabitant dies.

The wasp is well known to be a winged insect with a sting—to be longer in proportion to its bulk than the bee—to be marked with bright yellow circles round the body—and to be the most swift and active insect of all the fly kind. On each side of the mouth this animal is furnished with a long tooth, notched like a saw, and with these it is enabled to cut any substance, not omitting meat itself, and to carry it to its nest. Wasps live, like bees, in community, and sometimes ten or twelve thousand are found inhabiting a single nest.

Of all other insects the wasp is the most fierce, voracious, and most dangerous when enraged. They are seen wherever flesh is cutting up gorging themselves with the spoil, and then flying to their nests with their reeking prey. They make war also on every other fly, and the spider himself dreads their approach.

Every community among bees is composed of females or queens, drones or males, and neutral or working bees. Wasps have similar occupations; the two first are for propagating the species—the last for nursing, defending, and supporting the rising progeny. Among bees, however, there is seldom above a queen or two in a hive; among wasps there are above two or three hundred.

As soon as the summer begins to invigorate the insect tribes the wasps are the most of the number, and are diligently employed either in providing provisions for their nest, if already made, or in making one, if the former habitation be too small to receive the increasing community. The nest is one of the most curious objects in natural history, and contrived almost as artificially as that of the bees themselves. Their principal care is to seek out a hole that has been begun by some other animal—a field-mouse, a rat, or a mole—to build their nests in. They sometimes build upon the plain, where they are sure of the dryness of their situation, but most commonly on the side of a bank to avoid the rain or water that would otherwise annoy them. When they have chosen a proper place they go to work with wonderful assiduity. Their first labour is to enlarge and widen the hole, taking away the earth and carrying it off to some distance. They are perfectly formed for labour, being furnished with a trunk above their mouths, two saws on each side, which play to the right and left against each other, and six strong, muscular legs to support them. They cut the earth into small parcels with their saws, and carry it out with their legs or paws. This is the work of some days; and at length the outline of their habitation is formed, making a cavity of about a foot and a half every way. While some are working in this manner, others are roving the fields to seek out the materials for their building. To prevent the earth from falling down and crushing their rising city into ruin, they make a sort of roof with their gluey substance, to which they begin to fix the rudiments of their buildings, working from the top downwards, as if they were hanging a bell, which, however, they at length close up at the bottom. The materials with which they build their nests are bits of wood and glue. The wood they get where they can from the rails and posts which they meet with in the fields and elsewhere. These they saw and divide into a multitude of small fibres, of which they take up little bundles in their claws, letting fall upon them a few drops of gluey matter with which their bodies are provided, by the help of which they knead the whole composition into a paste, which serves them in their future building. When they have returned with this to their nest, they stick their load of paste on that part where they make their walls and partitions; they tread it close with their feet and trowel it with their trunks, still going backwards as they work. Having repeated this operation three or four times, the composition is at length flattened out until it becomes a small leaf of a grey colour, much finer than paper, and of a pretty firm texture. This done, the same wasp returns to the field to collect a second load of paste, repeating the same several times, placing layer upon layer, and strengthening every partition in proportion to the wants or convenience of the general fabric. Other working wasps come quickly after to repeat the same operation, laying more leaves upon the former, till at length, after much toil, they have finished the large roof which is to secure them from the tumblings in of the earth. This home being finished, they make another entrance to their habitation, designed either for letting in the warmth of the sun or for escap-

ing in case one door be invaded by plunderers. Certain, however, it is, that by one of these they always enter, by the other they sally forth to their toil—each hole being so small that they can pass but one at a time. The walls being thus composed, and the whole somewhat in the shape of a pear, they labour at their cells, which they compose of the same paper-like substance that goes to the formation of the outside work. Their combs differ from those of bees, not less in the composition than the position which they are always seen to obtain. The honey-comb of the bee is edgeways with respect to the hive; that of the wasp is flat, and the mouth of every cell opens downwards. Thus is their habitation contrived, story above story, supported by several rows of pillars which give firmness to the whole building, while the upper story is flat-roofed, and smooth as the pavement of a room laid with squares of marble. The wasps can freely walk upon these stories between the pillars to do whatever their wants require. The pillars are very hard and compact, being larger at each end than in the middle, not much unlike the columns of a building. All the cells of the nest are only destined for the reception of the young, being replete with neither wax nor honey.

Each cell is like that of the bee, hexagonal; but they are of two sorts—the one larger for the production of the male and female wasps, the other less for the reception of the working part of the community. When the female is impregnated by the male she lays an egg in each cell, and sticks it in with a kind of gummy matter to prevent its falling out. From this egg proceeds the insect in its worm state, of which the old ones are extremely careful, feeding it from time to time till it becomes large and entirely fills up its cell. But the wasp community differs from that of the bee in this—that among the latter the working-bees take the parental duties upon them, whereas among the wasps the females alone are permitted to feed their young and to nurse their rising progeny. For this purpose the female waits with great patience till the working-wasps have brought in their provisions, which she takes from them and cuts into pieces. She then goes with great composure from cell to cell, and feeds every young one with her mouth. When the young worms have come to a certain size they leave off eating, and begin to spin a very fine silk, fixing the first end to the entrance of the cell, then turning their heads first on one side and then on the other, they fix the thread to different parts, and thus make a sort of door, which serves to close up the mouth of the cell. After this they divest themselves of their skins after the usual mode of transformation; the *aurelia*, by degrees, begins to emancipate itself from its shell; by little and little it thrusts out its legs and wings, and insensibly acquires the colour and shape of its parent.

The wasp, thus formed and prepared for depredation, becomes a bold, troublesome, and dangerous insect; there are no dangers that it will not encounter in pursuit of its prey, and nothing seems to satiate its gluttony. Though it can gather no honey of its own, no animal is more fond of sweets. For this purpose it will pursue the bee and the humble-bee, destroy them with its sting, and then plunder them of their honey-bag, with which it flies triumphantly loaded to its nest to regale its young. Wasps are ever fond of making their nests in the neighbourhood of bees, merely to have an opportunity of robbing their hives and feasting on the spoil. Yet the bees are not found always patiently submissive to their tyranny, but fierce battles are sometimes seen to ensue, in which the bees make up by conduct and numbers what they want in personal prowess. When there is no honey to be had they seek for the best and sweetest fruits, and they are never mistaken in their choice. From the garden they fly to the city, to the grocers' shops and butchers' shambles. They will sometimes carry off bits of flesh half as big as themselves, with which they fly to

their nests for the nourishment of their brood. Those who cannot drive them away lay for them a piece of ox's liver, which, being without fibres, they prefer to other flesh; and whenever they are found all other flies are seen to desert the place immediately. Such is the dread with which these little animals impress all the rest of the insect tribes, which they seize and devour without mercy, that they vanish at their approach. Wherever they fly, like the eagle or the falcon, they form a desert in the air around them. In this manner the summer is passed in plundering the neighbourhood and rearing up their young; every day adds to their numbers; and from their strength, agility, and indiscriminate appetite for every kind of provision, were they as long-lived as the bee they would soon swarm upon the face of Nature, and become the most noxious plague of man; but providentially their lives are measured to their mischief, and they live but a single season.

While the summer heats continue they are bold, voracious, and enterprising; but as the sun withdraws it seems to rob them of their courage and activity. In proportion as the cold increases they are seen to become more domestic; they seldom leave the nest, they make but short adventures from home, they flutter about in the noon-day heats, and soon after return chilled and feeble.

As their calamities increase new passions soon begin to take place; the care for posterity no longer continues, and as the parents are no longer able to provide their growing progeny a supply, they take the barbarous resolution of sacrificing them all to the necessity of the times. In this manner, like a garrison upon short allowance, all the useless hands are destroyed; the young worms, which a little before they fed and protected with so much assiduity, are now butchered and dragged from their cells. As the cold increases they no longer find sufficient warmth in their nests, which grow hateful to them, and they fly to seek it in the corners of houses, and places that receive an artificial heat. But the winter is still unsupportable; and before the new year begins they wither and die—the working-wasps first, the males soon following, and many of the females suffer in the general calamity. In every nest, however, one or two females survive the winter, and having been impregnated by the male during the preceding season, she begins in spring to lay her eggs in a little hole of her own contrivance. This bundle of eggs, which is clustered together like grapes, soon produces two worms, which the female takes proper precaution to defend and supply, and these when hatched soon give assistance to the female, who is employed in hatching two more; these also gathering strength extricate themselves out of the web that enclosed them, and become likewise assistants to their mother; fifteen days after two more make their appearance; and thus is the community every day increasing, while the female lays in every cell, first a male and then a female. These soon after become breeders in turn, till from a single female ten thousand wasps are seen produced before the month of June. After the female has thus produced her progeny, which are distributed in different districts, they assemble from all parts in the middle of summer, and provide for themselves the large and commodious habitation which has been described above.

Such is the history of the social wasp; but as among bees, so also among these insects, there are various tribes that live in solitude; these lay their eggs in a hole for the purpose, and the parent dies long before the birth of its offspring. In the principal species of the solitary wasps the insect is smaller than the working-wasp of the social kind. The filament by which the corselet is joined to the body is longer and more distinctly seen, and the whole colour of the insect is blacker than in the ordinary kinds. But it is not their figure, but the manners, of this extraordinary insect that claim our principal regard.

From the end of May to the beginning of July this

wasp is seen most diligently employed. The whole purpose of its life seems to be in contriving and fitting up a commodious apartment for its young one, which is not to succeed it till the year ensuing. For this end it is employed with unwearied assiduity in boring a hole into the finest earth some inches deep, but not much wider than the diameter of its own body. This is but a gallery leading to a wider apartment destined for the convenient lodgment of its young. As it always chooses a gravelly soil to work in, and where the earth is almost as hard as stone itself, the digging and hollowing this apartment is an enterprise of no small labour. For effecting its operation, this insect is furnished with two teeth, which are strong and firm, but not sufficiently hard to penetrate the substance through which it is resolved to make its way. In order, therefore, to soften that earth which it is unable to pierce, it is furnished with a gummy liquor which it emits upon the place, and which renders it more easily separable from the rest, and the whole becoming a kind of soft paste is removed to the mouth of the habitation. The animal's provision of liquor in these operations is, however, soon exhausted; and it is then seen taking up water from some neighbouring flower or stream in order to supply the deficiency.

At length, after much toil, a hole some inches deep is formed, at the bottom of which is a large cavity; and to this no other insect would venture to find its way, from the length and narrowness of the defile through which it would be obliged to pass. In this the solitary wasp lays its egg, which is destined to continue the species; there the nascent animal is to continue for above nine months, unattended and immured, and at first appearance the most helpless insect of the creation. But when we come to examine new wonders offer; no other insect can boast so copiously luxurious a provision or such confirmed security.

As soon as the mother wasp has deposited her egg at the bottom of the hole, her next care is to furnish it with a supply of provisions, which may be offered to the young insect as soon as it leaves the egg. To this end she procures a number of little green worms, generally from eight to twelve, and these are to serve as food for the young one the instant it awakens into life. When this supply is regularly arranged and laid in, the old one then, with as much assiduity as it before worked out its hole, now closes the mouth of the passage; and thus leaving its young one immured in perfect security, and with a copious supply of animal food, she dies, satisfied with having provided for a future progeny.

When the young one leaves the egg it is scarcely visible, and is seen immured among a number of insects infinitely larger than itself, ranged in proper order around it, which, however, give it no manner of apprehension. Whether the parent when she laid in the insect provision contrived to disable the worms from resistance, or whether they were at first incapable of any, is not known. Certain it is, that the young glutton feasts upon the living spoil without any control; his game lies at his hand, and he devours one after the other as the calls of appetite incite him. The life of the young animal is therefore spent in the most luxurious manner, till its whole stock of worms is exhausted, when the time of its transformation begins to approach; and then, spinning a silken web, it continues fixed in its cell till the sun calls it from its dark abode the ensuing summer.

The wasps of Europe are very mischievous, yet they are innocence itself when compared to those of the tropical climates, where all the insect tribes are not only numerous, but large, voracious, and formidable. Those of the West Indies are thicker, and twice as long as the common bee; they are of a grey colour striped with yellow, and armed with a very dangerous sting. They make their cells in the manner of a honey-comb, in which the young ones are hatched and bred. They generally hang their nests by threads, composed of the

same substance with the cells, to the branches of trees and the eaves of houses. They are seen everywhere in great abundance, descending like fruit, particularly pears, of which shape they are, and as large as one's head. The inside is divided into three round stories, full of cells, each hexagonal, like those of a honey-comb. In some of the islands these insects are so very numerous, that their nests are stuck up in this manner scarce two feet asunder, and the inhabitants are in continual apprehension from their accidental resentment. It sometimes happens that no precautions can prevent their attacks, and the pains of their sting is almost insupportable. Those who have felt it think it more terrible than even that of the scorpion; the whole visage swells, and the features are so disfigured that a person is scarcely known by his most intimate acquaintance.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE ICHNEUMON FLY.

Every rank of insects, how voracious soever, have enemies that are terrible to them, and that revenge upon them the injuries done upon the rest of the Animated Creation. The wasp, as we have seen, is very troublesome to man and very formidable to the insect tribe; but the ichneumon-fly (of which there are many varieties) fears not the wasp itself; it enters its retreats, plunders its habitations, and takes possession of that cell for its own young which the wasp had laboriously built for her dearer posterity.

Though there are many different kinds of this insect, yet the most formidable and that best known is called the common ichneumon, with four wings like the bee, a long, slender, black body, and a three-forked tail, consisting of bristles, the two outermost black and the middlemost red. This fly receives its name from the little quadruped which is found to be so destructive to the crocodile, as it bears a strong similitude in its courage and rapacity.

The three-forked tail just mentioned is this insect's greatest protection and means of assault. Though this instrument is to all appearance slender and feeble, yet it is found to be a weapon of great force and efficacy. There is scarce any substance which it will not pierce; and, indeed, it is seldom seen but when employed in penetration. This is the weapon of defence that is employed in destroying its prey, and still more, by this the animal deposits her eggs wherever she thinks fit to lay them. As it is an instrument chiefly employed for this purpose, the male is unprovided with such a sting, while the female uses it with great force and dexterity, brandishing it when caught from side to side, and very often wounding those who thought they held her with the greatest security.

All the flies of this tribe are produced in the same manner, and owe their birth to the destruction of some other insect within whose body they have been deposited, and upon whose vitals they have preyed till they came to maturity. There is no insect whatever which they will not attack in order to leave their fatal present in its body; the caterpillar, the gnat, and even the spider himself, so formidable to others, are often made the unwilling sufferers of this destructive progeny.

About the middle of summer, when other insects are found in great abundance, the ichneumon is seen flying busily about, and seeking proper objects upon whom to dispose its progeny. As there are various kinds of this fly, so they seem to have various appetites. Some are found to place their eggs within the aurelia of some nascent insect, others place them within the nest which the wasp had curiously contrived for its own young; and as both are produced at the same time, the young

of the ichneumon not only devours the young wasp, but the whole supply of worms which the parent had carefully provided for its provision. But the greatest number of the ichneumon tribe are seen settling upon the back of the caterpillar, and darting at different intervals their stings into its body. At every dart they deposit an egg, while the wounded animal seems scarcely sensible of the injury it sustains. In this manner they leave from six to a dozen of their eggs within the fatty substance of the reptile's body, and then fly off to commit further depredations. In the meantime the caterpillar, thus irreparably injured, seems to feed as voraciously as before, does not abate of its usual activity, and to all appearance seems no way affected by the internal enemies that are preparing its destruction in their darksome abode. But they soon burst from their egg state, and begin to prey upon the substance of their prison. As they grow larger they require a greater supply, till at last the animal by whose vitals they are supported is no longer able to sustain them, but dies, its whole inside being almost eaten away. It often happens, however, that it survives their worm state, and then they change into a chrysalis, enclosed in the caterpillar's body till the time of their delivery approaches, when they burst their prisons and fly away. The caterpillar, however, is irreparably destroyed, it never changes into a chrysalis, but dies shortly after from the injuries it had sustained.

Such is the history of this fly, which, though very terrible to the insect tribe, falls not to be of infinite service to mankind. The millions which it kills in a single summer are inconceivable; and without such a destroyer the fruits of the earth would only rise to furnish a banquet for the insect race, to the exclusion of all the nobler ranks of Animated Nature.

CHAP. V.

OF THE ANT.

Though the number of two-winged flies be very great, and the naturalists have taken some pains to describe their characters and varieties, yet there is such a similitude in their forms and manners, that in a work like this one description must serve for all. We now, therefore, come to a species of four-winged insects that are famous from all antiquity for their social and industrious habits, that are marked for their spirit of subordination, that are offered as a pattern of parsimony to the profuse, and of unremitting diligence to the sluggard.

In the experiments, however, which have been more recently made, and the observations which have been taken, much of their boasted frugality and precaution seems denied them; the treasures they lay up are no longer supposed intended for future provision, and the choice they make in their stores seems no way dictated by wisdom. It is indeed somewhat surprising that almost every writer of antiquity should describe this insect as labouring in the summer, and feasting upon the produce during the winter. Perhaps in some of the warmer climates, where the winter is mild and of short continuance, this may take place; but in France and England these animals can have no manner of occasion for a supply of winter provisions, as they are actually in a state of torpidity during that season.

The common ants of Europe are of two or three different kinds—some red, some black, some with stings, and others without; such as have stings inflict their wounds by that means; such as are unprovided with these weapons of defence have a power of spurting from their hinder parts an acid, pungent liquor, which, if it lights upon the skin, inflames and burns it like nettles.

The body of an ant is divided into the head, breast, and belly. In the head the eyes are placed, which are

entirely black; and under the eyes there are two small horns or feelers, composed of twelve joints, all covered with a fine silky hair. The mouth is furnished with two crooked jaws, which project outwards, in each of which are seen incisors that look like teeth. The breast is covered with a fine silky hair, from which project six legs, pretty strong and hairy, the extremities of each armed with two small claws, which the animal uses in climbing. The belly is more redish than the rest of the body, which is of a brown-chestnut colour, shining as glass, and covered with extremely fine hair.

From such a formation, this animal seems bolder and more active for its size than any other of the insect tribe, and fears not to attack a creature often ten times its own magnitude.

As soon as the winter is past, in the first fine day in April the ant-hill, that before seemed a desert, now swarms with new life, and myriads of these insects are seen just awaked from their annual lethargy, and preparing for the pleasures and fatigues of the season. For the first day they never offer to leave the hill, which may be considered as their citadel, but run over every part of it as if to examine its present situation, to observe what injuries it has sustained during the rigours of winter while they slept, and to meditate and settle the labours of the day ensuing.

At the first display of their forces none but the wingless tribe appears, while those furnished with four large wings remain at the bottom. These are the working ants that first appear, and that are always destitute of wings; the males and females, that are furnished with four large wings each, are more slow in making their appearance.

Thus, like bees, they are divided into males, females, and the neutral or the working tribe. These are all easily distinguished from each other; the females are much larger than the males; the working ants are the smallest of all. The two former have wings, which, however, they are soon divested of; the latter never have any, and upon them are devolved all the labours that tend to the welfare of the community. The female, also, may be distinguished by the colour and structure of her breast, which is a little more brown than that of the common ant, and a little brighter than that of the male.

In eight or ten days after their first appearance the labours of the hill are in some forwardness; the males and females are seen with the working multitude, and pursued or pursuing each other. They seem no way to partake in the common drudgeries of the state; the males pursue the females with great assiduity, and in a manner force them to compliance. They remain coupled for some time, while the males, thus united, suffer themselves to be drawn along by the will of their partners.

In the meantime the working body of the state takes no part in their pleasures; they are seen diligently going from the ant-hill in pursuit of food for themselves and associates, and of proper materials for giving a comfortable retreat to their young or safety to their habitation. In the fields of England ant-hills are formed with but little apparent regularity. In the more southern provinces of Europe they are constructed with wonderful contrivance, and offer a sight highly worthy a naturalist's curiosity. These are generally formed in the neighbourhood of some large tree and a stream of water. The one is considered by the animals as the proper place for getting food; the other for supplying them with moisture, which they cannot well dispense with. The shape of the ant-hill is that of a sugar-loaf, about three feet high, composed of various substances—leaves, bits of wood, sand, earth, bits of gum, and grains of corn. These are all united into a compact body, perforated with galleries down to the bottom, and winding ways within the body of the structure. From this retreat, to

the water as well as to the tree, in different directions, there are many paths worn by constant assiduity, and along these the busy insects are seen passing and re-passing continually; so that from May or the beginning of June, according to the state of the season, they work continually till the bad weather comes on.

The chief employment of the working ants is in sustaining not only the idlers at home, but also finding a sufficiency of food for themselves. They live upon various provisions, as well of the vegetable as the animal kind. Small insects they will kill and devour: sweets of all kinds they are particularly fond of. They seldom, however, think of their community till they themselves are first satiated. Having found a juicy fruit they swallow what they can, and then, tearing it in pieces, carry home their load. If they meet with an insect above their match several of them will fall upon it at once, and having mangled it, each will carry off a part of the spoil. If they meet in their excursions anything that is too heavy for one to bear, and yet which they are unable to divide, several of them will endeavour to force it along, some dragging and others pushing. If any one of them happens to make a lucky discovery it will immediately give advice to others, and then at once the whole republic will put themselves in motion. If in these struggles one of them happens to be killed, some kind survivor will carry him off to a great distance, to prevent the obstructions his body might give to the general spirit of industry.

But while they are thus employed in supporting the state, in feeding abroad, and carrying in provisions to those that continue at home, they are not unmindful of posterity. After a few days of fine weather the female ants begin to lay their eggs, and those are as assiduously watched and protected by the working ants, who take upon themselves to supply whatever is wanting to the nascent animal's convenience or necessity. They are carried as soon as laid to the safest situation, at the bottom of their hill, where they are carefully defended from cold and moisture. We are not to suppose that those white substances which we so plentifully find in every ant-hill are the eggs as newly laid. On the contrary, the ant's egg is so very small, that, though laid upon a black ground, it can scarcely be discerned. The little white bodies we see are the young animals in the maggot state endued with life, long since freed from the egg, and often involved in a cone which it has spun round itself like the silk-worm. The real egg when laid, if viewed through a microscope, appears smooth, polished, and shining, while the maggot is seen composed of twelve rings, and is oftener larger than the ant itself.

It is impossible to express the fond attachment which the working ants show to their rising progeny. In cold weather they take them in their mouths, but without offering them the smallest injury, to the very depths of their habitation, where they are less subject to the severity of the season. In a fine day they remove them with the same care nearer the surface, where their maturity may be assisted by the warm beams of the sun. If a formidable enemy should come to batter down their whole habitation and crush them by thousands in the ruin, yet these wonderful insects, still mindful of their parental duties, make it their first care to save their offspring. They are seen running wildly about and in different ways, each loaded with a young one often bigger than the insect that supports it. I have kept, says Swammerdam, several of the working ants in my closet with their young in a glass filled with earth. I took pleasure in observing that in proportion as the earth dried on the surface they dug deeper and deeper to deposit their eggs; and when I poured water thereon, it was surprising to see with what care, affection, and diligence they laboured to put their brood in safety in the driest place. I have seen, also, that when water has been wanting for several days, and when the earth was

moistened after it a little, they immediately carried their young ones to have a share, who seemed to enjoy and suck the moisture.

When the young maggot is come to its full growth the breast swells insensibly, it casts its skin, and loses all motion. All the members which were hidden before then begin to appear, an aurelia is formed, which represents very distinctly all the parts of the animal, though they are yet without motion, and as it were wrapped up in swaddling-clothes. When at length the little insect has passed through all its changes and acquired its proper maturity, it bursts this last skin to assume the efforts of the little animal alone, for the old ones very assiduously break open with their teeth the covering in which it is enclosed. Without this assistance the aurelia would never be able to get free, as M. De Geer often found, who tried the experiment by leaving the aurelia to themselves. The old ones not only assist them, but know the very precise time for lending their assistance, for if produced too soon the young one dies of cold, if retarded too long it is suffocated in its prison.

When the female has done laying, and the whole brood is thus produced, her labours as well as that of the male become unnecessary, and her wings, which she had but a short time before so actively employed, drop off. What becomes of her when thus divested of her ornaments is not well known, for she is seen in the cells some weeks after. The males, on the other hand, having no longer any occupation at home, make use of those wings with which they have been furnished by Nature and fly away, never to return or to be heard of more. It is probable they perish with the cold, or are destroyed by the birds, which are particularly fond of this petty prey.

In the meantime, the working ants having probably deposed their queens, and being deserted by the males, that served but to clog the community, prepare for the severity of the winter, and bury their retreats as deep in the earth as they conveniently can. It is now found that the grains of corn and other substances with which they furnish their hill are only meant as fences to keep off the rigours of the weather, not as provisions to support them during its continuance. It is found generally to obtain that every insect lives a year after it comes to its full growth, is obliged to pass four or five months without taking any nourishment, and will seem to be dead all that time. It would be to no purpose, therefore, for ants to lay up corn for the winter, since they lie that time without motion, heaped upon each other, and are so far from eating that they are utterly unable to stir. Thus what authors have dignified by the name of a magazine appears to be no more than a cavity, which serves for a common retreat when the weather forces them to return to their lethargic state.

What has been said with exaggeration of the European ant is, however, true, if asserted of those of the tropical climates. They build an ant-hill with great contrivance and regularity; they lay up provisions, and, as they probably live the whole year, they submit themselves to regulations entirely unknown to the ants of Europe.

Those of Africa are of three kinds—the red, the green, and the black; the latter are above an inch long, and in every respect a most formidable insect. Their sting produces extreme pain, and their depredations are sometimes exceedingly destructive. They build an ant-hill of a very great size, from six to twelve feet high; it is made of viscous clay, and tapers into a pyramidal form. This habitation is constructed with great artifice, and the cells are so numerous and even, that a honey-comb scarce exceeds them in number and regularity.

The inhabitants of this edifice seem to be under a very strict regulation. At the slightest warning they will sally out upon whatever disturbs them, and if they have time to arrest their enemy he is sure to find no mercy. Sheep, hens, and even rats are often destroyed

by these merciless insects, and their flesh devoured to the bone. No anatomist in the world can strip a skeleton so cleanly as they, and no animal, how strong soever, when they have once seized upon it as power to escape.

It often happens that these insects quit their retreat in a body, and go in quest of adventures. "During my stay," says Smith, "at Cape Corfe Castle, a body of these ants came to pay us a visit in our fortification. It was about day-break when the advanced-guard of this famished crew entered the chapel, where some Negro servants were asleep upon the floor. The men were quickly alarmed at the invasion of this unexpected army, and prepared as well as they could for a defence. While the foremost battalion of insects had already taken possession of the place, the rear-guard was more than a quarter of a mile distant. The whole ground seemed alive, and crawling with unceasing destruction. After deliberating a few moments upon what was to be done, it was resolved to lay a large train of gunpowder along the path they had taken; by this means millions were blown to pieces, and the rear-guard, perceiving the destruction of their leaders, thought proper instantly to return, and make back to their original habitation.

The order which these ants observe seems very extraordinary; whenever they sally forth, fifty or sixty larger than the rest are seen to head the band, and conduct them to their destined prey. If they have a fixed spot where their prey continues to resort, they form a vaulted gallery, which is sometimes a quarter of a mile in length, and yet they will hollow it out in the space of ten or twelve hours.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE BEETLE AND ITS VARIETIES.

Hitherto we have been treating of insects with four transparent wings; we now come to a tribe with two transparent wings, with cases that cover them close while at rest, but which allow them their proper play when flying. The principal of these are the beetle, the May-bug, and the cantharis. These are all bred like the rest of their order—first from eggs, then they become grubs, then a chrysalis, in which the parts of the future fly are distinctly seen, and lastly the animal leaves its prison, breaking forth as a winged animal in full maturity.

Of the beetle there are various kinds—all, however, concurring in one common formation of having cases to their wings, which are the more necessary to those insects, as they often live under the surface of the earth in holes, which they dig out by their own industry. These cases prevent the various injuries their real wings might sustain by rubbing or crushing against the sides of their abode. These, though they do not assist flight, yet keep the internal wings clean and even, and produce a loud buzzing noise when the animal rises in the air.

If we examine the formation of all animals of the beetle kind, we shall find, as in shell-fish, that their bones are placed externally and their muscles within. These muscles are formed very much like those of quadrupeds, and are endowed with such surprising strength that, bulk for bulk, they are a thousand times stronger than those of a man. The strength of these muscles is of much use in digging the animal's subterraneous abode, where it is most usually hatched, and to which it most frequently returns, even after it becomes a winged insect capable of flying.

Beside the difference which results from the shape and colour of these animals, the size also makes a considerable one—some beetles being not larger than the head of a pin, while others, such as the elephant beetle, are as big as one's fist. But the greatest difference

among them is that some are produced in a month, and in a single season go through all the stages of their existence, while others take near four years to their production, and live as winged insects a year more. To give the history of all animals, that are bred pretty much in the same way, would be insipid and endless; it will suffice to select one or two from the number, the origin of which may serve as specimens of the rest. I will therefore offer the history of the May-bug to the reader's attention, premising that most other beetles, though not so long-lived, are bred in the same manner.

The May-bug, or dorr-beetle as some call it, has, like all the rest, a pair of cases to its wings, which are of a redish brown colour sprinkled with a whitish dust, which easily comes off. In some years their necks are seen covered with a red plate, and in others with a black one; these, however, are distinct sorts, and their difference is by no means accidental. The fore-legs are very short, and the better calculated for burrowing in the ground, where this insect makes its retreat. It is well known to children by its evening buzz; but still it is more formidably introduced to the acquaintance of husbandmen and gardeners, for in some seasons it has been found to swarm in such numbers as to eat up every vegetable production.

Two sexes in the May-bug are easily distinguished from each other, by the superior length of the tufts at the end of the horns in the male. They begin to copulate in summer, and at that season they are seen joined together for a considerable time. The female, being impregnated, quickly falls to boring a hole in the ground in which to deposit her burthen. This is generally about half a foot deep, and in it she places her eggs, which are of an oblong shape, with great regularity one by the other. They are of a bright yellow colour, and no way wrapped up in a common covering as some have imagined. When the female is lightened of her burthen she again ascends from her hole, to live as before upon leaves and vegetables, to buzz in the summer evening, and to lie hid among the branches of trees in the heat of the day.

In about three months after these eggs have been thus deposited in the earth the contained insect begins to break its shell, and a small grub or maggot crawls forth, and feeds upon the roots of whatever vegetable it happens to be nearest. All substances of this kind seem equally grateful, yet it is probable the mother insect has a choice among what kind of vegetables she shall deposit her young. In this manner these voracious creatures continue in the worm state for more than three years, devouring the roots of every plant they approach, and making their way under-ground in quest of food with great dispatch and facility. At length they grow to above the size of a walnut, being a great, thick, white maggot with a red head, which is seen most frequently in new-turned earth, and which is so eagerly sought after by birds of every species. When largest, they are found an inch and a half long, of a whitish-yellow colour, with a body consisting of twelve segments or joints, on each side of which there are nine breathing holes and three red feet. The head is large in proportion to the body, of a redish colour, with a pincer before and a semi-circular lip, with which it cuts the roots of plants and sucks out their moisture. As this insect lives entirely under-ground it has no occasion for eyes, and accordingly it is found to have none; but it is furnished with two feelers, which, like the crutch of a blind man, serves it to direct its motions. Such is the form of this animal, that lives for years in the worm state under-ground, still voracious, and every year changing its skin.

It is not till the end of the fourth year that this extraordinary insect prepares to emerge from its subterraneous abode, and even this is not effected but by a tedious preparation. About the latter end of autumn

the grub begins to perceive the approaches of its transformation; it then buries itself deeper and deeper in the earth, sometimes six feet beneath the surface, and there forms itself a capacious apartment, the walls of which it renders smooth and shining by the excretions of its body. Its abode being thus formed, it begins soon after to shorten itself, to swell, and to burst its last skin, in order to assume the form of a chrysalis. This, in the beginning, appears of a yellowish colour, which heightens by degrees, till at last it is seen nearly red. Its exterior form plainly discovers all the vestiges of the future winged insect, all the fore-parts being distinctly seen; while behind, the animal seems as if wrapped in swaddling clothes.

The young May-bug continues in this state for about three months longer, and it is not till the beginning of January that the aurelia divests itself of all its impediments, and becomes a winged insect completely formed. Yet still the animal is far from attaining its natural strength, health, and appetite. It undergoes a kind of infant imbecility, and, like most other insects (which the instant they become flies are arrived at their state of full perfection), the May-bug continues feeble and sickly. Its colour is much brighter than in the perfect animal, all its parts are soft, and its voracious nature seems for a while to have entirely forsaken it. As the animal is very often found in this state, it is supposed by those unacquainted with its real history that the old ones of the former season have buried themselves for the winter, in order to revisit the sun the ensuing summer. But the fact is, the old one never survives the season, but dies, like all the other winged tribe of insects, from the severity of cold in winter.

About the latter end of May these insects, after having lived for four years under-ground, burst from the earth when the first mild evening invites them abroad. They are at that time seen rising from their long imprisonment, from living only upon roots and imbibing only the moisture of the earth, to visit the mildness of the summer air, to choose the sweetest vegetables for their banquet, and to drink the dew of the evening. Wherever an attentive observer then walks abroad, he will see them bursting up before him in his pathway like ghosts in a theatre. He will see every part of the earth, that had its surface beaten into hardness, perforated by their egression. When the season is favourable for them they are seen by myriads, buzzing along, hitting against every object that intercepts their flight. The mid-day sun, however, seems too powerful for their constitutions; they then lurk under the leaves and branches of some shady tree; but the willow seems particularly their most favourite food; they lurk in clusters, and seldom quit the tree till they have devoured all its verdure. In those seasons which are favourable to their propagation they are seen in the evening as thick as flakes of snow, and hitting against every object with a sort of capricious blindness. Their duration, however, is but short, as they never survive the season. They begin to join shortly after they have been let loose from their prison, and when the female is impregnated she cautiously bores a hole in the ground with an instrument fitted for that purpose, which she is furnished with at the tail, and there deposits her eggs, generally to the number of three score. If the season and the soil be adapted to their propagation, these soon multiply as already described, and go through the noxious stages of their contemptible existence. This insect, however, in its worm state, though prejudicial to man, makes one of the chief repasts of the feathered tribe, and is generally the first nourishment with which they supply their young. Rooks and hogs are particularly fond of these worms, and devour them in great numbers. The inhabitants of the county of Norfolk some time since commenced destroying their rookeries; but in proportion as they destroyed one plague they were pestered with a greater;

and these insects multiplied in such an amazing abundance as to destroy not only the verdure of the fields, but even the roots of vegetables not yet shot forth. One farm in particular was so injured by them in the year 1751, that the occupier was not able to pay his rent, and the landlord was not only content to lose his income for that year, but also gave money for the support of the farmer and his family. In Ireland they suffered so much by these insects, that they came to a resolution of setting fire to a wood of some miles in extent, to prevent their mischievous propagation.

Of all the beetle kind this is the most numerous, and therefore deserves the chief attention of history. The numerous varieties of other kinds might repay the curiosity of the diligent observer, but we must be content in general to observe, that in the great outlines of their history they resemble those of which we have just been giving a description; like them, all other beetles are bred from the egg, which is deposited in the ground, or sometimes, though seldom, in the barks of trees; they change into a worm; they subsist in that state by living upon the roots of vegetables or the succulent parts of the bark round them. They generally live a year at least before they change into an aurelia; in that state they are not entirely motionless, nor entirely swaddled up without form.

It would be tedious and endless to give a description of all, and yet it would be an unpardonable omission not to mention the particularities of some beetles, which are singular rather from their size, their manners, or their formation. That beetle which the Americans call the "tumble-dung" particularly demands our attention; it is all over of a dusky black, rounder than those animals are generally found to be, and so strong, though not much larger than the common black beetle, that if one of them be put under a brass candlestick it will cause it to move backwards and forwards, as if it were by an invisible hand, to the admiration of those who are not accustomed to the sight; but this strength is given it for much more useful purposes than those of exciting human curiosity, for there is no creature more laborious, either in seeking subsistence or in providing a proper retreat for its young. They are endowed with sagacity to discover subsistence by their excellent smelling, which directs them to excrements just fallen from man or beast, on which they instantly drop, and fall unanimously to work in forming round balls or pellets thereof, in the middle of which they lay an egg. These pellets in September they convey three feet deep into the earth, where they lie till the approach of spring, when the eggs are hatched, the nest bursts, and the insects find their way out of the earth. They assist each other with indefatigable industry in rolling these globular pellets to the place where they are to be buried. This they are to perform with the tail foremost, by rising up their hinder part and shoving along the ball with their hind-feet. They are always accompanied with other beetles of a larger size, and of a more elegant structure and colour. The breast of this is covered with a shield of crimson colour, and shining like metal; the head is of the like colour, mixed with green, and on the crown of the head stands a shining black horn, bending backwards. These are called the kings of the beetles—but for what reason is uncertain, since they partake of the same dirty drudgery with the rest.

The elephant-beetle is the largest of this kind hitherto known, and is found in South America, particularly Guiana and Surinam, as well as about the river Oroonoko. It is of a black colour, and the whole body is covered with a very hard shell, full as thick and as strong as that of a small crab. Its length from the hinder part to the eyes is almost four inches, and from the same part to the end of the proboscis or trunk four inches and three quarters. The transverse diameter of the body is two inches and a quarter, and the breadth

of each elytron or case for the wings is an inch and three-tenths. The antennæ or feelers are quite horny; for which reason the proboscis or trunk is moveable at its insertion into the head, and seems to supply the place of feelers. The horns are eight-tenths of an inch long, and terminate in points. The proboscis is an inch and a quarter long, and turns upwards, making a crooked line, terminating in two horns, each of which is near a quarter of an inch long, but they are not perforated at the end like the proboscis of other insects. About four-tenths of an inch above the head, or that side next the body, is a prominence or small horn, which, if the rest of the trunk were away, would cause this part to resemble the horn of a rhinoceros. There is indeed a beetle so called; but then the horns or trunk has no fork at the end, though the lower horn resembles this. The feet are all forked at the end, but not like a lobster's claws.

To this class we may also refer the glow-worm, that little animal which makes such a distinguished figure in the description of our poets. No two insects can differ more than the male and female of this species from each other. The male is in every respect a beetle, having cases to its wings, and rising in the air at pleasure; the female, on the contrary, has none, but is entirely a creeping insect, and is obliged to wait the approaches of her capricious companion. The body of the female has eleven joints, with a shield breast-plate, the shape of which is oval; the head is placed over this, and is very small, and the three last joints of her body are of a yellowish colour; but what distinguishes it from all other animals, at least in this part of the world, is the shining light which it emits by night, and which is supposed by some philosophers to be an emanation which she sends forth to allure the male to her company. Most travellers who have gone through sandy countries must well remember the little shining sparks with which the ditches are studded on each side of the road. If incited by curiosity to approach more nearly, he will find the light sent forth by the glow-worm; if he should keep the little animal for some time, its light continues to grow paler, and at last appears totally extinct. The manner in which this light is produced has hitherto continued inexplicable; it is probable the little animal is supplied with some electrical powers, so that by rubbing the joints of its body against each other it thus supplies a stream of light, which, if it allures the male (as we are told it does), serves for very useful purposes.

The cantharis is of the beetle kind, from whence come cantharides, well known in the shops by the name of Spanish flies, and for their use in blisters. They have feelers like bristles, flexible cases to the wings, a breast pretty plain, and the sides of the belly wrinkled. Cantharides differ from each other in their size, shape, and colour; those used in the shops also do the same. The largest in these parts are about an inch long, and as much in circumference, but others are not above three quarters of an inch. Some are of a pure azure colour, others of pure gold, and others again have a mixture of pure gold and azure colours; but they are all very brilliant and extremely beautiful. These insects, as is well known, are of the greatest benefit to mankind, making a part in many medicines conducive to human preservation. They are chiefly natives of Spain, Italy, and Portugal; but they are to be met with also about Paris in the summer time, upon the leaves of the ash, the poplar, and the rose-tree, and also among wheat and in meadows. It is very certain that these insects are fond of ash-leaves, inasmuch that they will sometimes strip one of these trees quite bare. Some affirm that these flies delight in sweet-smelling herbs; and it is very certain that they are fond of honey-suckles, lilac, and wild cherry-shrubs; but some that have sought after them declare they never could find them on elder-trees,

nut-trees, nor among wheat. We are told that the country people expect the return of these insects every seven years. It is very certain that such a number of these insects have been seen together in the air, that they appeared like swarms of bees; and that they have so disagreeable a smell that it may be distinguished a great way off, especially about sun-set, though they are not seen at that time. This bad smell is a guide for those who make it their business to catch them. When they are caught they dry them, after which they are so light, that fifty will hardly weigh a drachm. Those that gather them tie them in a bag, or a piece of linen cloth that has been well worn, and then they kill them with the vapours of hot vinegar, after which they dry them in the sun, and keep them in boxes. These flies, thus dried, being chymically analysed, yield a great deal of volatile, caustic salt, mixed with a little oil, phlegm, and earth. Cantharides are penetrating, corrosive, and, applied to the skin, raise blisters, from whence proceeds a great deal of serosity. They are made use of both inwardly and outwardly. However, it is somewhat strange that the effects of these flies should fall principally upon the urinary passages; for though some authors have endeavoured to account for this, we are still in the dark, for all they have said amounts to no more than that they affect these parts in a manner which may be very learnedly described, but very obscurely comprehended.

An insect of great, though, perhaps, not equal use in medicine, is that which is known by the name of the kermes; it is produced in the excrescence of an oak, called the berry-bearing ilex, and appears at first wrapt up in a membranous bladder of the size of a pen, smooth and shining, of a brownish red colour, and covered with very fine ash-coloured powder. This bag teems with a number of redish eggs or insects, which being rubbed with the fingers pour out a crimson liquor. It is only met with in warm countries in the months of May and June. In the month of April this insect becomes of the size and shape of a pea, and its eggs some time after burst from the womb, and, soon turning to worms, run about the branches and leaves of the tree. They are of two sexes, and the females have been hitherto described; but the males are very distinct from the former, and are a sort of small flies like gnats, with six feet, of which the four forward are short and the two backward long, divided into four joints, and armed with three crooked nails. There are two feelers on the head, a line and a half long, which are moveable, streaked, and articulated. The tail at the back part of the body is half a line long, and forked. The whole body is covered with two transparent wings, and they leap about in the manner of fleas. The harvest of the kermes is greater or less in proportion to the severity of the winter, and the women gather them before sun-rising, tearing them off with their nails, for fear there should be any loss from the hatching of the insects. They sprinkle them with vinegar, and lay them in the sun to dry, where they acquire a red colour.

An insect, perhaps still more useful than either of the former, is the cochineal, which has been very variously described by authors; some have supposed it a vegetable excrescence from the tree upon which it is found; some have described it as a louse, some as a bug, and some as a beetle. As they appear in our shops when brought from America they are of an irregular shape, convex on one side, and a little concave on the other, but are both marked with transverse streaks or wrinkles. They are of a scarlet colour within, and without of a blackish red, and sometimes of a white, redish, or ash-colour, which are accounted the best, and are brought to us from Mexico. The cochineal insect is of an oval form, of the size of a small pea, with six feet, and a snout or trunk. It brings forth its young alive, and is nourished by sucking the juice of the plant. Its body consists of several

rings, and when it is once fixed on the plant it continues immovable, being subject to no change. Some pretend there are two sorts—the one domestic, which is best, and the other wild, which is of a vivid colour; however, they appear to be the same, only with this difference, that the wild feeds upon uncultivated trees without any assistance, whereas the domestic is carefully at a stated season removed to cultivated trees, where it feeds upon a purer juice. Those who take care of these insects place them on the prickly pear-plant in a certain order, and are very industrious in defending them from other insects; for if any other kind come among them they take care to brush them off with foxes' tails. Towards the end of the year, when the rains and cold weather are coming on, which are fatal to these insects, they take off the leaves or branches covered with cochineal that have not attained their utmost degree of perfection, and keep them in their houses till winter is past. These leaves are very thick and juicy, and supply them with sufficient nourishment while they remain within doors. When the milder weather returns, and these animals are about to exclude their young, the natives make them nests like those of birds, but less, of tree-moss or soft hay, or the down of cocoa-nuts, placing twelve in every nest. These they fix on the thorns of the prickly pear-plant, and in three or four days' time they bring forth their young, which leave their nests in a few days, and creep upon the branches of the plant till they find a proper place to rest in and take in their nourishment, and also until the females are fecundated by the males—which, as in the former tribe, differs very widely, from the females being winged insects, whereas the others only creep, and are at most stationary. When they are impregnated they produce a new offspring, so that the propagator has a new harvest thrice a-year. When the native Americans have gathered the cochineal they put them into holes in the ground, where they kill them with boiling water, and afterwards dry them in the sun or in an oven, or lay them upon hot plates. From the various methods of killing them arise the different colours which they appear in when brought to us. While they are living they seem to be sprinkled over with a white powder, which they lose as soon as the boiling water is poured upon them. Those that are dried upon hot plates are the blackest. What we call the cochineal are only the females, for the males are a sort of fly already observed in the kermes. They are used both for dyeing and medicine, and are said to have much the same virtue as the kermes, though they are now seldom used alone, but are mixed with other things for the sake of the colour.

I shall and this account of the beetle tribe with the history of an animal which cannot properly be ranked under this species, and yet cannot be more methodically ranged under any other. This is the insect that forms and resides in the gall-nut, the spoils of which are converted to such useful purposes. The gall-insects are bred in a sort of bodies adhering to a kind of oak in Asia, which differ with regard to their colour, size, roughness, smoothness, and shape, and which we call galls. They are not fruit, as some have imagined, but preternatural tumours, owing to the wounds given to the buds, leaves, and twigs of the tree by a kind of insect that lays its eggs within them. This animal is furnished with an implement by which the female penetrates into the bark of the tree, or into that spot which just begins to bud, and there sheds a drop of corrosive fluid into the cavity. Having thus formed a receptacle for her eggs, she deposits them in the place and dies soon after. The heart of the bud being thus wounded, the circulation of the nutritive juice is interrupted, and the fermentation thereof, with the poison injected by the fly, burns the parts adjacent, and then alters the natural colour of the plant. The juice or sap, turned back from its natural course, extravasates and flows round the egg. After which it

swells and dilates by the assistance of some bubbles of air, which get admission through the pores of the bark, and which run in the vessels with the sap. The external coat of this excrecence is dried by the air, and grows into a figure which bears some resemblance to the bow of an arch or the roundness of a kernel. This little ball receives its nutriment, growth, and vegetation as the other parts of the tree, by slow degrees, and is what we call the "gall-nut." The worm that is hatched under this spacious vault finds in the substance of the ball, which is as yet very tender, a subsistence suitable to its nature; gnaws and digests it till the time comes for its transformation to a nymph, and from that state of existence changes into a fly. After this the insect, perceiving itself duly provided with all things requisite, disengages itself soon from its confinement, and takes its flight into the open air. The case, however, is not similar with respect to the gall-nut—that grows in autumn. The cold weather frequently comes on before the worm is transformed into a fly, or before the fly can pierce through its enclosure. The nut falls with the leaves, and although you may imagine that the fly which lies within is lost, yet in reality it is not so; on the contrary, its being covered up so close is the means of its preservation. Thus it spends the winter in a warm house, where every crack and cranny of the nut is well stopped up, and lies buried as it were under a heap of leaves, which preserve it from the injuries of the weather. This apartment, however, though so commodious a retreat in winter, is a perfect prison in the spring. The fly, roused out of its lethargy by the first heats, breaks its way through and ranges where it pleases. A very small aperture is sufficient, since at this time the fly is but a diminutive creature. Besides, the ringlets whereof its body is composed dilate and become pliant in the passage.

CHAP. VII.

OF THE GNAT AND THE TIPULA.

There are two insects which entirely resemble each other in their form, and yet widely differ in their habits, manners, and propagation. Those who have seen the tipula, or long-legs, and the larger kind of gnat have most probably mistaken the one for the other; they have often accused the tipula, a harmless insect, of depredations made by the gnat, and the innocent have suffered for the guilty; indeed, the differences in their form are so very minute, that it often requires the assistance of a microscope to distinguish the one from the other: they are both mounted on long legs, both furnished with two wings and a slender body; their heads are large, and they seem to be hump-backed; the chief and only difference, therefore, is, that the tipula wants a trunk, while the gnat has a large one, which it often exerts to very mischievous purposes. The tipula is a harmless, peaceful insect, that offers injury to nothing, the gnat is sanguinary and predaceous, ever seeking out for a place in which to bury its trunk, and pumping up the blood from the animal in large quantities.

The gnat proceeds from a little worm which is usually seen at the bottom of standing waters. The manner in which the insect lays its eggs is particularly curious; after having laid the proper number on the surface of the water it surrounds them with a kind of unctuous matter, which prevents them from sinking, but at the same time fastens them with a thread to the bottom, to prevent their floating away at the mercy of every breeze from a place of warmth, which is proper for their production, to any other where the water may be too cold or the animals its enemies too numerous. Thus the insects in their egg state resemble a buoy, which is fixed

by an anchor. As they come to maturity they sink deeper, and at last, when they leave the eggs as worms they creep at the bottom. They now make themselves lodgments of cement, which they fasten to some solid body at the very bottom of the water—unless by accident they meet with a piece of chalk, which, being of a soft and pliant nature, gives them an opportunity of sinking a retreat for themselves where nothing but the claws of a cray-fish can possibly molest them. The worm afterwards changes its form. It appears with a large head and a tail invested with hair, moistened with an oleaginous liquor, which she makes use of as a cork to sustain her head in the air and her tail in the water, and to transport her from one place to another. When the oil with which her tail is moistened begins to grow dry, she discharges out of her mouth an unctuous humour, which she sheds all over her tail, by virtue whereof she is enabled to transport herself where she pleases without being either wet or any way incommoded by the water. The gnat in her second state is, properly speaking, in the form of a nymph, which is an introduction or entrance into new life. In the first place she livests herself of her second skin; in the next she resigns her eyes, her antennæ, and her tail; in short, she actually seems to expire. However, from the spoils of the amphibious animal a little winged insect cuts the air, whose every part is active to the last degree, and whose whole structure is the just object of our admiration. Its little head is adorned with a plume of feathers, and its whole body invested with scales and hair to secure it from any wet or dust. She makes trial of the activity of her wings by rubbing them either against her body or her broad side-bags, which keep her in an equilibrium. The furbelow, or little border of fine feathers which graces her wings, is very curious, and strikes the eye in the most agreeable manner. There is nothing, however, of great importance to the gnat but her trunk, and that weak implement may justly be deemed one of Nature's master-pieces. It is so very small, that the extremity of it can scarcely be discerned through the best microscope that can be procured. That part which is at first obvious to the eye is nothing but a long scaly sheath under the throat. At near the distance of two-thirds of it there is an aperture through which the insect darts out four stings, and afterwards retracts them. One of which, however sharp and active it may be, is no more than the case in which the other three lie concealed, and run in a long groove. The sides of these stings are sharpened like two-edged swords; they are likewise barbed, and have a vast number of cutting teeth towards the point, which turns up like a hook, and is fine beyond expression. When all these darts are stuck into the flesh of animals, sometimes one after another and sometimes all at once, the blood and humours of the adjacent parts must unavoidably be extravasated; upon which a tumour must consequently ensue, the little orifice whereof is closed up by the compression of the external air. When the gnat, by the point of her case, which she makes use of as a tongue, has tasted any fruit, flesh, or juice that she has found out, if it be a fluid, she sucks it up without playing her darts into it; but in case she finds the least obstruction by any flesh whatever she exerts her strength, and pierces through it if she possibly can. After this she draws back her stings into their sheath, which she applies to the wound in order to extract, as through a reed, the juices which she finds enclosed. This is the instrument with which the gnat performs her work in the summer, for during the winter she has no manner of occasion for it. Then she ceases to eat, and spends all that tedious season either in quarries or in caverns, which she abandons at the return of summer, and flies about in search after some commodious ford or standing water, where she may produce her progeny, which would be soon washed away and lost by the too rapid motion of any

running stream. The little brood are sometimes so numerous that the very water is tinged according to the colour of the species—as green, if they be green, and of a sanguine hue if they be red.

These are circumstances sufficiently extraordinary in the life of this little animal, but it offers something still more curious in the method of its propagation. However similar insects of the gnat kind are in their appearance, yet they differ widely from each other in the manner in which they are brought forth; for some are oviparous, and are produced from eggs; some are viviparous, and come forth in their most perfect form; some are males, and unite with the female; some are females, requiring the impregnation of the male; some are of neither sex, yet still produce young without any copulation whatsoever. This is one of the strangest discoveries in Natural History! A gnat separated from the rest of its kind, and enclosed in a glass vessel, with air sufficient to keep it alive, shall produce young, which also, when separated from each other, shall be the parents of a numerous progeny. Thus, down for five or six generations do these extraordinary animals propagate without the use of copulation, without any congress between the male and the female, but in the manner of vegetables—the young bursting from the body of their parents without any previous impregnation. At the sixth generation, however, their propagation stops; the gnat no longer produces its like from itself alone, but requires the access of the male to give it another succession of fecundity.

The gnat of Europe gives but little uneasiness; it is sometimes heard to hum about our beds at night, and keeps off the approaches of sleep by the apprehension it causes; but it is very different in the ill-peopled regions of America, where the waters stagnate and the climate is warm, and where they are produced in multitudes beyond expression. The whole air is there filled with clouds of these famished insects; and they are found of all sizes, from six inches long to a minuteness that even requires the microscope to have a distinct perception of them. The warmth of the mid-day sun is too powerful for their constitution; but when the evening approaches neither art nor flight can shield the wretched inhabitants from their attacks; though millions are destroyed, still millions more succeed, and produce unceasing torments. The native Indians, who anoint their bodies with oil, and who have from their infancy been used to their depredations find them much less inconvenient than those who are newly arrived from Europe; they sleep in their cottages all over with thousands of the gnat kind upon their bodies, and yet do not seem to have their slumbers interrupted by their cruel devourers. If a candle happens to be lighted in one of those places, a cloud of insects at once light upon the flame and extinguish it; they are therefore obliged to keep their candles in glass lanterns—a miserable expedient to prevent an unceasing calamity.

BOOK V.—CHAP. I.

OF ZOOPHYTES IN GENERAL.

We now come to the last link in the chain of Animated Nature—to a class of beings so confined in their powers, and so defective in their formation, that some historians have been at a loss whether to consider them as a superior rank of vegetables, or the humblest order of the animated tribe. In order, therefore, to give them a denomination agreeable to their existence, they have been called zoophytes—a name implying vegetable nature endued with animal life; and indeed, in some the marks of the animal are so few that it is difficult to give their place in Nature with precision, or to tell

whether it is a plant or an insect that is the object of our consideration.

Should it be asked what it is that constitutes the difference between animal and vegetable life, what it is that lays the line that separates those two great kingdoms from each other, it would be difficult—perhaps we should find it impossible—to return an answer. The power of motion cannot form this distinction, since some vegetables are possessed of motion, and many animals are totally without it. The sensitive plant has obviously a greater variety of motion than the oyster or the pholas. The animal that fills the acorn-shell is immovable, and can only close its lid to defend itself from external injury; while the flower which goes by the name of the fly-trap seems to close upon the flies that light upon it, and that attempt to rifle it of its honey. The animal in this instance seems to have scarce a power of self-defence: the vegetable not only guards its possessions, but seizes upon the robber that would venture to invade them. In like manner, the methods of propagation give no superiority to the lower rank of animals. On the contrary, vegetables are frequently produced more conformably to the higher ranks of the creation; and though some plants are produced by cuttings from others, yet the general manner of propagation is from seeds laid in the womb of the earth, where they are hatched into the similitude of the parent plant or flower. But a most numerous tribe of animals have lately been discovered which are propagated by cuttings, and this in so extraordinary a manner, that, though the original insect be divided into a thousand parts, each, however small, shall be formed into an animal entirely resembling that which was at first divided; in this respect, therefore, certain races of animals seem to fall beneath vegetables by their more imperfect propagation.

What, therefore, is the distinction between them—or are the orders so intimately blended as that it is impossible to mark the boundaries of each? To me it would seem that all animals are possessed of one power of which vegetables are totally deficient—I mean either the actual ability or an awkward attempt at self-preservation. However vegetables may seem possessed of this important quality, yet it is with them but a mechanical impulse, resembling the raising one end of the lever when you depress the other; the sensitive plant contracts and hangs its leaves indeed when touched, but this motion no way contributes to its safety; the fly-trap flower acts entirely in the same manner; and though it seems to seize the little animal that comes to annoy it, yet in reality it only closes mechanically upon it, and this enclosure neither contributes to its preservation nor its defence. But it is very different with insects, even of the lowest order; the earth-worm not only contracts but hides itself in the earth, and escapes with some share of swiftness from its pursuers. The polypus hides its horns; the star-fish contracts its arms upon the appearance even of distant dangers; they not only hunt for their food but provide for their safety, and however imperfectly they may be formed, yet still they are in reality placed many degrees above the highest vegetable of the earth, and are possessed of many animal functions, as well as those that are more elaborately formed.

But though these be superior to plants, they are very far beneath their animated fellows of existence. In the class of zoophytes we may place all those animals which may be propagated by cuttings, or in other words which, if divided into two or more parts, each part in time becomes a separate and perfect animal; the head shoots forth a tail, and on the contrary, the tail produces a head; some of these will bear dividing but into two parts—such is the earthworm; some may be divided into more than two, and of this kind are many of the star-fish; others still may be cut into a thousand parts, each becoming a perfect animal; they may be turned inside out

like the finger of a glove—they may be moulded into all manner of shapes, yet still their vivacious principle remains, still every single part becomes perfect in its kind, and after a few days' existence exhibits all the arts and industry of its contemptible parent! We shall therefore divide zoophytes according to their several degrees of perfection—namely, into worms, star-fish, and polypi; contenting ourselves with a short review of those nauseous and despicable creatures that excite our curiosity chiefly by their imperfections. It must not be concealed, however, that much has of late been written on this part of natural history. A new mode of animal production could not fail of exciting not only the curiosity but the astonishment of every philosopher; many found their favourite systems totally overthrown by the discovery, and it was not without a wordy struggle that they gave up what had formerly been their pleasure and their pride. At last, however, conviction became too strong for argument; and a question which owed its general spread rather to its novelty than to its importance, was given up in favour of the new discovery.

CHAP. II.

OF WORMS.

The first in the class of zoophytes are animals of the worm kind, which, being entirely destitute of feet, trail themselves along upon the ground, and find themselves a retreat under the earth or in the water. As these, like serpents, have a creeping motion, so both in general go under the common appellation of reptiles—a loathsome, noxious, malignant tribe, to which man by nature as well as by religion has the strongest antipathy. But though worms as well as serpents are mostly without feet, and have been doomed to creep along the earth on their bellies, yet their motions are very different. The serpent, as has been said before, having a back-bone which it is incapable of contracting, bends its body into the form of a bow, and then shoots forward from the tail; but it is very different with the worm, which has a power of contracting or lengthening itself at will. There is a spiral muscle that runs round its whole body from the head to the tail, somewhat resembling a wire wound round a walking-cane, which, when slipped off, and one end extended and held fast, will bring the other nearer to; in this manner the earthworm having shot out or extended its body, takes hold by the alime of the fore part of its body, and so contracts or brings forward the hinder part; in this manner it moves onward, not without great effort, but the occasions for its progressive motion are few.

As it is designed for living under the earth and leading a life of obscurity, so it seems tolerably adapted to its situation. Its body is armed with small, stiff, sharp burrs or prickles, which it can erect or depress at pleasure; under the skin there lies a slimy juice, to be ejected as occasion requires, at certain perforations between the rings of the muscles, to lubricate its body and facilitate its passage into the earth. Like most other insects it has breathing-holes along the back adjoining each ring; but it is without bones, without eyes, without ears, and, properly, without feet. It has a mouth, and also an alimentary canal, which runs along to the very point of the tail. In some worms, however, particularly such as are found in the bodies of animals, this canal opens towards the middle of the belly at some distance from the tail. The intestines of the earthworm are always found filled with a very fine earth, which seems to be the only nourishment these animals are capable of receiving.

The animal is entirely without brain, but near the head is placed the heart, which is seen to beat with a

very distinct motion, and round it are the spermatic vessels, forming a number of globules containing a milky fluid, which have an opening into the belly not far from the head: they are also often found to contain a number of eggs, which are laid in the earth, and are hatched in twelve or fourteen days into life by the genial warmth of their situation; like snails, all these animals unite in themselves both sexes at once—the reptile that impregnates being impregnated in turn: few that walk out but must have observed them, with their heads laid against each other, and so strongly attached that they suffer themselves to be trod upon.

When the eggs are laid in the earth—which in about fourteen days, as has been said, are hatched into maturity—the young ones come forth very small but perfectly formed, and suffer no change during their existence: how long their life continues is not well known, but it certainly holds for more than two or three seasons. During the winter they bury themselves deeper in the earth, and seem in some measure to share the general torpidity of the insect tribe. In spring they revive with the rest of Nature, and on those occasions a moist or dewy evening brings them forth from their retreats for the universal purpose of continuing their kind. They chiefly live in a light, rich, and fertile soil, moistened by dews or accidental showers, but avoid those places where the water is apt to lie on the surface of the earth, or where the clay is too stiff for their easy progression under-ground.

Helpless as they are formed, yet they seem very vigilant in avoiding those animals that chiefly make them their prey, particularly the mole, who feeds entirely upon them beneath the surface, and who seldom ventures, from the dimness of its sight, into the open air; him they avoid by darting up from the earth the instant they feel the ground move; and fishermen, who are well acquainted with this, take them in what numbers they choose by stirring the earth where they expect to find them. They are also driven from their retreats under-ground by pouring bitter or acrid water thereon, such as that water in which green walnuts have been steeped, or a lye made of pot-ashes.

Such is the general outline of the history of these reptiles, which, as it would seem, degrades them no way beneath the rank of other animals of the insect creation; but we now come to a part of their history which proves the imperfection of their organs, from the easiness with which these little machines may be damaged and repaired again. It is well known in mechanics that the finest and most complicated instruments are the most easily put out of order, and the most difficultly set aright; the same also obtains in the animal machine. Man, the most complicated machine of all others, whose nerves are more numerous and powers of action more various, is most easily destroyed: he is seen to die under wounds which a quadruped or a bird could easily survive; and as we descend gradually to the lower ranks, the ruder the composition the more difficult it is to disarrange it. Some animals live without their limbs, and often are seen to reproduce them; some are seen to live without their brain for many weeks together; caterpillars continue to increase and grow large though all the nobler organs are entirely destroyed within; some animals continue to exist though cut in two, their nobler parts preserving life, while the others perish that were cut away; but the earth-worm and all the zoophyte tribe continue to live in separate parts, and one animal by the means of cutting is divided into two distinct existences, sometimes into a thousand!

There is no phenomenon in all Natural History more astonishing than this, that man, at pleasure, should have a kind of creative power, and out of one life make two, each completely formed, with all its apparatus and functions—each with its perceptions and powers of motion and self-preservation, each as complete in all

respects as that from which it derived its existence, and equally enjoying the humble gratifications of its nature.

When Des Cartes first started the opinion that brutes were machines the discovery of this surprising propagation was unknown, which might in some measure have strengthened his fanciful theory. What is life in brutes, he might have said, or where does it reside? In some we find it so diffused, that every part seems to maintain a vivacious principle, and the same animal seems possessed of a thousand distinct irrational souls at the same time. But let us not, he would say, give so noble a name to such contemptible powers, but rank the vivifying principle in these with the sap that rises in vegetables, or the moisture that contracts a cord, or the heat that puts water into motion! Nothing, in fact, deserves the name of soul but that which reasons, that which understands, and, by knowing God, receives the mark of its currency, and is minted with the impression of its great Creator!

Such might have been the speculations of this philosopher. However, to leave theory, it will be sufficient to say that we owe the first discovery of this power of reproduction in animals to Mr. Trembley, who first observed it in the polypus; and after him, Spalanzani and others found it taking place in the earth-worm, the sea-worm, and several other ill-formed animals of a like kind, which were susceptible of this new mode of propagation. This last philosopher has tried several experiments upon the earth-worm, many of which succeeded according to his expectation; every earth-worm, however, did not retain the vivacious principle with the same obstinacy; some when cut in two were entirely destroyed; others survived only the nobler part; and while the head was living the tail entirely perished, and a new one was seen to emerge from the extremity. But what was most surprising of all, in some, particularly in the small red-headed earth-worm, both extremities survived the operation; the head produced a tail with the anus, the intestines, the annular muscles, and the prickly beards; the tail part, on the other hand, was seen to shoot forth the nobler organs, and in less than the space of three months sent forth a head and a heart, with all the apparatus and instruments of generation. This part, as may easily be supposed, was produced much more slowly than the former—a new head taking above three or four months for its completion, a new tail being shot forth in less than as many weeks. Thus two animals by dissection were made out of one, each with their separate appetites, each endued with life and motion, and seemingly as perfect as that single animal from whence they derived their origin.

What was performed upon the earth-worm was found to obtain also in many other of the vermicular species. The sea-worm, the white water-worm, and many of those little worms with feelers found at the bottom of dirty ditches—in all these the nobler organs are of such little use, that if taken away the animal does not seem to feel the want of them; it lives in all its parts and in every part; and by a strange paradox in Nature, the most useless and contemptible life is of all others the most difficult to destroy.

CHAP. III.

OF THE STAR-FISH.

The next order of zoophytes is that of the star-fish—a numerous tribe, shapeless and deformed, assuming at different times different appearances. The same animal that now appears round like a ball shortly after flattens as thin as a plate. All of this kind are formed of a semi-transparent gelatinous substance, covered with a thin membrane, and to an inattentive spectator often ap-

pear like a lump of inanimate jelly, floating at random upon the surface of the sea, or thrown by change on shore at the departure of the tide. But upon a more minute inspection they will be found possessed of life and motion—they will be found to shoot forth their arms in every direction, in order to seize upon such insects as are near, and to devour them with great rapacity. Worms, the spawn of fish, and even muscles themselves, with their hard resisting shell, have been found in the stomachs of these voracious animals; and what is very extraordinary, though the substance of their own bodies be almost as soft as water, yet they are no way injured by swallowing these shells, which are almost of a stony hardness. They increase in size as all other animals do. In summer, when the water of the sea is warmed by the heat of the sun, they float upon the surface, and in the dark they send forth a kind of shining light resembling that of phosphorus. Some have given these animals the name of sea-nettles, because they burn the hands of those that touch them as nettles are found to do. They are often seen fastened to the rocks and to the largest sea-shells, as if to derive their nourishment from them. If they be taken and put into spirit of wine they will continue for many years entire, but if they be left to the influence of the air, they are in less than four and twenty hours melted down into limpid and offensive water.

In all of this species none are found to possess a vent for their excrements, but the same passage by which they devour their food serves for the ejection of their feces. These animals, as was said, take such a variety of figures, that it is impossible to describe them under one determinate shape; but in general their bodies resemble a truncated cone, whose base is applied to the rock to which they are found usually attached. Though generally transparent, yet they are found of different colours—some inclining to green, some to red, some to white, and some to brown. In some their colours appear diffused over the whole surface, in some they are often streaked, and in others often spotted. They are possessed of a very slow progressive motion, and in fine weather they are continually seen stretching out and fishing for their prey. Many of them are possessed of a number of long, slender filaments, in which they entangle any small animals they happen to approach, and thus draw them into their enormous stomachs, which fill the whole cavity of their bodies. The harder shells continue for some weeks undigested, but at length they undergo a kind of maceration in the stomach, and become a part of the substance of the animal itself. The indigestible parts are returned by the same aperture by which they were swallowed, and then the star-fish begins to fish for more. These also may be cut in pieces, and every part will survive the operation—each becoming a perfect animal, endued with its natural rapacity. Of this tribe the number is various, and the description of each would be tedious and uninteresting; the manners and nature of all are nearly as described; but I will just make mention of one creature, which, though not properly belonging to this class, yet is so nearly related, that the passing it in silence would be an unpardonable omission.

Of all other animals the cuttle-fish, though in some respect superior to this tribe, possesses qualities the most extraordinary. It is about two feet long, covered with a very thin skin, and its flesh composed of a gelatinous substance, which, however, within-side is strengthened by a strong bone, of which such great use is made by the goldsmiths. It is possessed of eight arms, which it extends, and which are probably of service to it in fishing for its prey; while in life it is capable of lengthening or contracting these at pleasure, but when dead they contract and lose their rigidity. They feed upon small fish, which they seize with their arms; and they are bred from eggs laid upon the weeds along the sea-shore.

The cuttle-fish is found along many of the coasts of Europe, but is not easily caught, from a contrivance with which they are furnished by Nature; this is a black substance of the colour of ink, which is contained in a bladder generally on the left-side of the belly, and which is ejected in the manner of an excrement from the anus. Whenever, therefore, this fish is pursued, and when it finds a difficulty of escaping, it spurts forth a great quantity of this black liquor, by which the waters are totally darkened, and then it escapes by lying close at the bottom. In this manner the creature finds its safety, and men find ample cause for admiration, from the great variety of stratagems with which creatures are endued for their peculiar preservation.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE POLYPUS.

Those animals which we have described in the last chapter are variously denominated. They have been called the star-fish, sea-nettles, and sea-polypi. This last name has been peculiarly ascribed to them by the ancients, because of the number of feelers or feet of which they are all possessed, and with which they have a slow, progressive motion; but the moderns have given the name of polypus to a reptile that lives in fresh water, by no means so large or observable. These are found at the bottom of the wet ditches, or attached to the under surface of the broad-leaved plants that grow and swim on the waters. The same difference holds between these and the sea-water polypus as between all the productions of the sea and of the land and the ocean. The marine vegetables and animals grow to a monstrous size. The eel, the pike, or the bream of fresh waters is but small; but in the sea they grow to an enormous magnitude. The herbs of the field are at most but a few feet high; those of the sea often shoot forth a stalk of a hundred. It is so between the polypi of both elements. Those of the sea are found from two feet in length to three or four; and Pliny has even described one, the arms of which were no less than thirty feet long. Those in fresh waters, however, are comparatively minute, at their utmost size seldom above three parts of an inch long, and when gathered up into their usual form not above a third even of these dimensions.

It was upon these minute animals that the power of dissection was first tried in multiplying their numbers. They had been long considered as little worthy the attention of observers, and were consigned to that neglect in which thousands of minute species of insects remain to this very day. It is true, indeed, that Reaumur observed, classed, and named them. By contemplating their motions he was enabled distinctly to pronounce on their being of the animal and not of the vegetable kingdom; and then he called them polypi, from their great resemblance to those larger ones that were found in the ocean. Still, however, their properties were neglected and their history unknown.

Mr. Trembley was the person to whom we owe the first discovery of the amazing properties and powers of this little vivacious creature. He divided this class of animals into four different kinds—into those inclining to green, those of a brownish cast, those of a flesh-colour, and those which he calls the "polype de panache." The differences of structure in these as also of colour are observable enough; but the manner of their subsisting, of seizing their prey, and of their propagation, is nearly the same in all.

Whoever has looked with care into the bottom of a ditch when the water is stagnant and the sun has been powerful, may remember to have seen many little transparent lumps of jelly, about the size of a pea, and

flatted on one side; such, also, as have examined the under side of the broad-leaved weeds that grow on the surface of the water must have observed them studded with a number of these little jelly-like substances, which were probably then disregarded, because their nature and history were unknown. These little substances, however, were no other than living polypi gathered up into a quiescent state, and seemingly inanimate, because either undisturbed or not excited by the calls of appetite to action. When they are seen exerting themselves they put on a very different appearance from that when at rest. To conceive a just idea of their figure, we may suppose the finger of a glove cut off at the bottom; we may suppose, also, several threads or horns planted round the edge like a fringe. The hollow of this finger will give us an idea of the stomach of the animal, the threads issuing forth from the edges may be considered as the arms or feelers, with which it hunts for its prey. The animal at its greatest extent is seldom above an inch and a half long, but it is much shorter when it is contracted and at rest; it is furnished neither with muscles nor rings, and its manner of lengthening or contracting itself more resembles that of the snail than worms, or any other insect. The polypus contracts itself more or less in proportion as it is touched, or as the water is agitated in which they are seen. Warmth animates them and cold benumbs them; but it requires a degree of cold approaching congelation before they are reduced to perfect inactivity; those of an inch long have generally their arms double, often thrice as long as their bodies. The arms, where the animal is not disturbed and the season not unfavourable, are thrown about in various directions, in order to seize and entangle its little prey; sometimes three or four of the arms are thus employed, while the rest are contracted like the horns of a snail within the animal's body. It seems capable of giving what length it pleases to these arms; it contracts and extends them at pleasure, and stretches them only in proportion to the remoteness of the object it would seize.

These animals have a progressive motion, which is performed by that power they have of lengthening and contracting themselves at pleasure; they go from one part of the bottom to another; they mount along the margin of the water, and climb up the sides of aquatic plants. They often are seen to come to the surface of the water, where they suspend themselves by the lower end. As they advance but very slowly, they employ a great deal of time in every action, and bind themselves very strongly to whatever body they chance to move upon as they proceed; their adhesion is voluntary, and is probably performed in the manner of a cupping-glass applied to the body.

All animals of this kind have a remarkable attachment to turn towards the light, and this naturally might induce an inquirer to look for their eyes; but however carefully this search has been pursued, and however excellent the microscope with which every part was examined, yet nothing of the appearance of this organ was found over the whole body; and it is most probable that, like several other insects which hunt their prey by their feel, these creatures are unfurnished with advantages which would be totally useless for their support.

In the centre of the arms, as was said before, the mouth is placed, which the animal can open and shut at pleasure, and this serves at once as a passage for food and an opening for it after digestion. The inward part of the animal's body seems to be one great stomach, which is open at both ends; but the purposes which the opening at the bottom serves are hitherto unknown, but certainly it is not for excluding their excrements, for those are ejected at the aperture by which they are taken in. If the surface of the body of this little creature be examined with a microscope, it will be found studded with a number of warts, as also the arms, especially

when they are contracted; and these tubercles, as we shall presently see, answer a very important purpose.

If we examine their way of living, we shall find these insects chiefly subsisting upon others much less than themselves, particularly a kind of millepedes that live in the water, and a very small red worm, which they seize with great avidity. In short, no insect whatsoever less than themselves seems to come amiss to them; their arms, as was said before, serve them as a net would a fisherman, or perhaps, more exactly speaking, as a lime-twig does a fowler. Wherever their prey is perceived, which the animal effects by its feeling, it is sufficient to touch the object it would seize upon, and it is fastened without a power of escaping. The instant one of this insect's long arms is laid upon a millepede, the little insect sticks without possibility of retreating. The greater the distance at which it is touched the greater is the ease with which the polypus brings the prey to its mouth. If the little object be near, though irretrievably caught, it is not without great difficulty that it can be brought up to the mouth and swallowed. When the polypus is unsupplied with prey it testifies its hunger by opening its mouth; the aperture, however, is so small that it cannot be easily perceived; but when, with any of its long arms, it has seized upon its prey, it then opens the mouth distinctly enough, and this opening is always in proportion to the size of the animal which it would swallow; the lips dilate insensibly by small degrees, and adjust themselves precisely to the figure of their prey. Mr. Trembley, who took a pleasure in feeding this useless brood, found that they could devour aliments of every kind, fish and flesh, as well as insects; but he owns they did not thrive so well upon beef and veal as upon the little worms of their own providing. When he gave one of these famished reptiles any substance which was improper to serve for aliment, at first it seized the prey with avidity, but after keeping it some time entangled near the mouth it dropt it again with distinguishing nicety.

When several polypi happen to fall upon the same worm they dispute their common prey with each other. Two of them are often seen seizing the same worm at different ends, and dragging it at opposite directions with great force. It often happens, that while one is swallowing its respective end the other is also employed in the same manner, and thus they continue swallowing each his part until their mouths meet together; they then rest, each for some time in this situation, till the worm breaks between them, and each goes off with his share; but it often happens that a seemingly more dangerous combat ensues when the mouths of both are thus joined upon one common prey together: the largest polypus then gapes and swallows his antagonist; but what is very wonderful, the animal thus swallowed seems to be rather a gainer by the misfortune. After it has lain in the conqueror's body for about an hour, it issues unhurt, and often in possession of the prey which had been the original cause of contention; how happy would it be for men if they had as little to fear from each other!

These reptiles continue eating the whole year, except when the cold approaches to congelation; and then, like most others of the insect tribe, they feel the general torpor of Nature, and all their faculties are for two or three months suspended; but if they abstain at one time they are equally voracious at another, and, like snakes, ants, and other animals that are torpid in winter, the meal of one day suffices them for several months together. In general, however, they devour more largely in proportion to their size, and their growth is quick exactly as they are fed; such as are the best supplied soonest acquire the largest size, but they diminish also in their growth with the same facility if their food be taken away.

Such are the more obvious properties of these little animals, but the most wonderful still remains behind. Their manner of propagation, or rather multiplication,

has for some years been the astonishment of all the learned of Europe. They are produced in as great a variety of manners as every species of vegetable. Some polypi are propagated from eggs, as plants are from their seed; some are produced by buds issuing from their bodies, as plants are produced by inoculation, while all may be multiplied by cuttings, and this to a degree of minuteness that exceeds even philosophical perseverance.

With respect to such of this kind as are hatched from the egg little curious can be added, as it is a method of propagation so common to all the tribes of Insect Nature; but with regard to such as are produced like buds from their parent stem, or like cuttings from an original root, their history requires a more detailed explanation. If a polypus be carefully observed in summer, when these animals are chiefly active and more particularly prepared for propagation, it will be found to possess on different parts of its body several tubercles or little knobs, which grow larger and larger every day; after two or three days' inspection, what at first appeared but a small excrescence takes the figure of a small animal, entirely resembling its parent, furnished with feelers, a mouth, and all the apparatus for seizing and digesting its prey. This little creature every day becomes larger, like the parent, to which it continues attached; it spreads its arms to seize upon whatever insect is proper for aliment, and devours it for its own particular benefit; thus it is possessed of two sources of nourishment—that which it receives from the parent by the tail, and that which it receives from its own industry by the mouth. The food which these animals receive often tinctures the whole body, and upon this occasion the parent is often seen communicating a part of its own fluids to that of its progeny that grows upon it; while, on the contrary, it never receives any tincture from any substance that is caught and swallowed by its young. If the parent swallows a red worm, which gives a tincture to all its fluids, the young one partakes of its parental colour; but if the latter should seize upon the same prey the parent polypus is no way benefited by the capture, but all the advantage remains with the young one.

But we are not to suppose that the parent is capable of producing only one at a time; several young ones are thus seen at once, of different sizes, growing from its body—some just budding forth, others acquiring their perfect form, and others come to sufficient maturity, and just ready to drop from the original stem to which they had been attached for several days. But what is more extraordinary still, those young ones themselves that continue attached to their parent are seen to propagate their own young ones also, each holding the same dependence upon its respective parent, and possessed of the same advantages that have been already described in the first connection. Thus we see a surprising chain of existence continued, and numbers of animals naturally produced without any union of the sexes, or other previous dispositions of Nature.

This seems to be the most natural way by which these insects are multiplied, their production from the egg being not so common; and though some of this kind are found with a little bladder attached to their bodies, which is supposed to be filled with eggs which afterwards come to maturity, yet the artificial method of propagating these animals is much more expeditious and equally certain. It is indifferent whether one of them be cut into ten or ten hundred parts, each becomes as perfect an animal as that which was originally divided; but it must be observed, that the smaller the part which is separated from the rest the longer it will be in coming to maturity or in assuming its perfect form. It would be endless to recount the many experiments that have been tried upon this philosophical prodigy; the animal has been twisted and turned into all manner of shapes; it has been turned inside out, it has been cut in every

division, yet it still continued to move; its parts adapted themselves again to each other, and in a short time it became as voracious and industrious as before.

Besides these kinds mentioned by Mr. Trembley, there are various others which have been lately discovered by the vigilance of succeeding observers, and some of these so strongly resemble a flowering vegetable in their forms that they have been mistaken by many naturalists for such. Mr. Hughes, the author of the *Natural History of Barbadoes*, has described a species of this animal; but he has mistaken its nature, and called it a sensitive flowering plant; he observed it to take refuge in the holes of rocks, and, when undisturbed, to spread forth a number of ramifications, each terminated by a flowery petal, which shrunk at the approach of the hand, and withdrew into the hole from whence before it had been seen to issue. This plant, however, was no other than an animal of the polypus kind, which is not only to be found in Barbadoes, but also on many parts of the coast of Cornwall and along the shores of the continent

CHAP. V.

OF THE LYTTHOPHYTES AND SPONGES.

It is very probable that the animals we see and are acquainted with bear no manner of proportion to those that are concealed from us. Although every leaf and vegetable swarms with animals upon land, yet at sea they are still more abundant; for the greatest part of what would seem vegetables growing there are in fact nothing but the artificial formation of insects, palaces which they have built for their own habitation.

If we examine the bottom of the sea along some shores, and particularly at the mouth of several rivers, we shall find it has the appearance of a forest of trees under water, millions of plants growing in various directions, with their branches entangled in each other, and sometimes standing so thick as to obstruct navigation. The shores of the Persian Gulph, the whole extent of the Red Sea, and the western coasts of America, are so choaked up in many places with these coralline substances, that though ships force a passage through them, boats and swimmers find it impossible to make their way. These aquatic groves are formed of different substances, and assume various appearances. The coral plants, as they are called, sometimes shoot out like trees without leaves in winter; they often spread out a broad surface like a fan, and not uncommonly a large, bundling head like a faggot; sometimes they are found to resemble a plant with leaves and flowers; and often resemble the antlers of a stag with great exactness and regularity. In other parts of the sea are seen sponges of various magnitude and extraordinary appearances, assuming a variety of phantastic forms like large mushrooms, mitres, fonts, and flower-pots. To an attentive spectator these various productions seem entirely of the vegetable kind; they seem to have their leaves and their flowers, and have been experimentally known to shoot out branches in the course of a year. Philosophers, therefore, till of late thought themselves pretty secure in ascribing these productions to the vegetable kingdom; and Count Marsigli, who has written very laboriously and learnedly upon the subject of corals and sponges, has not hesitated to declare his opinion that they were plants of the aquatic kind furnished with flowers and seed, and endued with a vegetation entirely resembling that which is found upon land. This opinion, however, some time after began to be shaken by Rumphius and Jussieu, and at last by the ingenious Mr. Ellis, who by a more sagacious and diligent inquiry into Nature put it past doubt that corals and sponges were entirely the work of animals, and that, like the

honey-comb, which was formed by the bee, the coral was the work of an infinite number of reptiles of the polypus kind, whose united labours were capable of filling whole tracts of the ocean with those embarrassing tokens of their industry.

If in our researches after the nature of these plants we should be induced to break off a branch of the coralline substance and observe it carefully, we shall perceive its whole surface, which is very rugged and irregular, covered with a mucous fluid, and almost in every part studded with little jelly-like drops, which when closely examined will be found to be no other than reptiles of the polypus kind. These have their motions, their arms, and their appetites exactly resembling those described in the last chapter, but they soon expire when taken out of the sea, and our curiosity is at once stopped in its career by the animals ceasing to give any mark of their industry; recourse, therefore, has been had to other expedients, in order to determine the nature of the inhabitant as well as the habitation.

If a coralline plant be strictly observed while still growing in the sea, and the animals upon its surface be not disturbed either by the agitation of the waters or the touch of the observer, the little polypi will then be seen in infinite numbers, each issuing from its cell, and in some kinds the head covered with a little shell resembling an umbrella, the arms spread abroad in order to seize its prey, while the hinder part still remains attached to its habitation, from whence it never wholly removes. By this time it is perceived that the number of inhabitants is infinitely greater than was at first suspected—that they are all assiduously employed in the same pursuits, and that they issue from their respective cells and retire into them at pleasure. Still, however, there are no proofs that those large branches which they inhabit are entirely the construction of such feeble and minute animals. But chymistry will be found to lend a clue to extricate us from our doubts in this particular. Like the shells which are formed by snails, muscles, and oysters, these coralline substances effervesce with acids, and may therefore well be supposed to partake of the same animal nature. But Mr. Ellis went still farther, and examined their operations just as they were beginning. Observing an oyster-bed which had been for some time neglected, he there perceived the first rudiments of a coralline plantation, and tufts of various kinds shooting from different parts of this favourable soil. It was upon these he tried his principal experiments. He took out the oysters which were thus furnished with corallines, and placed them in a large wooden vessel, covering them with sea-water. In about an hour he perceived the animals, which before had been contracted by handling and had shown no signs of life, expanding themselves in every direction, and appearing employed in their own natural manner. Perceiving them, therefore, in this state, his next aim was to preserve them thus expanded, so as to be permanent objects of curiosity. For this purpose he poured by slow degrees an equal quantity of boiling water into the vessel of sea-water in which they were immersed. He then separated each polypus with pincers from its shell, and plunged each separately into small crystal vases filled with spirit of wine mixed with water. By this means the animal was preserved entire without having time to contract itself, and he thus perceived a

variety of kinds almost equal to that variety of productions which these little animals are seen to form. He has been thus able to perceive and describe fifty different kinds, each of which is seen to possess its own peculiar mode of construction, and to form a coralline that none of the rest can imitate. It is true, indeed, that on every coralline substance there are a number of polypi found no way resembling those which are the erectors of the building; these may be called a vagabond race of reptiles, that are only intruders upon the labours of others, and that take possession of habitations which they have neither art nor power to build for themselves. But in general, the same difference that subsists between the honey-comb of the bee and the paper-like cells of the wasp subsists between the different habitations of the coral-making polypi.

With regard to the various forms of these substances, they have obtained different names from the nature of the animal that produced them or the likeness they bear to some well-known object, such as corallines, fungimadrepores, sponges, astroites, and keratophytes. Though these differ extremely in their outward appearances, yet they are all formed in the same manner by reptiles of various kinds and nature. When examined chymically, they all discover the marks of animal formation; the corals, as was said, dissolve in acids—the sponges burn with an odour strongly resembling that of burnt horn. We are left somewhat at a loss with regard to the precise manner in which this multitude of cells, which at last assume the appearance of a plant or flower, are formed.

If we may be led in this subject by analogy, it is most probable that the substance of coral is produced in the same manner that the shell of the snail grows round it; these little reptiles are each possessed of a slimy matter, which covers its body, and this hardening, as in the snail, becomes a habitation exactly fitted to the body of the animal that is to reside in it; several of these habitations, being joined together, form at length a considerable mass; and as most animals are productive in proportion to their minuteness, so these, multiplying in a surprising degree, at length form those extensive forests that cover the bottom of the deep.

Thus all Nature seems replete with life; almost every plant on land has its surface covered with millions of these minute creatures, of whose existence we are certain, but of whose uses we are entirely ignorant; while numbers of what seem plants at sea are not only the receptacles of insects, but also entirely of insect formation. This might have led some late philosophers into an opinion that all Nature was animated, that every, even the most inert, mass of matter was endued with life and sensation, but wanted organs to make those sensations perceptible to the observer; these opinions, taken up at random, are difficultly maintained and as difficultly refuted; like combatants that meet in the dark, each party may deal a thousand blows without ever reaching the adversary. Those, perhaps, are wiser who view Nature as she offers—who, without searching too deeply into the recesses in which she ultimately hides, are contented to take her as she presents herself, and, storing their minds with effects rather than with causes (instead of the embarrassments of systems, about which few agree) are contented with the history of appearances, concerning which all mankind have but one opinion.



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Andes—amazing chasm or fissures in them; the highest mountains in the world; excellent description of them by Ulloa; the Andes are by measure three thousand one hundred and thirty-six toises, or fathoms, above the surface of the sea; at the top no difficulty of breathing perceived, 45.

Animals—hold the first rank amidst the infinitely different productions the earth offers; are endowed with powers of motion and defence, even those fixed to one spot; organised beings provided with some defence for their own security; endued with life and vigour; some by nature violent; have their enmities and affections; ultimately supported upon vegetables; those in a dry sunny climate strong and vigorous; different vegetables appropriated to the different appetites, and why; of domestic kinds, carried from milder countries into the northern climates quickly degenerate and grow less; in the internal parts of South America and Africa grow to a prodigious size, and why; not so in the cold frozen regions of the North; the most perfect races have the least similitude to the vegetable productions on which they are ultimately fed; the meaner the animal the more local; assume different habits as well as appearances, and why; some peculiar to every part of the vegetable system; those that live upon other animals; this wisely so constituted to diminish the number of animals, and increase that of vegetables, the general scope of human industry; of the vast variety very few serviceable to man; in a catalogue of more than twenty thousand land animals scarcely a hundred are any way useful to man; expediency of man's living upon animals as well as vegetables; little more known than that the greater number require the concurrence of a male and female to reproduce their kind; usual distinctions with respect to their manner of generation into oviparous and viviparous kinds; the warmth of the sun or of a stove efficacious in bringing the animal in the egg to perfection; such parts as the animal has double, or without which it can live, are the latest in production; De Graaf has attended the progress and increase of various animals in the womb, and minutely marked the change they undergo; that which, in proportion to its bulk, takes the longest time for production the most complete when finished; of all others man the slowest in coming into life; the most formidable are the least fruitful, and why; those which bring forth many engender before they have arrived at half their natural size; approach more to perfection whose progeny nearly resembles that of man; men and apes the only beings that have eye-lashes upon the upper and lower lids, all others want them on the lower lid; that which has most desires appears capable of the greatest variety of happiness; those of the forest remain without food several weeks; all endure the want of sleep and hunger with less injury to health than man; Nature contracts the stomachs of carnivorous animals of the forest to suit them to their precarious way of living; the meaner tribes are still more capable of sustaining life without food; some lower animals seem to spend the greater part of their lives in sleep; some affected by music; instances; those furnished with hands have more understanding than others; the large animals live longer than the little; difference between animals in a state of nature and domestic tameness so considerable that Mr. Buffon makes it a principal distinction of classes; their teeth fitted to the nature of their food; their legs as well fitted to their respective wants or enjoyments; those who chew the cud have four stomachs; several that with us have four stomachs have but two in Africa; no carnivorous animal except the dog makes a volun-

tary attack but with superiority; the stomach generally proportioned to the nature of the food or the ease with which it is obtained; the size of the intestines proportioned to the nature of the food; few of the wild sort seek their prey in the day-time; in proportion as each carnivorous animal wants strength it uses all the assistance of patience, assiduity, and cunning; some animals carefully avoid their enemies by placing sentinels to warn them of the approach of danger, and know how to punish such as have neglected their post or been unmindful of the common safety; the wild sort subject to few alterations, and in the savage state continue for ages the same in size, shape, and colour; is otherwise when subdued and taken under the protection of man; the tame kind bears no resemblance to its ancestors in the woods; animals feeding only upon grass rendered carnivorous; two instances; Africa ever remarkable for the fierceness of its animals; the smallest multiply the fastest; the larger sort bring few at a time; seldom generate till they be near their full growth; those which bring many reproduce before they arrive at half their natural size; with all animals the time of their pregnancy proportioned to their size; in all kinds the intermediate litters the most fruitful; the first and last generally produce the fewest in number and worst of kind; natural instinct to choose the proper times of copulation; courage of animals to defend their young; instances of it; milk in the carnivorous animals more sparing than in others; choice of situation in bringing forth remarkable in animals; the ass, in a state of tameness, the most gentle and quiet of all animals; of all animals covered with hair the ass the least subject to vermin; the zebra the most beautiful, but the wildest animal in nature; perfectly know their enemies, and how to avoid them; instances of it; best method of classing animals adopted by Ray, Kleiné, and Linnaeus; the author's method of classing them; the carnivorous seek their food in gloomy solitude; they are sharper than the ruminating kind, and why; ruminating animals most harmless and most easily tamed; generally go in herds for their mutual security; live entirely upon vegetables; the meanest of them unite in each other's defence; carnivorous animals have small stomachs and short intestines; ruminating animals naturally more indolent and less artful than the carnivorous kinds, and why; their bowels considered as an elaboratory, with proper vessels in it; Nature enlarges the capacity of their intestines to take in a greater supply; furnishes them with four stomachs; the names of these four stomachs; the intestines of carnivorous animals thin and lean; those of the ruminating sort strong, fleshy, and well covered with fat; man spends the least time in eating; of all ruminating animals the cow-kind deserve the first rank; naturalists give various names to the same, only differing in accidental circumstances; of all, except man, the cow most extensively propagated; greatest variety among cows, none more humble and pliant of disposition; the large kind of the torrid zone very fond of the water; some void their dung when pursued; this arises rather from fear than a desire of defence; the number of the cow kind extended to eight or ten sorts reduced to two; one animal of the cow kind no naturalist has hitherto described, it may be added as a third species; description of it; all the ruminant internally much alike; those that take refuge under the protection of man, in a few generations become indolent and helpless; the sheep, in a domestic state, the most defenceless and inoffensive; a great number and variety about Angora; the inhabitants drive a trade with their hair; the kinds not actually distinguished by the horns, colour, position of the ears, or fineness of the hair; the fat, urine, beak, and even dung of various animals efficacious in some disorders; of all in the world the gazelle has the most beautiful eye; scarce one animal, except the carnivorous, that does not produce concretions in the stomach,

intestines, kidneys, bladder, or in the heart; no naturalists inform us whether that which bears the musk be of the ruminant or of the hog kind; every animal lives about seven or eight times the number of years it continues to grow; of all natives of this climate none have such a beautiful eye as the stag; no two more nearly allied than the stag and the fallow-deer; form distinct families, and never engender together; many that once flourished in the world may now be extinct; of all the deer kind the rein-deer the most extraordinary and most useful; of all, when young, none more prettily playful than the kitten; many in Syria and Persia remarkable for long soft hair; most terrestrial animals are larger, fiercer, and stronger in warm than in cold or temperate climates; those only not afraid singly to make opposition to the lion are the elephant, the rhinoceros, the tiger, and the hippopotamus; of all American the tiger the most formidable and mischievous; the generality have greater agility, greater swiftness, and more formidable arms from Nature than man; their senses, particularly that of smelling, far more perfect; those living upon flesh hunt by nature; all under the influence of man are subject to great variations; many in this country breed between a dog and a fox; all savages that have once tasted human flesh never refrain from pursuing mankind; those of the north in winter are more hairy than those of milder climates, and what the cause; of the arctic climates, have their winter and summer garments, except as far north as Greenland; of the weasel kind, the martin the most pleasing; feeding entirely upon vegetables are inoffensive and timorous; remarkable for speed, except the horse; have the hind-feet longer than the fore; none receive the male when pregnant except the hare; hares the only animals that have hair on the inside of their mouths; few of the wild kind have so many varieties as the squirrel; all are tamed more difficultly in proportion to their cowardice; in all countries, civilised and improved, the lower ranks of animals repressed and degraded; the beaver the only animal that in its fore-parts resembles a quadruped and in its hinder-parts approaches the nature of fishes; a true judgment of their disposition by their looks, and a just conjecture of their internal habits from their external form; the lori of all others the longest in proportion to size; the camel the most temperate of all; the ostrich the most voracious; of all that use their wings and legs in running the ostrich is the swiftest; none has greater courage than the cock, opposed to one of his own species; the presence of man destroys the society of meaner animals, and their instincts also; those longest in the womb are the longest lived, according to Pliny; none harder to be killed than the shark; the snail kinds are hermaphrodites; of all four-footed creatures the frog the best swimmer; the caterpillar the greatest number of enemies; whatever kind, long under the protection of man, lose part of their natural sagacity in providing for themselves; that which fills the acorn-shell is immoveable; a most numerous tribe lately discovered, propagated by cuttings; many entirely without motion; all seem possessed of one power, of which vegetables are totally deficient; certain races of animals fall beneath vegetables by their more imperfect propagation; some live without limbs, and often reproduce them; some live without brain for many weeks together; some increase and grow large, though all their nobler organs are destroyed; some continue to exist though cut in two, their nobler parts preserving life, while the others perish that were cut away; the zoophyte tribe continues to live in separate parts, and one animal by means of cutting is divided into two distinct existences, sometimes into a thousand; the first discovery of the power of reproduction is owing to Mr. Trembley, 126 to 140—212 to 216.

Antiparos—its grotto most remarkable, 21.

Ants—every writer of antiquity describes this insect

as labouring in the summer, and feasting upon the produce during the winter; in France and England they are in a state of torpidity during winter; common ants of Europe; their description; fears not to attack a creature ten times its own magnitude; are divided into males, females, and neutral or working tribe; in what manner distinguished from each other; males and females seem in no way to partake in the common drudgeries of the state; males pursue the females with great assiduity, and force them to compliance; remain coupled for some time; description of the ant-hills in southern parts of Europe, constructed with wonderful contrivance; their food and exusions; their eggs so very small, that upon a black ground they can scarcely be discerned; fond attachment of the working ants to their progeny; the aurelia state, and efforts to get rid of their skin; experiment of Mr. de Geer to this purpose; state of the female after she has done laying not known; the males fly away and are heard of no more; ants of the tropical climates build a hill with great contrivance and regularity; three kinds of African ants; their hills from six to twelve feet high; amazing numbers and regularity of their cells; depredations and adventures; they live under strict regulations; order in which they sally forth; often quit their dwelling in a body, and go in quest of adventures; their sting produces extreme pain; drive the hare from its form; many animals live upon ants in Africa and America, 867 to 871.

Ant-eater, or Ant-bear—description and habits; their arts to catch the ants; manner of defence against enemies; kills the invader, and remains upon him with vindictive desperation, 471, 472.

Apes—have eyelashes upon the upper and lower lids; the only animal possessed of hands and arms; in some of the kinds the resemblance to man so striking, that anatomists are puzzled to find in what part of the human body man's superiority consists; enjoy many advantages in common with men above the lower tribes of nature; the foremost of the kind is the ouran-outang, or wild man of the woods; description of this animal by Dr. Tyson; comparative view of this creature with man; another description by Mr. Buffon; two young ones discovered an astonishing power of imitation; a kind called baris, properly instructed when young, serve as useful domestics; Le Comte's account of an ape in the Straits of Molucca; the long-armed ape an extraordinary and remarkable creature; its description; a native of the East Indies, and found along all the coasts of Coromandel; fling themselves from one rope to another at thirty, forty, and fifty feet distance; instance of amazing nimbleness; in a state of nature they run upon all-fours; certain proofs of it; in the navies of Solomon, among the articles imported from the East are apes and peacocks, 426 to 438.

Arequipa—a celebrated burning mountain in Peru, 31.

Armadilla, or Tatou—generally referred to the tribe of insects or snails; an inhabitant of South America; a harmless creature, furnished with a peculiar covering for its defence; attacked without danger, and liable to persecutions; is of different sizes; in all the animal is partially covered with a coat of mail—a striking curiosity in natural history; has the same method of protecting itself as the hedgehog or pangolin; when attacked rolls itself up in its shell like a ball, and continues so till the danger is over; the Indians take it in this form, lay it close to the fire, and oblige it to unfold; this animal utterly unknown before the discovery of America; does mischief in gardens; bears the cold of our climate without inconvenience; the mole does not burrow swifter than the armadilla; expedients used to force them out; manner of taking them alive; sometimes in snares by the sides of rivers, and low, moist places which they frequent; never found at a distance from their retreats; escapes by rolling itself up, and tumbling down from

rock to rock without danger or inconvenience; its food; scarce any that do not root the ground like a hog; a kind of friendship between them and the rattlesnake; frequently found in the same hole; they all resemble each other as clothed with a shell, yet differ in size and in the division of their shell; the various kinds, 406 to 409.

Asia—aim of the Asiatics to possess many women, and to furnish a seraglio their only ambition; lustre of jewels and splendour of brilliant colours eagerly sought after by all descriptions of men, 147.

Ass—and horse, though nearly alike in form, are distinct kinds, different in natures; with only one of each kind both races would be extinguished; in the state of nature entirely different; wild ass in greater abundance than the wild horse; wild ass and the zebra a different species; countries where the wild ass is found; some run so swift, few coursers can overtake them; caught with traps; taken chiefly for the flesh and skins; entertainment of wild asses in Persia seen by Olearius; the delicacy of its flesh a proverb there; Galen deems it unwholesome; asses originally imported into America by the Spaniards have run wild, and multiplied in such numbers as to be a nuisance; chase of them in the kingdom of Quito; have all the swiftness of horses; declivities and precipices do not retard their career; will not permit a horse to live among them; always feed together; a horse straying where they graze, they fall upon, bite, and kick him till he be dead; their preference to any vegetable is to the plantain; they drink as soberly as they eat, and never dip the nose into the stream; fear to wet their feet, and turn out to avoid the dirty parts of the road; show no ardour but for the female, and often die after covering; scent an owner at a distance, and distinguish him in a crowd; with eyes covered, they will not stir a step; several brought up to perform, and exhibited at a show; suffered to dwindle every generation, and particularly in England; bulk for bulk, an ass stronger than a horse, and surer-footed; less apt to start than the horse; more healthy than the horse; Persians cleave their nostrils to give them more room for breathing; Spaniards alone know the value of the ass; the Spanish jack-ass above fifteen hands high; the ass originally a native of Arabia; warm climates produce the largest and the best; entirely lost among us during the reign of Queen Elizabeth; Holingshed pretends our land yields no asses, yet they were common in England before that time; in Sweden they are a sort of rarity; in Guinea they are larger and more beautiful than the horses of that country; in Persia are too kinds, some sold for forty or fifty pounds; no animal covered with hair less subject to vermin; lives till twenty or twenty-five; sleeps less than the horse, and never lies down for it unless much tired; she-ass crosses fire and water to protect her young; the gimerro bred between the ass and the bull; the size and strength of our asses improved by importation of Spanish jack-asses; destroyed by the South-American bat, called vampyre, 239 to 243.

Atalantis—an island submersed, was as large as Asia Minor and Syria; the fruits of the earth offered without cultivation, 42.

Atmosphere—most disorders incident to mankind, says Bruce, arise from changes in the atmosphere, 654.

Attraction—defined; the sun possessed of the greatest share, 4.

Avosetta, or scooper—a bird found in Italy; now and then comes over into England; its description, and extraordinary shape of its bill, 608.

Aurelia—one of the appearances of the caterpillar; laying it in a warm room hastens the disclosure of the butterfly, and by keeping it in an ice-house retards it; though it bears a different appearance, it contains all the parts of the butterfly in perfect formation; some insects continue under that form not above ten days, some twenty, some several months, others for a year together;

how the butterfly gets rid of that covering; aurelia of the bee different from that of the common caterpillar, 834 to 837.

Aux—a bird bred in the island of St. Kilda, 630 to 633.

B

BABOON—survey of the baboon kind; fierce, malicious, ignorant, and untractable; its description; impelled by a hatred for the males of the human species, and a desire for women; in Siam whole troops will sally forth, plunder the houses of provisions, and endeavour to force the women; manner of robbing an orchard or vineyard at the Cape of Good Hope; the female brings forth one at a time; the young of these animals taught to guard houses, and perform the duty with punctuality; a baboon described by Mr. Buffon; lasciviousness predominant; their food; are not found to breed in our climate; are not carnivorous; their liver, like that of a dog, divided into six lobes; the largest of the kind is the mandril; its description; displeased, it weeps like a child; is a native of the Gold Coast; that called Wanderow chiefly seen in the woods of Ceylon and Malabar; its description; the Maimon of Buffon, by Edwards called the pig-tail, the last of the sort; its description; a native of Sumatra, 432 to 435.

Babyroussa—the Indian hog; its description; travellers call it the hog of Borneo; in what manner it escapes the pursuers; has enormous tusks of fine ivory; less dangerous than the wild boar; the tusks have points directed to the eyes, and sometimes grow into them; these animals, in a body, are seen with the wild boars, with which they are not known to engender; are easily tamed; have a way of reposing different from other animals of the larger kind, by hitching one of their upper tusks on the branch of a tree, and suffering their whole body to swing down at ease; they are fierce and terrible when offended, and peaceable and harmless when unmolested; their flesh good to be eaten, but said to putrefy in a short time; they chiefly live upon vegetables and the leaves of trees; are found in the island of Borneo, and in other parts of Asia and Africa, 305.

Badger—a solitary, stupid animal; forms a winding hole, and remains in safety at the bottom; the fox takes possession of the hole quitted by the badger, or forces it from the retreat by wiles; surprised by the dogs at a distance from its hole, it fights with desperate resolution; all that has life is its food; it sleeps the greatest part of its time, and though not voracious, keeps fat, particularly in winter; it keeps the hole very clear; the female makes a bed of hay for her young; brings forth in summer three or four young; how she feeds them; the young are easily tamed; the old are savage and incorrigible; are fond of fire, and often burn themselves dangerously; are subject to the mange, and have a gland under the tail, which scents strongly; its flesh rank and ill tasted, 468, 469.

Balearic crane—its description; the real crane of Pliny; comes from the coast of Africa and the Cape de Verd islands; has been described by the name of sea-peacock; foreign birds of the crane kind described—the jabiru, the jubiru-guacu, the anibima, and the buffoon bird, 598, 599.

Baltimore bird, or oriole—description, 573, 574.

Banks—of a river, after inundations, appear above water, when all the adjacent valley is overflowed, and why, 63.

Barometer—serviceable in measuring the height of mountains; measures the weight of the air; in what manner; no changes in the air without sensible alteration in the barometer; when it marks a peculiar lightness in the air, no wonder that it foretells a storm, and why, 47, 94, &c.

Bat—bats as big as rabbits; by some reckoned among birds; doubtful among naturalists whether beast or

bird; now universally take place among quadrupeds; description of the common sort in England; its intestines and skeleton in some measure resemble those of mankind; is seen to skim along the surface of waters; feeds upon gnats, moths, &c.; its flight laborious and irregular, striking against an object, it falls to the ground; is usually hanging by its hooked claws to the roofs of caves, unaffected by all changes of weather; couples and brings forth in summer from two to five young at a time; the female has two nipples forward on the breast as in the human kind; the female makes no nest for her young; less similitude to the race of birds than of quadrupeds; its petty thefts upon the fat of bacon; long-eared bat; horse-shoe bat; rhinoceros-bat; a large class of bats in the East and West Indies is truly formidable; the Negroes of the African coast will not eat them though starving; on the African coast they fly in such numbers as to obscure the setting sun; the roussette, or great bat of Madagascar, is found along the coasts of Africa and Malabar, where it is often seen about the size of a large hen; destroys the ripe fruits, and sometimes settles upon animals, and man himself; destroys fowls and domestic animals, unless preserved with the utmost care; the ancients have taken their ideas of harpies from these fierce creatures; the bat called the American vampyre; its description by Ulloa; purport of his account confirmed by various travellers; one of the great pests of South America; found in holes deserted by the woodpecker, 409 to 413.

Bears—in cold, frozen regions of the North not smaller than in milder countries; the North American Indians anoint their skins with fat of bears: the bears now and then make depredations upon the rein-deer; in Greenland do not change colour; three different kinds; the black of America does not reject animal food, as believed; places where they are found; retreat of the brown bear; a vulgar error that during winter the brown bear lives by sucking its paws; the male and female do not inhabit the same den, and seldom are seen together but upon the access of genial desire; care of the female for her young; the bear, when tamed, seems gentle and placid, yet still to be distrusted and managed with caution, being often treacherous and resentful without a cause; is capable of a degree of instruction; when come to maturity can never be tamed; methods of taking them; their paws and hams a great delicacy; the white, placed in the coldest climates, grows larger than in the temperate zones, and remains master of the icy mountains in Spitzbergen and Greenland; unable to retreat when attacked with fire-arms; they make a fierce and long resistance; they live upon fish and seals; their flesh is too strong for food; are often seen on ice-floats several leagues at sea, though bad swimmers; the white sometimes jumps into a Greenland's boat, and, if he does not overset it, sits down calmly, and like a passenger suffers itself to be rowed along; hunger makes it swim after fish; often a battle ensues between a bear and a morse or a whale, and the latter generally proves victorious, 466 to 468.

Beaver—known to build like an architect and rule like a citizen; manner of catching them in snares or by surprise; their works damaged by force of waters or feet of huntsmen instantly repaired, 416 to 420.

Bed—of a river, an increase of water there increases its rapidity, except in cases of inundation, and why; such bed left dry for some hours by a violent storm blowing directly against the stream, 68.

Bee—a ruminating insect, or seemingly so; its stomach composed of muscular fibres; operations studied for two thousand years are still incompletely known; Reaumur's account sufficiently wonderful; many of the facts held dubious by those conversant with the subject; some declared not to have existence in nature; three different kinds of bees; common working bees neither male nor female; queen-bees lay all the eggs

that are hatched in a season; structure of the working-bee, particularly of its trunk, which extracts the honey from flowers; manner of building their cells; in one day they make cells upon each other enough to contain three thousand bees; description of these cells; the combs made by insensible degrees; the cells for the young and for the drones; that for the queen-bee the largest of all, those for honey are deeper than the rest; that not the only food upon which they subsist; manner of anticipating the progress of vegetation; the bee has a stomach for wax as well as for honey; bee-bread; treacle for food of bees in winter; what part of the flower has the honey; sting of the bee; they all owe their origin to one parent—the queen-bee; opening the body of a queen, the eggs at one time found to amount to five thousand; the queen easily distinguished from the rest; great fertility of the queen, and the great attentions paid to her; they leave a cell to every egg and destroy the rest; great care and affection for the young; dreadful battles often ensue between the young brood and the progenitors; signs previous to their migrations; sometimes sacrifice their queen, but never when the hive is full of wax and honey; the working sort kill the drones in the worn state in the cell, and eject their bodies from the hive among the general carnage; upwards of forty thousand bees found in one hive; instance of expedition in working; a hive sending out several swarms in the year, the first always the best and most numerous; a kind of floating bee-house used in France; in Guadeloupe are less by half than in Europe, and have no sting; sometimes there are two or three queens to a swarm; then the weaker deserted for the more powerful protector; the deserted queen does not survive the defeat; is destroyed by the jealous rival; and till this be done the bees never go out to work; at Guadeloupe their cells are in hollow trees, sometimes with a sort of waxen house shaped like a pear, in which they lodge their honey and lay their eggs; their honey never congeals, is fluid as oil, and has the colour of amber; in the tropical climates are black bees without a sting; their wax is soft, and only used for medicinal purposes, not being hard enough for candles as in Europe; whether the humble-bees have a queen or not there is one much larger than the rest, without wings, without hair, all over black, like polished ebony; this views all the works from time to time; their habits; the honey gathered by the humble-bees neither so fine, so good, nor the wax so clear or so capable of fusion as those of the common bees, 852 to 861.

Beetles—a ruminating insect, or seems to ruminant; their general characteristics; their kinds distinguished from each other; description of the dorr-beetle or May-bug; how the two sexes in the May-bug are distinguished from each other; season of their coupling; in what manner it assumes the form of a chrysalis; time when it becomes winged and completely formed; its habits and food when completely formed; number of their eggs; rooks and hogs particularly fond of them; instances of great devastations made by the May-bug; description and habits of that beetle, which the Americans call the tumble-dung; the insect called the king of the beetles; description of the elephant-beetle, 871 to 878.

Birds—all produced from the egg; their lower eye-lid alone has motion; have the neck longer than any other kinds of animals; have a power of discharging food to feed their young; ruminating birds; many kinds which the dog will not touch; hunters often informed by the birds of the place of the retreat of the fox: surpass fishes and insects in the structure of body and in sagacity; their anatomy and conformation; are furnished with a gland behind containing a proper quantity of oil, to what purpose; description of their feathers; the pectoral muscles of quadrupeds trilling to those of birds; choose to rise against the wind, and why; their sight exceeds most other animals, and excels in strength and

precision; have no external ear standing out from the head; the feathers encompassing the ear-holes supply the defect of the exterior ear; their readiness in learning tunes or repeating words, and the exactness of their pronunciation; their delicacy in the sense of smelling; instance of it in ducks; the tail guides their flight like a rudder, and assists them either in the ascent or descent; wonderful internal conformation; whence some derive that low and various modulation in warbling not easily accounted for: birds have much louder voices in respect to their bulk than animals of other kinds; all have properly but one stomach, but different in different kinds; the organs of digestion in a manner reversed in birds; why they pick up sand, gravel, and other hard substances; most have two appendices or blind-guts; all birds want a bladder for urine; their urine differs from that of other animals; effects of the annual moulting which birds suffer; their moulting time artificially accelerated, and how; the manner in which Nature performs the operation of moulting; many live with fidelity together for a length of time; the male of wild birds as happy in the young brood as the female; nothing exceeds their patience while hatching; Addison's observation to this purpose; great care and industry in providing subsistence for their young; the young taught the art to provide for their subsistence; those hatched and sent out earliest in the season the most strong and vigorous; efforts for a progeny when their nests are robbed; the greatest number remain in the districts where they have been bred, and are excited to migration only by fear, climate, or hunger; cause of the annual emigrations; in what order performed; follow the weather rather than the country, and go on as they perceive the atmosphere more suitable to their wants and dispositions; in all countries longer-lived than quadrupeds or insects of the same climate; surprising age of swans and geese; plumage and voice of birds in different zones; all less than quadrupeds; the greatest of one class surpass the greatness of the other in magnitude; causes of the great variety in the middle order of birds; the ostrich the greatest of birds—the humming-bird the smallest; wild birds generally of the same magnitude and shape; inferior to quadrupeds in docility; the number already known above eight hundred; difference between land-birds and water-fowls; description of birds of the rapacious kind; the pie kind; the poultry kind; the sparrow kind; the duck kind; the crane kind; the cormorant the best fisher; the nauseous bird, or dodo; powers of land-birds of the rapacious kind to obtain their food; sight of such as prey by day surprisingly quick; such as ravage by night have their sight fitted to see in darkness with precision; inhabit the most lonely places and desert mountains; appearing in cultivated plains or the warbling groves is for depredation; every order of carnivorous birds seek for those approaching the size of their own; the carnivorous kinds only breed annually; breed but few at a time; where supplies of food are difficult the old ones soon drive the brood from the nest to shift for themselves; almost all birds of prey unsociable; most usually prowl alone; birds with crooked beaks and talons are solitary; all males of prey are less and weaker than females; five kinds of land-birds of a rapacious nature; whence their distinctive mark; bird of heaven—name given by the ancients to the eagle; the digestion of such as live upon mice, lizards, or the like food not very perfect; Kiroher set the voice of birds to music; domestic birds of the poultry kind maintained in our yards of foreign extraction; the wilder species, cooped or caged, pine away, grow gloomy, and some refuse all sustenance; of all birds the cock the oldest companion of mankind, and the first reclaimed from the forest; the Persian bird of Aristophanes; description of the tamis or the bird of Numidia; the bustard the largest land-bird, native of Britain; God's bird, the bird of paradise; the pigeon

for its size has the largest crop; paroquette the most beautiful in plumage, and the most talkative birds in nature; small birds mark out a territory to themselves, which they permit none of their own species to remain in; at some seasons of the year all small birds migrate from one country to another, or from more inland provinces towards the shore; months of their migrations; autumn the principal season for catching these wanderers; the nets and the method of catching them; flur birds; singing among birds universally the prerogative of the male; small birds fight till one yields his life with the victory; two male birds strive in song till the loudest silences the other; the nests of small birds warmer than of larger; worms and insects the first food of all birds of the sparrow kind; how birds of the sparrow kind bring forth and hatch their young; manner of life during the rigours of winter; a mixed species between a goldfinch and a canary bird, between a linnet and a lark; these breed frequently together; many plants propagated from the depositions of birds; many of those kinds which are of passage in England permanent in other countries, and some with us constant residents, in other kingdoms have the nature of birds of passage; the heron commits the greatest devastation in fresh waters; the flamingo has the largest tongue; birds of various sorts and sizes seen in the rock of the Bass and in the Frith of Forth; none make a more indifferent figure upon land or a more beautiful one in the water than the swan; of all birds known it is the longest in the shell; proof that birds have their manners rather from Nature than education, 477 to 646.

Bird of paradise—described, 552 to 554.

Bird-catchers—sport and method of taking small birds, 566.

Bison and Urus—names and descendants of one common stock; error of the naturalists upon this point; description of the bison; supposed by Klein and Buffon no more than the bœnasus; the breed found in all the southern parts of the world; the respect for them in India degenerated into adoration; the bison of Malabar, Abyssinia, Madagascar, Arabia, Asia, Africa, and America; the bison and the cow breed among each other; the grunting and Siberian cow and the little African cow or zebu different races of the bison, 251.

Bittern, or mire-drum—the solemnity of its evening-call cannot be described by words; they are calls to courtship or of connubial felicity; it differs from the heron in colour; its windpipe fitted for the sound, 602 to 604.

Bivalve shell-fish—all the kinds hermaphrodite, yet require no assistance towards impregnation; particularly in these shell fish the pearls are found, 736 to 742.

Blackbird—of the sparrow kind; description, 571.

Black-cap—bird of the sparrow kind; prized by some for its singing, also called the mock nightingale, 579, &c.

Blacks—conjectural opinion that the blacks are a race of people bred from one man accidentally black; the climate a cause obvious and sufficient to produce blackness; nothing satisfactory discovered upon the cause of producing it in human complexions; black parents have procreated two white Negroes, 189 to 192.

Boar, wild—varies not his colour as dogs of the domestic kind; description; ploughs the ground like a furrow; his tusks seen almost a foot long; they differ from those of the elephant in that they never fall; when the boars come to a state of maturity they dread no single creature; their position when attacked; the manner of hunting them; when killed, the testicles cut off to prevent their tainting the flesh, 299.

Bones—in the embryo almost as soft as the muscles and flesh; hard as the bones seem, the blood holds its current through them as through other parts of the body; in old age more solid, also more brittle, and why; fossil bones found on the banks of the Ohio, in Peru, and Brazil, 183, &c.

Bucks—capable of propagating at the age of one year; one buck sufficient for a hundred and fifty goats; becomes old before his seventh year; hunting the buck and the stag performed in the same manner in England; number of names invented by hunters for this animal; does not change his layer like the stag; manner of hunting him much the same as that of stag-hunting, 275, &c.

Buffalo—of the varieties of the cow kind; only two are really distinct—the cow and the buffalo; they bear an antipathy to each other; they do not breed among each other, and no animals are more distinct; in abundance in Guinea and Malabar; it is a great swimmer; description of it; the veal of the young is not better eating than the beef of the old; they are natives of the warmer climates, yet are bred in several parts of Europe, particularly in Italy; the female produces one at a time; continues pregnant for twelve months; is afraid of fire; leather made of its hide is well known for thickness, softness, and impenetrability; guided by a ring thrust through the nose; milk of the female not so good as of the cow; two buffaloes yoked draw more than four strong horses; its flesh hard and blackish, disagreeable to taste and smell; this animal wild in many parts of India, and dangerous; manner of hunting them; when tamed no animal more patient or humble; inferior in size only to the elephant, the rhinoceros, or hippopotamus; the cameleopard, or camel, if taller, neither so long nor so corpulent; is fond of the water, and crosses the largest rivers without difficulty; has an aversion to red colours that resemble flame; in those countries where they are in plenty no person dresses in scarlet; they make most use of their feet in combat, and rather tread their enemies to death than gore them, 254.

Bug—their habits; described; are often found coupling tail to tail; manner of destroying them; they destroy fleas, and devour each other, 808, 809.

Bustard—is much larger than the turkey, the male generally weighing from twenty-five to twenty-seven pounds; its description; places where frequently seen in flocks of fifty or more; its food; they change their mates at the season of incubation, about the latter end of summer; in parts of Switzerland they are found frozen in the fields in severe weather; when taken to a warm place they again recover; usually live fifteen years, and are incapable of being propagated in a domestic state, 535, 536.

Butcher-bird—its description, with its habits; leads a life of continual combat; intrepidity of these little creatures in going to war with the pie, the crow, and the kestrel, all above four times bigger than itself; sometimes the combat ends with the destruction of the assailant and also of the defender; the most redoubtable birds of prey respect them, and they fly in their company without fearing their power or avoiding their resentment; small birds its usual food; the smaller red butcher-bird migrates; the places where they are to be found; their nests, and the number of their eggs; different kinds of this bird, 517 to 519.

Butterfly—one of the principal ornaments of oriental poetry; in those countries the insect is larger and more beautiful than with us; easily distinguished from flies of every kind by their wings; Linnæus has reckoned up above seven hundred and sixty different kinds, yet the catalogue is incomplete; number and beautiful colours of its wings; description of the head, corselet, and body; the eyes have not all the same form; the outward coat has a lustre, in which may be discovered all the colours of the rainbow; when examined closely it has the appearance of a multiplying-glass; the use of their horns and feelers are yet unknown; use of their trunks; difference between butterflies and moths; it has no organs for smelling; the female is larger than the male; if disturbed while united the female flies off with the male on her back; after junction they deposit their eggs and die; all females of this tribe are impregnated

by the male by one aperture, and lay their eggs by another; how they keep their eggs warm, and also entirely concealed; many of them do not lay till the winter warns them of their approaching end; some continue the whole winter in hollows of trees, and do not provide for posterity until the beginning of April, 842 to 847.

Buzzard—a sluggish inactive bird; often remains perched whole days upon the same bough; lives more upon frogs, mice, and insects than upon birds more troublesome to seize; its manner of living in summer; so little capable of instruction, that it is a proverb to call one obstinately ignorant a buzzard; the honey-buzzard, the moor-buzzard, and the hen-harrier are of this stupid tribe, and differ chiefly in their size, 517.

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CACHALOT—a fish said to pursue a shoal of herrings, and to swallow thousands at a gulp; has generally gone under the name of the spermaceti whale till Mr. Pennant made the distinction, borrowing its name from the French; seven distinctions in this tribe; description; the throat of this animal very formidable; with ease it could swallow an ox; it terrifies the dolphins and porpoises so much as often to drive them on shore; it contains two precious drugs—spermaceti and ambergris; the oil of this fish is easily convertible into spermaceti by boiling it with a ley of pot-ash, and hardening it in the manner of soap; candles are now made of it; the balls of ambergris not found in all fishes of this kind, but chiefly in the oldest and strongest, 667, 668.

Camel—camel and dromedary not two distinct kinds, only a variety of the same, which has subsisted time immemorial; the only sensible difference between these two races; they produce with each other, and the mixed breed is considered the best; of the two the dromedary is far the most numerous; countries where the camel and dromedary are found; neither can subsist or propagate in the climates towards the north; Arabia the most adapted to the support and production of this animal; the camel the most temperate of all animals; it can continue to travel several days without drinking, and is often six or seven days without any sustenance; its feet formed to travel upon sand, and utterly unfit for moist or marshy places; many vain efforts tried to propagate the camel in Spain; they have been transported to America, but have multiplied in neither; uses to which this animal is put among the Arabians; its education; it has a fifth stomach, has a reservoir, to hold a greater quantity of water than immediately wanted; when the camel finds itself pressed with thirst it throws up a quantity of this water by a simple contraction of the muscles into the other stomachs; travellers when straightened for water often kill their camels for what they expect to find within them; countries where commerce is carried on by means of camels; journeys in caravans; their food; pursue their way when their guides are utterly astray; its patience and docility when loaded; in what manner the female receives the male; one male left to wait on ten females, the rest castrated; they live from forty to fifty years; every part of this animal converted to some useful purpose; its very excrements are not useless; their burthen, 460 to 463.

Cameleon—its dimensions and appetites; has a power of driving the air it breathes over every part of the body; changes of its colour; it is an error that it assumes the colour of the object it approaches; description of it by Le Bruyn; it often moves one eye when the other is at rest; sometimes one eye seems to look directly forward while the other looks backward, and one looks upward while the other regards the earth, 768 to 771.

Camel-leopard—described; dimensions of a young one; inhabits the deserts of Africa; no animal from its disposition or formation less fitted for a state of hostility; it lives entirely upon vegetables, and when

grazing spreads its fore-legs forward to reach the pasture; known to the ancients, but seldom seen in Europe; often tame at Grand Cairo, in Egypt; Pompey exhibited at one time ten upon the stage, 459, 460.

Canary-bird—taught to pick up the letters of the alphabet at the word of command, to spell any person's name in company; by the name, originally from the Canary Islands; comes to us from Germany, where they are bred in numbers; at what period brought into Europe is not known; about a century ago they were sold at very high prices, and kept only for the amusement of the great; in its native islands it is of a dusky-grey colour, and so different from those seen in Europe, as to raise a doubt about its species; rules and instructions for breeding them in a domestic state; apparatus for breeding in Germany; food the old ones must be supplied with when the young ones are excluded; so prolific are these birds sometimes, that the female will be ready to hatch a second brood before the first is able to quit the nest; this bird kept in company with the linnet or goldfinch pairs and produces a mixed breed, most like the canary-bird, and resembling it in its song, 583 to 585.

Cancerous—breasts cured by the sucking of the rubeth or land-toad, 754.

Cantharides—well known in the shops by the name of Spanish-flies, and for their use in blisters; their description, with the differences from each other; the countries where and trees on which they are seen; their bad smell is a guide for those who catch them; they smell so disagreeable as to be perceived at a great distance; they yield a deal of volatile caustic salt; their qualities; the effects fall principally upon the urinary passages; in what manner they are killed, 875.

Cape de Verde Islands—a south wind prevails in them during the month of July, 107.

Cape of Good Hope—a north-west wind blows there during the month of September; at the Cape of Good Hope it is customary to hunt the elephant for its teeth; in what manner; account of an unhappy huntsman, 107, 454, &c.

Capibara, or Cabiai—an animal resembling a hog of about two years old; its description; some naturalists have called it the water-hog, and why; a native of South America, and chiefly frequenting the borders of lakes and rivers; its cry resembles the braying of an ass more than the grunting of a hog, and why; its only place of safety is the water, into which it plunges when pursued, and keeps so long at the bottom that the hunter can have no hope of taking it there; when young is easily tamed; its flesh has a fishy taste, but its head is said to be excellent, 304.

Capons—taught to clutch a fresh brood of chickens throughout the year, 527.

Carnivorous animals—there is one class that pursue in a pack, and encourage each other by their mutual cries; support a state of famine for several weeks together; milk in those animals is more sparing than in others, 307 to 352.

Carp—an experiment made with this fish in a large vase of water under an air pump; one found by Buffon not less than a hundred years old, 653.

Carriers—pigeons used to carry letters, 663.

Carriion-crow—resemble the raven in its appetites, its saying, and manner of bringing up its young, 544.

Cartilaginous fishes—their general conformation; supposed they grow larger every day till they die; their internal structure; are possessed of a two-fold power of breathing; apertures by which they breathe; the cartilaginous shark or ray lives some hours after it is taken; fishes of this tribe can remain under water without taking breath, and can venture their heads above the deep, and continue for hours out of their native element; their season and manner of copulating and of bringing forth; little difference between the

viviparous and the oviparous kinds in this class of fishes; five divisions of the cartilaginous fish, 670 to 682.

Cassowary—a bird first brought into Europe by the Dutch from Java, in the East Indies, where only it is found; its description; the part which most distinguishes this animal is the head, which inspires some degree of terror; its internal parts described; it has the head of a warrior, the eye of a lion, the defence of a porcupine, and the swiftness of a courser; is not fierce in its natural character; how it defends itself; extraordinary manner of going; the Dutch assert that it can devour glass, iron, and stones, and even live and burning coals, without the smallest fear or the least injury; the largest of its eggs is fifteen inches round one way and twelve the other; places where the animal is found; it has not multiplied in any considerable degree, as a king of Java made a present of one to the captain of a Dutch ship as a rarity, 498 to 500.

Caterpillars—their differences from all other insects; all these animals are hatched from the eggs of butterflies; during winter the greatest number of caterpillars are in an egg state; in the aurelia state they are seemingly deprived of life and motion; some do not make any change at the approach of winter, but choose themselves some retreat, and there remain quite motionless, and as insensible as if actually dead; caterpillars of this kind are found in great numbers together, enclosed in one common web that covers them all; there are some of the kind whose butterflies live all the winter, and where; a single caterpillar eats double its own weight of leaves in a day, and seems no way disordered by the meal; the body of the caterpillar anatomically considered; avidity with which they feed; number of their stigmata, or those holes through which the animal is supposed to breathe; it has eighteen lungs; the experiment of Malpighi to ascertain their use; all caterpillars spin at one time or another; many of them change their skins five or six times in a season, and in what manner; change into an aurelia; their retreats in that state; there are thousands of fishes, birds, and insects that live chiefly upon caterpillars; a single sparrow and its mate destroy above three thousand caterpillars in a week; some of the kind, fitted only to live upon leaves and plants, will eat each other in preference to their vegetable food; the bodies of the larger kinds serve as a nest to various flies that very carefully deposit their eggs in them; number of worms remain within the body of the caterpillar, devouring its entrails without destroying its life; the ichneumon tribe are not the caterpillar's offspring, as supposed, but its murderers, 834 to 847.

Cats—the wild hunt for the squirrel or the mouse; the whole tribe seek their food alone, and never unite for mutual support; except at certain seasons are enemies to each other; all of the cat kind devour nothing but flesh, and starve upon any other provision; their greatest force lies in their claws; the cat goes with young fifty-six days, and seldom brings forth above five or six at a time; the male often devours the kittens; before they are a year old they are fit to engender; the female seeks the male with cries; nor is their copulation performed without great pain, and why; cats hunt the serpents in the Isle of Cyprus; any animal weaker than themselves is to them an indiscriminate object of destruction; the mouse is their favourite game, and they patiently watch a whole day until the mouse appears; the cat of Pharaoh injudiciously called the ichneumon; cats of Constantinople, a name of the genet, and why, 307 to 317.

Cattle—we have the best breed of horned cattle in Europe; the large hornless breed in some parts of England originally from Poland; the Dutch bring great quantities of lean cattle from Denmark to fatten on their own rich grounds; that of the Ukraine becomes fat, and is considered the largest breed of all Europe; in Switzerland these animals grow to a large size; not so in

France; size in Barbary, Ethiopia, Persia, and Tartary; leather-mouthed cattle; liable to be destroyed by the South American bat, or vampyre, 248 to 254.

Caverns—the amazing cavern of Eldenhole in Derbyshire; the dreadful cavern in the country of the Arrian Indians, called the Gulf of Pluto, described by Ælian; cavern of Maestricht—its description; no part of the world has a greater number of artificial caverns than Spain; in general deserted by every race of meaner animals except the bat; the caverns called Oakley-hole, the Devil's-hole, and Penpark-hole in England; the cavern of Antiparos, and its discovery; how natural caverns are formed; two hundred feet as much as the lowest of them is found to sink; one in Africa, near Fez, continually sends forth smoke or flames, 16 to 23.

Cetaceous fishes—the whale and its varieties resemble quadrupeds in their internal structure, and in some of their appetites and affections; they are constrained every two or three minutes to come up to the surface to take breath, as well as to spout out through their nostril that water which they sucked in while gaping for their prey; the senses of these animals superior to those of other fishes; it is most likely that all animals of the kind can hear; they never produce above one young or two at the most; this the female suckles in the manner of quadrupeds, her breasts being placed, as in the human kind, above the navel; distinctive marks of this tribe, 656 to 670.

Chamois—a kind of goat, in the mountains of Dauphiny, Piedmont, Savoy, Switzerland, and Germany; its description; their flesh good to eat; in cases of danger, its hissing noise is heard at a great distance; by smell discovers a man at half a league; admired for the beauty of its eyes; not found in summer except in caverns of rocks, amidst fragments of ice, or under shades of spreading trees; during winter, it sleeps in the thicker forests, and feeds upon shrubs and buds of pine-trees, and scratches up the snow for herbage; manner of hunting it; skin of the chamois when tanned liked for softness and warmth; the leather now called chamois made from the tame goat, sheep, and deer, 265 to 267.

Charles XII—when shot at the siege of Frederickshall, seen to clap his hand on the hilt of his sword, 188.

Charybdis—a gulf; Nicola Pesce jumped into it, continued for three quarters of an hour below, and at last appeared holding a golden cup in one hand, and making his way among the waves with the other; description of this gulf, 91, 92.

Chase—men of every age and nation have made that of the stag a favourite pursuit; in our country it was ever esteemed a principal diversion of the great; these sports reserved by sovereigns for particular amusement, and when; in the reign of William Rufus and Henry the First it was less criminal to destroy a human being than a beast of chase; sacred edifices thrown down to make room for beasts of chase; chase of the stag, as performed in England; terms used by hunters in that chase; the same in Sicily and in China; chase of the fox; cant terms used by the huntsmen; of all varieties that of the ostrich the most laborious, also the most entertaining; description of it, 270 to 288, &c.

Chasms—amazing in the Alps, and still more in the Andes; causes that produce chasms or fissures, 49, 50.

Chevroin, or little Guinea-deer—the least of all cloven-footed quadrupeds, and perhaps the most beautiful; is most delicately shaped; its description; native of India, Guinea, and the warm climates between the tropics; the male in Guinea has horns, but the female is without any; they chiefly abound in Java and Ceylon, 271, 272.

Child—history of the child in the womb; children of Negroes able to walk at two months old, at least to move from one place to another; skin of children newly brought forth is always red, and why; the size of a newborn infant about twenty inches, and its weight twelve pounds; in cold countries continue to be suckled for

four or five years together; child's growth less every year till the time of puberty, when it seems to start up of a sudden; in some countries speak sooner than in others, and why; children of the Italians speak sooner than those of the Germans; various methods pointed out to improve the intellects of children; white children frequently produced from black parents, but never black children from two whites; inherit the accidental deformities of their parents; instances of it; many instances of the child in the womb being marked by the strong affections of the mother; how performed is not known; hard to conceive that the child in the womb should take the print of the father's features, 141 to 146.

Civet—the species distinguished into two kinds; Mr. Buffon calls one the civet, the other the zibet; distinctions between the two kinds; the civet thirty inches long; both civet and zibet considered as varieties of the same animal, as former naturalists have done; the civet resembles the weasel kind, in what; differs from them, in what; the opening of the pouch or bag, the receptacle of the civet; manner of taking the civet from the pouch; although a native of the warmest climates, this animal lives in temperate and even cold countries; kinds of food it likes best; drinks rarely, yet makes urine often, and upon such occasions the male is not less distinguishable from the female; numbers of these animals bred in Holland, and the perfume of Amsterdam reckoned the purest of any; the quantity greater proportionately to the quality and abundance of the food; this perfume so strong that it communicates to all parts of the animal's body; manner of choosing the perfume; the places of considerable traffic in it; civet a more grateful perfume than musk; sold in Holland for fifty shillings an ounce; its eyes shine in the night; sees better in the dark than by day; breeds very fast in climates where heat conduces to propagation; though a wild, fierce animal, never thoroughly familiar; lives by preying on birds and animals it can overcome; its claws feeble and flexible; this perfume quite discontinued in prescription, 365 to 367.

Climates—calamities in those where the air is condensed by cold; cause obvious and sufficient to produce blackness of Negroes; complexions of different countries darken in proportion to the heat of the region; next to human influence, the climate has the strongest effects upon the nature and form of quadrupeds; those excessively hot unfavourable to horses; in general, water-fowls of no particular climate, 99—101, &c.

Clouds—the fore-runners of a terrible hurricane, called by sailors the bull's-eye; dashing against each other produce electrical fire; water evaporates, and, rising, forms clouds; the theory upon it; that of Dr. Hamilton; the author's theory of evaporation; at once pour down their contents and produce a deluge; reflecting back images of things on earth, like mirrors, 101, 111.

Coatimondi—extreme length of its snout; its description; very subject to eat its own tail; its habits, 470, 471.

Cochineal—description of this insect, as in our shops brought from America; difference between the domestic and wild cochineal; precautions used by those who take care of these insects; the propagator has a new harvest thrice a year; various methods of killing them; produces different colours as brought to us; our cochineal is only the females; used both for dyeing and medicine, 876, 877.

Cock—of all birds the cock the oldest companion of man, and first reclaimed from the forest; species of cock from Japan, covered over with hair instead of feathers; the western world had the cock from Persia; Aristophane's cock the Persian bird; it was one of the forbidden foods among the ancient Britons; Persia, that first introduced it to us, no longer knows it in its natural form; countries where it is wild; peculiarities in a wild condition; another peculiarity in those of the Indian

woods—their bones, when boiled, as black as ebony; the Athenians had cock matches as we; no animal of greater courage when opposed to one of its own species; in China, India, the Philippine Islands, and all over the East, cock-fighting the sport and amusement of kings and princes; cocks in China as bold as ours, and of more strength with less weight; its great courage proceeds from being the most falacious of all birds; a single cock suffices for a dozen hens; the only animal whose spirits are not abated by indulgence; soon grows old, and in three or four years becomes unfit for the purposes of impregnation; how long cocks live not well ascertained; Aldrovandus makes their age to be ten years; are injured, as Linnæus asserts, by elderberries; the black chiefly found in healthy mountains and pine forests, 525 to 528.

Condor—possesses in a higher degree than the eagle all the qualities that render it formidable to the feathered kind, to beasts, and to man himself; is eighteen feet across the wings extended, according to Acosta, Garcilasso, and Desmarchais; the beak so strong as to pierce the body of a cow—two of them able to devour it; do not abstain from man himself; the Indians believe that they will carry off a deer or a young calf in their talons, as eagles would a hare or a rabbit; that their sight is piercing, and their air terrible; that they seldom frequent the forests, as they require a large space for the display of their wings; they come down to the sea-shore at certain seasons, when their prey fails upon land; feed upon dead fish, and such nutritious substances as are thrown upon the shore; their countenance not so terrible as old writers have represented; those who have seen this animal say the body is as large as that of a sheep; many instances of its carrying away children; circumstantial account of this bird by P. Feuillée, the only traveller who has accurately described it; countries where it is found; in the deserts of Pachomas, where it is chiefly, men seldom venture to travel; its flesh as disagreeable as carrion, 507 to 509.

Cormorant—its description and food; remarkably voracious with a sudden digestion; its form disagreeable; its voice hoarse and croaking; all its qualities obscene; fishes in fresh waters and in the depth of the ocean; builds in cliffs of rocks and in trees; preys in the day-time and by night; once used in England for fishing, and in what manner; how educated in China for the purposes of fishing; the best fisher of all birds; sometimes has caught the fish by the tail; the fins prevent it being swallowed in that position; how it manages the fish in this case; remarkable for the quickness of its sight, 621, 622.

Cows—allured by music; of ruminant animals the cow kind deserves the first rank; meanest peasants in Germany, Poland, and Switzerland kill one cow at least for their own table; salted and hung up, is preserved as a delicacy the year round; cows want the upper fore-teeth; in no part of Europe cows grow so large, yield more milk, or more readily fatten than in England; make no particular distinction in their herbage, indiscriminately devouring the proper quantity; it gives back more than it takes from the soil; the age of the cow known by the teeth and horns; the horns more surely determine the animal's age, and how; while this animal lives the horns lengthen; wants in udder what it has in neck; the larger in dew-lap the smaller the quantity of its milk; the kind to be found in every part of the world; larger in proportion to the richness of the pasture; the breed of the Isle of Man and most parts of Scotland much less than in England, also differently shaped; the breed improved by foreign mixture, adapted to supply the imperfections of our own; such as purely British far inferior in size to those of the continent; the cow, the urus, and the bison animals of the same kind; only two varieties of the kind really distinct—the cow and the buffalo; they bear an antipathy to each other;

scarce a part of the world where the cow kind is not found; the Barbary cow, or zebu; of all animals the cow most extensively propagated; the cow and bison breed among each other; the cow does not breed with the buffalo; no animals more distinct, or have stronger antipathies to each other; the cow goes nine months with young; the description of it; the Greeks compared the eyes of a beautiful woman to those of a cow; it eats two hundred and seventy-six plants, and rejects two hundred and eighteen, 542 to 546.

Crane—bred familiarly in our marshes formerly; not now, and why; general characteristics and habits of birds of the crane kind; their food and flesh; description of the crane; Geener says its feathers in his time were set in gold, and worn as ornaments in caps; description of this bird from ancient writers, who have mixed imagination with history, whence have arisen the fables of supporting their aged parents and fighting with pigmies; the crane a social bird, and seldom seen alone; usual method of flying or sitting in flocks of fifty or sixty together; while part feed the rest keep guard; subsists mostly upon vegetables; known in every country in Europe except our own; are birds of passage; seasons of their migrations, during which they do incredible damage, chiefly in the night; were formerly known and held in great estimation here for the delicacy of their flesh; Plutarch says cranes were blinded, kept in coops, and fattened for the tables of the great in Rome; qualities of its flesh; their note the loudest of all other birds, and often heard in the clouds when the bird itself is unseen; amazing heights to which they ascend when they fly; though unseen themselves, they have distinct vision of every object below; extraordinary length and contortion of its windpipe; use made of their clangorous sound; their depredations usually in the darkest nights; they enter a field of corn and trample it down, as if crossed by a regiment of soldiers; corn their favourite food, scarce any other comes amiss to them; Redi's experiments to this purpose; a little falcon pursues, and often disables it; method used on such occasions by those fond of hawking; easily tamed; Albertus Magnus says it has a particular affection for man; the female distinguished from the male by not being bald behind; never lays above two eggs at a time; the young are soon fit to fly; unfledged, they run with such swiftness that a man cannot easily overtake them; Aldrovandus assures us one was kept tame for above forty years; the vulgar bear the crane a compassionate regard; prejudices in its favour; a heinous offence in some countries to kill a crane; distinctions between the crane and the stork, 591 to 599.

Cricket—a ruminating insect, or seemingly so; difference from the grasshopper; their voice; food; never drink; sound of drums and trumpets make them forsake their situation; the mole-cricket thought to be amphibious; the number of their eggs; a most detested insect by gardeners; its devastations; precautions of the female against the black beetle; their care and assiduity in the preservation of their young, 822 to 829.

Crocodile—extraordinary combat between this animal and the tiger; the ichneumon discovers and destroys its eggs; kills its young, and sometimes entering the mouth of the crocodile when sleeping on the shore effectually destroys it; the eggs it lays in the sand often amount to three or four hundred; the places where they are found, together with their dimensions; description; several examples of taking a man out of a canoe from his companions, notwithstanding all opposition and assistance; terrible even upon land; its depredations; combats between the crocodile and the tiger; in what manner it seizes its prey; how a Negro ventures to attack this animal in its own element; manner of taking it at Siam; often managed like a horse; a curb put into its mouth, and the rider directs it as he likes; manner of taking it along the rivers of Africa; pools of water

where bred as we breed carp in our ponds; in Egypt and other long-peopled countries this animal solitary and fearful; in the river St. Domingo they are most inoffensive; probable opinion its musky substance amassed in glands under the legs and arms; its flesh; the eggs to the savages most delicate morsels; all breed near fresh waters; precautions in laying their eggs; the female having introduced her young to their natural element, she and the male become their most formidable enemies; the open-bellied crocodile, thought viviparous, has a false belly like the opossum for the young to creep out and in as danger or necessity requires; their age; produced to fight at the amphitheatre at Rome, 759 to 765.

Cuckoo—fables invented of this bird now sufficiently refuted; where it resides in winter, or how provides for its supply during that season, still undiscovered; this bird somewhat less than a pigeon, shaped like a magpie, and of a greyish colour, is distinguished from all other by its round prominent nostrils; discovers itself in our country early in the spring by its well-known call; its note heard earlier or later as the season is more or less forward and the weather inviting; from the cheerful voice of this bird the farmer instructed in the real advancement of the year; history and nature of this bird still in great obscurity; its call and invitation to courtship used only by the male, generally perched upon a dead tree or bare bough, repeating his song, which he loses when the genial season is over; his note pleasant though uniform; the female makes no nest; repairs to the nest of some other bird, generally the water-wagtail or the hedge-sparrow, and after devouring the eggs of the owner lays hers in their place; usually lays but one, and this the little foolish bird hatches with great assiduity, and, when excluded, fondly thinks the ill-looking changeling her own; to supply this voracious creature the credulous nurse toils with unwearied labour, not sensible she is feeding up an enemy to her race; the stomach of this bird is enormous, and reaches from the breast-bone to the vent; its food; naturally weak and fearful; the smaller birds form a train of pursuers; the wry-neck, in particular, the most active in the chase; supposed in winter to lie hid in hollow trees, or to pass into warmer climates; story of a cuckoo found in a willow log in winter; probable opinion concerning its residence in winter; Brisson makes not less than twenty-eight sorts of this bird, and talks of one of Brazil, as making a horrible noise in the forests; follows a very different trade from what its nurse endeavoured to teach it; and, according to Pliny, in time destroys its instructor, 554 to 556.

Currents, of rivers—explained by the Italians; side current; back current; sometimes the current at bottom swifter than at top; double current; found to run in all directions; manner in which mariners judge of the setting and rapidity of the current; currents are generally found most violent under the equator; a passage with the current gone in two days, with difficulty performed in six weeks against it; currents do not extend above twenty leagues from the coast; the currents at Sumatra extremely rapid, run from south to north; also strong currents between Madagascar and the Cape of Good Hope; but the most remarkable are those continually flowing into the Mediterranean Sea; current runs one way at top, and the ebb another way at bottom, 62, to 64.

D

DAMPS—of various natures in mines; the fulminating sort, 23 to 27.

Deer—annually shedding horns, and their permanence in the sheep, draws a distinct line between their kinds; the little Guinea deer the smallest of all cloven-footed quadrupeds and most beautiful; its description; the male in Guinea has horns, but the female is without; they abound in Java and Ceylon; all of the deer kind want the gall-bladder; a downy substance like velvet

upon the skin covering the skull of a deer when the old horn is fallen off; their horns grow differently from those of sheep or cows; they are furrowed along the sides, and why; the bran-deer, or brown deer, called by the ancients *tragelaphus*, found in the forests of Germany; the new continent of America produces animals of the deer kind in sufficient plenty; no animals more nearly allied than the stag and fallow-deer, yet they never herd nor engender together, nor form a mixed breed; each form distinct families, and retain an unalterable aversion; the fallow-deer rarely wild in the forests; are in general bred in parks, and their flesh is preferred to that of any other animal; a herd of them divides into two parties, and engages each other with great ardour and obstinacy; both desirous of gaining a favourite spot of the park for pasture, and of driving the vanquished into the more disagreeable parts; manner of their combats; are easily tamed; they seek the female at their second year; their strength, cunning, and courage inferior to those of the stag; in England two varieties of the fallow-deer—one brought from Bengal, the other from Norway; flesh of the French fallow-deer has not the fatness or the flavour of that fed upon English pasture; Spanish and Virginian fallow-deer; deer without horns, their description; the rein-deer the most extraordinary and most useful; native of the icy regions of the North; it answers the purposes of a horse; attempts made to accustom it to a more southern climate, in a few months it declines and dies; answers the purposes of a cow in giving milk, and of the sheep in furnishing warm clothing to the people of Lapland and Greenland; description of the rein-deer; its rutting time and that of shedding its horns; difference between the deer and the stag; not known to the natives of Siberia; Americans call it cariboo; herdsmen of Lapland known to possess a thousand rein-deer in a single herd; it subsists upon moss, and makes the riches of the people of Lapland; female brings forth in May; its milk thinner than that of the cow; sweeter and more nourishing; is of two kinds in Lapland; it draws sledges; can go about thirty miles without halting, and without dangerous effort; generally castrated by the Laplanders; one male left for six females; begin to breed when two years old; go with young eight months, and bring two at a time; fondness of the dam remarkable; live but fifteen or sixteen years; the blood of the rein-deer preserved in small casks, for sauce with the marrow in spring; the horns converted into glue; the sinews make the strongest sewing-thread; the tongues a great delicacy; the intestines, washed like our tripe, in high esteem among the Laplanders; bears make depredations upon the rein-deer; glutton its most dangerous and successful persecutor; the wolf never attacks a rein-deer that is haltered in Lapland, and why, 275, to 298.

Divers—known to descend from twenty to thirty fathom; of all those who have brought information from the bottom of the deep, Nicola Pesce the most celebrated; account of his performances by Kircher; some known to continue three quarters of an hour under water without breathing; they usually die consumptive; manner of fishing for pearls, 91, 92.

Dodo—its description; among birds, as the sloth among quadrupeds, an unresisting animal, equally incapable of flight or defence; native of the Isle of France; the Dutch first discovered and called it the nauseous bird; travellers deem its flesh good and wholesome; it is easily taken; three or four dodos enough to dine a hundred men; whether the dodo be the same bird with that described under the head Nazareth remains uncertain, 500, 501.

Dogs—always running with their noses to the ground, supposed of old the first that felt infection; no other animal of the carnivorous kind will make a voluntary attack but with the odds on their side; the Arabian horses outrun them; in the dog kind the chief power

lies in the under-jaw; in Syria remarkable for the fine glossy length and softness of their hair; in tropical climates lose the delicacy of their scent, and why; the lion, tiger, panther, and ounce, all natural enemies to the dog; dog kind not so solitary as those of the cat; their proper prey are animals unfitted for climbing; they can live for some time upon fruits and vegetables; description of the dog; knows a beggar by his clothes, by his voice, or his gestures, and forbids his approach; all dogs are of one kind—which the original of all the rest, whence such a variety of descendants, is no easy matter to determine; the shepherd's dog the primitive animal of his kind; those wild in America and Congo, as those of Siberia, Lapland, Iceland, and of the Cape of Good Hope, of Madagascar, Madura, Calicut, and Malabar, resemble the shepherd's dog; dogs of Albany, of Greece, of Denmark, and of Ireland larger and stronger than any other; shepherd's dog, transported into temperate climates, and among people entirely civilized, from influence of climate and food alone becomes a matin, a mastiff, or a hound; Turkish dog, great Danish dog, great wolf dog, the little Danish dog; their variety now in England much greater than in the time of Queen Elizabeth: Dr. Caius divides the race into three kinds—the generous, the farm kind, the mongrel; three shepherd's dogs reckoned a match for a bear, and four for a lion; three of them overcame a lion in the time of James the First; the famous poet, Lord Surry, the first who taught dogs to set; the pug-dog; the English bull dog; the lion-dog, originally from Malta; its description; the Molesian dogs of the ancients, according to Mr. Buffon: Epirotic dogs, mentioned by Pliny; Indian dogs mentioned by Elian; his description of a combat between a dog and a lion; dogs bear hunger for a long time; a bitch, forgotten in a country house, lived forty days without any other sustenance than the wool of a quilt she had torn in pieces; the wild hunt in packs; experiments to prove the wolf and the fox not of the same nature with the dog, but of a nature perfectly distinct; by instinct, without education, dogs take care of flocks and herds; show no appetite to enjoy their victory when the wolf is killed, but leaves him where he falls; unsurmountable antipathy between the dog and the jackal; famished dogs more hairy than those whose food has been more plentiful; all kinds pursue the hare by instinct, and follow it more eagerly than other animals; few dogs dare to encounter the otter; some purposely trained to discover the retreat of the otter, 329 to 352.

Dolphin—the name of the opidium, or the gilt-head, 668 to 670.

Dragon-fly, or the libella—described, 817 to 819.

Dromedary—a sort of camel, 460 to 463.

Duck—when ducks are caught, the men keep a piece of turf burning near their mouths, and breathe upon it, lest the fowl smelling them should escape; of the numerous tribes of the duck kind, no more than five breed here; Cato kept his family in health, feeding them with duck, whenever they threatened to be out of order; its eggs often laid under a hen; seems a heedless, inattentive mother; of the tame duck ten different sorts; and of the wild Brisson reckons above twenty; the most obvious distinction between the wild and tame ducks; difference between wild ducks among each other; amazing quantity of ducks sent to supply the markets of London; manner of taking them frequently practised in China, 639 to 643.

Dwarf—in England; as late as the time as James the First the court was furnished with one; he was called Little Jeffrey; Peter of Russia celebrated a marriage of dwarfs; they seem to have faculties resembling those of children; history of a dwarf accurately related by Mr. Daubenton, 201 to 203.

E

EAGLE—the flap of an eagle's wing known to lay a

man dead in an instant; distinctive marks from the other kinds of carnivorous birds; the golden eagle is the largest and noblest of all those birds designated by the name of eagle; its description, considered among birds as the lion among quadrupeds; strong similitude to each other; great patience and much art required to tame an eagle; though taken young, and brought under by long assiduity, yet it is a dangerous domestic, and often turns its force against its master; sometimes has an attachment for its feeder; it is then serviceable and will provide for his pleasure and support; flies the highest of all birds, and from thence by the ancients has been called the bird of heaven; it has also the quickest eye; but its sense of smelling is far inferior to that of the vulture; finds difficulty in rising when down; carries away geese, cranes, hares, lambs, and kids, and often destroys fawns and calves to drink their blood, and carries a part of their flesh to its retreats; infants, when left unattended, have been destroyed by these rapacious creatures; the eagle is peculiarly formidable when bringing up its young; a poor man got a comfortable subsistence for his family during a summer of famine out of an eagle's nest, by robbing the eaglets of food; eagles killed a peasant who had robbed their nests; the nest of the eagle is usually built in the most inaccessible cliff of the rock; description of one found in the Peak of Devonshire; it hatches its eggs for thirty days; very rare to find three eaglets in the same nest; it is believed they live about a hundred years, and that they die from the beaks turning inward upon the under-jaw, and preventing their taking any food; an eagle endured hunger for twenty-one days, without any sustenance whatever; it is dangerous approaching them if not quite tame, and they sometimes send forth a loud, piercing, lamentable cry, which renders them still more formidable; they drink but seldom, and perhaps when at liberty not at all; the bald eagle an inhabitant of North Carolina; breeds in that country all the year round; manner in which the eggs are hatched; characteristics and habits of this animal; its nest is large enough to fill the body of a cart, and commonly full of bones half eaten and putrid flesh, the stench of which is intolerable, 504 to 507.

Earth—its globe a million times less than the sun; placed at a happy distance from the centre, in our solar system; less distant from the sun than Saturn, Jupiter, and Mars, and less parched up than Venus and Mercury, situated too near the violence of its power; the earth, like a chariot-wheel, has a compound motion; its rotundity proved; is rather flattened at the poles, and its form resembles that of a turnip; considered as one scene of extensive desolation; supposed by Buffon a globe of glass; by Whiston a sphere of heated iron; by Kircher one dreadful volcano; by Burnet a great mass of water; composed of little layers or beds, lying horizontally one over the other, like the leaves of a book, 6 to 13—16 to 20.

Earthquakes—frequent through the whole region where a volcano is situated; various kinds of them distinguished by philosophers, and by Mr. Buffon; air the only active operator in them; several opinions upon the cause of them; activity of internal heat alone sufficient to account for every appearance attending earthquakes; twelve cities in Asia Minor swallowed up in one night; extraordinary earthquake related by Pliny; account of that in the year 1695, extending to a circumference of two thousand six hundred leagues; minute description of that in Jamaica in 1692; account of the dreadful shock in Calabria in 1688; concomitant circumstances attending earthquakes, 32 to 39.

Earwig—its habits; reproaches groundless about this animal; its food; general characteristics of the kind; lives in its winged state a few days; dies to all appearance consumptive, 829 to 831.

Eggs—all birds, most fishes, and many of the insect

tribes brought forth from eggs; warmth of the sun or of a stove efficacious in bringing the animal in the egg to perfection; its description; history of the chicken in the egg to its complete formation; quadrupeds brought forth from the egg above two hundred at a time; the ichneumon discovers and destroys the eggs of the crocodile; the crocodile lays in the sand at a time three or four hundred; some eggs only addled by incubation; such birds as undisturbed lay but two or three eggs; when their eggs are stolen, lay ten or twelve; a common hen, moderately fed, lays above a hundred from the beginning of spring to the latter end of autumn; some of the ostrich's eggs weigh above fifteen pounds; inhabitants of Norway prepare from the eggs of the porpoise a kind of caviare or delicate sauce, and good when eaten with bread; manner in which the eggs of fishes are impregnated wholly unknown; doubts whether fish come from the egg completely formed; those of the turtle hatched by the sun, 129 to 140

Elephant—not less remarkable for its size than its docility; its height from seven to fifteen feet; general observations about its conformation; of all quadrupeds the elephant the strongest and largest, yet neither fierce nor formidable; do not personally injure when suffered to feed uninterrupted; molested by man, they seek all occasions to be revenged; where they like best to live in their natural state; cannot live far from water, and always disturb it before they drink; often fill their trunk with water to cool it, or by way of play to spurt it out like a fountain; equally distressed by the extremes of heat and cold; swim from the continent into islands some leagues distant; frequently migrate from one country to another, and why; it likes music, learns to beat time, moves in measure, and joins its voice to the sound of the drum and trumpet; is pleased with the odours that delight man; the orange-flower particularly grateful to its taste and smell; their sense of touching most delicate; description of its trunk; serving all the purposes of a hand; breathes, drinks, and smells through the trunk; Ælian saw an elephant write Latin characters on a board, his keeper only showing him the figure of each letter; an object too large for the trunk to grasp is sucked up by its breath, lifted, and sustained; the trunk its organ of smelling, of touching, of suction, of ornament, and defence; is not a ruminating animal; its stomach and intestines resemble those of a horse; in a state of nature it rarely quits the river, and often stands in water up to the belly; from time immemorial employed for the purpose of labour, of war, to increase the grandeur of Eastern princes, or to extend their dominions; is a native of Africa and Asia; still retains its natural liberty in Africa; the greatest elephants found in Asia; the Eastern princes maintain as many elephants as they are able, and place great confidence on their assistance in an engagement; is taught to kneel down, to receive its rider, usually mounted upon its neck; caresses those it knows, salutes such as ordered to distinguish, and helps to take up part of its load; draws chariots, cannon, or shipping with strength, perseverance, and satisfaction, provided it be not corrected without a cause, and that its master be pleased with its exertions; has been known to die of grief for killing its conductor in a fit of madness; surprising instance of moderation in its fury; a word sufficient to put it in motion; a century or two ago, the Indian generals made great dependence upon the number and the expertness of their elephants; in what manner armed and led to battle; effects of its fury in the field; those placed upon its back in a square tower combat as from an eminence, and fling down their weapons with double force; nothing more dreadful or irresistible than such moving machines to men unacquainted with the modern arts of war; Romans quickly learned the art of opening their ranks to admit the elephant, and, separating it from assistance, compelled its conductors to sooth the animal's fury, and

to submit; sometimes, instead of obeying, turned upon those it was employed to assist; one elephant is known to consume as much as forty men in a day; used in India as executioners, and with what dexterity they perform the horrid task; sometimes they impale the criminal on their enormous tusks; two surprising instances how sensible it is of neglect; the keeper despising its endeavours when launching a ship, the animal redoubled its efforts, fractured its skull, and died upon the spot; revenge one of them took upon a tailor who pricked its trunk with a needle in Delhi; is mindful of benefits; instance of it; it is defeated by the rhinoceros, 445 to 455.

Emu—an inhabitant of the New Continent, called also the American ostrich; description and places where found; runs so swiftly the dogs lose the pursuit; one surrounded by hunters, the dogs avoided its rage; peculiar in hatching its young; the young at first familiar; follow any person; as they grow older become cunning and distrustful; their flesh good to be eaten; they live entirely upon grass, 497, 498.

Ephemera—various kinds of this insect; its description; colours of their aurelias; their transmutations; places were found in abundance; short duration; their impregnation, 831 to 833.

Ermine—its description; alike in figure to the weasel; its fur the most valuable of any; the time in which it is called the stoat; manner of moulting its hair; proof of a distinct species from the pole-cat or the martin; in Siberia, taken in traps baited with flesh, and in Norway shot with blunt arrows, or taken in traps; sometimes found white in Great Britain, and then called the white weasel; its fur among us of no value; preys upon the lemming, 854 to 856.

Eruption—see volcanoes.

Eyes—opened by the infant the moment of its birth; particularly in them the passions are painted; small and nearly closed are liked in China and Japan; different colours of the eye, whence they arise; eyes of oxen are brown; those of sheep of a water-colour; of goats are grey; and those of most white animals are red; distance between the eyes less in man than in any other animal; Montaigne dislikes those men who shut one eye in looking upon any object; the lower eye-lids in women with child drawn downwards; objects at a distance are rarely equal in both eyes; the best eye sees objects largest; whence have arisen the small eyes of the Tartars and Chinese; Eastern poets compare the eyes of their mistresses to those of the gazelle; the Greeks resemble the eyes of a beautiful woman to those of a cow; description of the eyes of birds of the owl kind; in the eyes of all animals a complete provision to shut out too much light, or to admit a sufficiency, by contraction and dilation of the pupil; those of the great Greenland whale not larger than those of an ox; peculiarities in the eyes of the camoleon, 46, &c.

Falcon-gentil—a kind of hawk; it pursues the gazelle; method of training up this bird; falconry, much disused among us, was a principal amusement of our ancestors; the falcon-gentil and the peregrine much less than the gyr-falcon, which exceeds all other in largeness; description of the gyr-falcon; the falcon-gentil moults in March and sooner; the peregrine does not moult till August; the common falcon is of such a spirit that, like a conqueror in a country, he keeps all in awe and subjection to his prowess; the falcon's pursuit of the heron, kite, or the woodlark the most delightful sport; names of the falcons in use here and in other countries; among the Welch, the king's falconer, the fourth officer of the state, was forbid to take more than three draughts of beer from his horn, lest he should neglect his duty, 513 to 517.

Feeling—deprived of feeling, our eyes would misrepresent the situation and the number of all things around us; blind men have this sense finer than others, and why; the grossest and most useful of senses; no total

deprivation of it but with life; those parts most exercised in it acquire the greatest accuracy; the fingers, by habit, greater in the art than others, not from their having more nerves; fishes, having no organs for feeling, must be the most stupid of all animals; feeling the guardian, the judge, and the examiner of all the senses, is never found to deceive, 179 to 184.

Ferret—has eyes of a red colour; not found at present here but in the domestic state; its description; a native of the torrid zone; use of ferrets in warrens to enter the holes muzzled, and drive the rabbits into the nets at the mouth; to bring the ferret from his hole, straw and other substances burnt at the mouth; the female less than the male, whom she seeks with great ardour, and often dies without being admitted; they sleep almost continually, and the instant they awake seem eager for food; are usually fed with bread and milk; breed twice a year; the litter usually from five to six young, and these consist of more females than males; its scent foetid; has attacked and killed children in the cradle; is easily irritated, and then smells more offensively; its bite difficult of cure; has eight grinding teeth; to the ferret kind may be added an animal called by Mr Buffon the vansire; comes originally from Africa, 356, 357.

Fishes—petrified, found in the mountains of Castraván; fish in abundance found in a new-formed island; those who eat of them died shortly after; cannot live in water whence the air is exhausted; showers of fishes raised in the air by tempests; most of them produced from the egg; have no eye-lids; life of a fish but one scene of hostility, violence, and evasion; the causes of animal migrations; all stand in need of air for support; those of the whale kind come to the surface of the sea every two or three minutes to breathe fresh air; experiment of a carp in a large vase of water, placed under an air-pump; general method of explaining respiration in fishes; description and uses of their air-bladder; two methods for determining the age of fishes, more ingenious than certain; a carp found to be a hundred years old; the discovery confirmed by authors; Condamine informs us of a fish with the powers of the torpedo, and resembling a lamprey; lamprey of the English Severn the most delicate fish whatever; amazing propagation along our coasts and rivers not proportionate to the quantities among the islands of the Indian Ocean; places where the spawn is deposited; doubts whether most fish come from the egg completely formed; manner in which the eggs of fishes are impregnated wholly unknown; growth of fishes; instance in the growth of mackerel; some fishes rendered so torpid in the northern rivers as to be frozen up in the masses of ice, and continue there several months, seemingly without life or sensation, waiting the approach of a warmer sun to invite them to life and liberty; each species of fish infested with worms of different kinds; the Philosophical Transactions give an account of poisonous qualities of fish at New Providence; all kinds, at different times, alike dangerous—the same species this day serving as nourishment, the next found fatal; speculations and conjectures to which these poisonous qualities have given rise, 467 to 793.

Flamingo—the most remarkable of the crane kind, the tallest, bulkiest, and most beautiful; its description; chiefly found in America, once known on all the coasts of Europe; in deserted regions the flamingoes live in a state of society, and under a better polity than others of the feathered creation; delicacy of its flesh; places it chiefly inhabits; always appoint one as a watch, who gives notice of danger with a voice shrill as a trumpet; Negroes fond of their company, and think their society a gift of heaven and protection from evils; a Roman emperor had fifteen hundred flamingoes' tongues served up in a dish; their tongue larger than that of any other bird; its flesh; they move in rank like cranes; appear in flight of a bright red as a burning coal; manner of feeding very singular; savages of Canada call it *toocoo*,

and why; time of breeding, and their nests; number of their eggs; colour when young; they become familiar in five or six days, eat out of the hand, and drink seawater; but generally pine away, wanting their natural supplies, and die in a short time; savages make ornaments of their plumes; and the skin sometimes serves the Europeans to make muffs, 605 to 608.

Flea—persecutes the hare; it can draw a chain a hundred times heavier than itself, and eat ten times its own size of provisions in one day; its description; arborescent water-flea, or monoculus, described; Leuwenhoeck has discovered above six thousand facets on the cornea of a flea, 804.

Formica-leo, or lion-ant—its habits; retreat; contrivances for catching other insects; when attaining a certain age changes its form; description when become a large and beautiful fly of the libellula kind, 819 to 822.

Foxes—hunt in packs; their cubs born blind, like those of the dog; the fox lives about twelve or fourteen years; remarkable instance of parental affection of a she-fox; all animals make war upon the fox—even the birds; refuses to engender with the dog; brings forth fewer than the dog, and but once a year; the female goes with young six weeks, and seldom stirs out while pregnant; three varieties of this animal in Great Britain—greyhound fox, mastiff-fox, and cur-fox; round the pole they are all colours; jackal taken for the fox; skin of the black fox most esteemed, a single skin selling for forty or fifty crowns; in Greenland do not change colour at all; taken young are only gentle while cubs, growing older they discover their natural appetites of rapine and cruelty; chase of the fox; their offensive smell often the cause of their death; many animals in this country bred between a dog and a fox; experiments prove neither the wolf nor the fox of the same nature with the dog, each a species perfectly distinct; exactly resembles the wolf and the dog internally; description; eyes obliquely situated like the wolf; often takes possession of the hole quitted by the badger, or forces it from its retreat by art, 345 to 348.

Frog—designedly introduced into Ireland before the Norway rat; the rat put a stop to their increase, and the frog is almost extinct in that kingdom; difference between the frog and the toad in figure and conformation; the frog the best swimmer of all four-footed animals; its description; coupling of the common brown frog; experiments to prove how their impregnation is performed; how the females bring forth eggs; various changes in the eggs after impregnation by the male; their habits and food; differences of sexes not perceivable until their fourth year; do not begin to propagate till that period; live about twelve years; instances of tenaciousness of life; the male only croaks; large water-frog's note as loud as the bellowing of a bull, and heard at three miles' distance; times of their croaking; no weather-glass so true in foretelling changes; adhere to the backs of fishes; dry weather hurtful to frogs, 745 to 751.

Froth-worm—its description, 829 to 831.

G

GALLY-WORM—its difference from the scolopendra, 814, 815.

Gannet—the soland goose, its description; subsists upon fish; places abounding with them; manner of preserving them and their eggs in the island of St. Kilda; twenty-three thousand of this kind of young birds consumed annually there; a bird of passage; its migrations; never comes near the land; where seen, it announces the arrival of herrings; exceeds the cormorant in quickness of sight; method of taking its prey; manner of taking them at sea; number of their eggs; there young counted a great dainty, and sold very dear, 622 to 624.

Gazelles—neither goat nor deer; partake of both natures; they form a distinct kind; their description; of all animals it has the most beautiful eye; Eastern poets compare the eyes of their mistresses to those of the gazelle; Buffon makes but twelve varieties; their names and descriptions; comparing them together, we find but slight distinctions; are inhabitants of the warmer climates; no animals but of the winged kind can overtake them; are pursued by falcons, and this hunting is a principal amusement among the great in the East; also hunted with the ounce; another way of taking them; keep in solitary and inaccessible places; the bubalus more properly one of Africa; the most useful prey for the lion in deserts and forests; the prey of the panther; pursued by the jackal, makes towards houses and towns, 267 to 273.

Genet—its odour more faint than civet; description of this animal; resembles the martin; more easily tamed; Belonius has seen them at Constantinople tame as cats; glands open differently from others of its kind; called the cat of Constantinople; never found in mountains nor dry places; its fur valuable; species not much diffused; countries where it is found; the most beautiful, cleanly, and industrious animal; keeps a house free from mice and rats by its smell, 364, 365.

Gerbua—has four feet, uses only the hinder in running or resting; the swiftest creature in the world; description; countries where found; lives upon vegetables, and burrows like rabbits; its habits, 474 to 477.

Giants—probability of the race affirmed, possibility of their existence denied; Grew's opinion; Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese, first discovered a race of such people towards the extreme coast of South America; assent to the existence of this gigantic race of mankind; travellers confirm it; seen here, have the same defects of understanding as dwarfs; are heavy, phlegmatic, and stupid, 203 to 206.

Glutton—the most dangerous and most successful persecutor of the rein-deer; its manner of killing that animal; belongs to the weasel kind; so called from its voracious appetite; countries where found; called carajou in North America; general description; takes its prey by surprise, and in what manner; darts down from the branches of trees upon the elk or rein-deer, sticks its claws between their shoulders, and remains there firm, eating their necks, and digging to the great blood-vessels that lie on that part; amazing quantity one of these animals can eat at a time; it continues eating and sleeping till its prey, bone and all, be devoured; prefers putrid flesh to that newly killed; called the vulture of quadrupeds; in what manner it makes up by stratagem the defects of nature; the female goes with young four months, and brings forth two or three; the male and female equally resolute in defence of their young; is difficult to be skinned; does not fear man; is a solitary animal, and never in company but with its female; couples in the midst of winter; the flesh not fit to be eaten; the fur has the most beautiful lustre, and preferred to all, except the Siberian fox or the sable, 367 to 369.

Gnats—in Lapland, fill the air like clouds of dust; are chiefly enemies to the rein-deer; remedies used against them; proceed from a little worm, usually seen at the bottom of standing waters; curious manner in which the eggs are laid; implements with which the gnat performs its work in summer; places where it spends the winter; the little brood so numerous that the water is tinged with the colour of the species; some gnats are oviparous, and others viviparous, and come forth in a perfect form; some are males, and unite with the female; some are females, requiring the male; others are of neither sex, and produce young without copulation, 878 to 880.

Goat—goat and sheep propagate together, and may be considered as of one family; the buck-goat produces

with the ewe an animal which in two or three generations returns to the sheep, and retains no marks of its ancient progenitor; delights in climbing precipices; is capricious and vagrant; is not terrified at storms, or incommoded by rain; immoderate cold affects it, and produces a vertigo, to which this animal is subject; in some places they bear twice a year; in warmer climates generally bring forth three, four, and five at once; milk of goats medicinal—not apt to curdle on the stomach; flesh of the goat, properly prepared, ranked by some not inferior to venison; is never so good and so sweet in our climate as mutton; remarkable varieties in this kind; boundaries between the goat and the deer kind difficult to fix; goats eat four hundred and forty-nine plants, and reject a hundred and twenty-six; in Syria, remarkable for their fine, glossy, long, soft hair, 262 to 267.

Goldfinch—bird of the sparrow kind, 567, &c.

Goose—marks of the goose kind; abstained from by the ancients as indigestible; known to live a hundred years; marks of the tame and wild sort; wild supposed to breed in the northern parts of Europe; flight regularly arranged, 633 to 635—637 to 639.

Grampus—fierce and desperate in defence of its young; remarkable instance; description and habits, 698 to 670.

Grasshopper—a ruminating insect, or seemingly so; difference between ours and the cicada of the ancients; great varieties of this animal in shape and colour; description of the little grasshopper, that breeds plentifully in meadows, and continues chirping through the summer; the male of this kind only vocal; how their fecundation is performed; the male or female never survives the winter; their eggs; from first appearing, possessed of wings; how it gets rid of the outer skin; their food; places where they deposit their eggs, 822 to 829.

Grouse—chiefly found in heathy mountains and piny forests, 536 to 538.

Guiba—animal resembling the gazelle; its description, 271.

Guinea-hen—described, 534, 535.

Guinea-pig—by Brisson placed among the rabbit kind; native of the warmer climates; rendered domestic, and now become common every where; its description; in some places a principal favourite; often displacing the lap-dog; manner of living among us; most helpless and inoffensive, scarce possessed of any courage; their animosity exerted against each other, often right obstinately, and the stronger destroy the weaker; no natural instinct; the female sees her young destroyed without attempting to protect them; suffer themselves to be devoured by cats; a very cleanly animal; their place must be regularly cleaned, and a new bed of hay provided for them once a week; the young falling into the dirt, or other ways decomposed, the female takes an aversion to them, and never permits them to visit her more; manner of sleeping; the male and female watch one another by turns; generally capable of coupling at six weeks old; time of their gestation; the female brings forth three to five at a time; suckles her young about twelve or fifteen days, and suffers the young of others, though older, to drain her, to the disadvantage of her own; drink seldom, and make water often; grunt like a young pig; appear to chew the cud, 886 to 888.

Gulls—various ways of imposing upon each other; contests in breeding; residence, with their nests and eggs; their flesh; method of taking them in the Feroe Islands; anciently a law in Norway concerning those who died in taking them, 624 to 628.

H

HARE—the swiftest animal for the time it continues to run; animals of the hare kind inoffensive and timorous; placed by Pyerius among those that chew the cud; has

large prominent eyes placed backwards to see behind as it runs; these never closed—it sleeps with them open; the ears moveable, and capable of direction to every quarter; hinder feet longer than the fore on account of speed; the young brought forth with their eyes open; the rutting season begins in February; are more easily taken than the fox, a much slower animal than they, and why; always choose to run up a hill, and why; have the sole of the foot furnished with hair, and seem the only animals with hair on the inside of the mouth; live seven or eight years, and come to perfection in one year; females live longer; seldom heard to cry, except when seized or wounded; their cry nearly like the squalling of a child; have a good ear, and, being taught to beat the drum, dance to measure, and go through the manual exercise; make themselves a form where the colour of the grass resembles that of their skin, open to the south in winter, and to the north in summer; sore hunted, will start a fresh hare and squat in its form; those in hot countries smaller than ours; those in Milan the best in Europe; scarce a country where not found, from the torrid zone to the polar circle, 369 to 388.

Hawk kind—distinctive marks from other carnivorous birds; in old paintings, the criterion of nobility; no person of rank stirred without his hawk on his hand; this amusement now obsolete in this kingdom, and why; in the reign of Edward III. it was made felony to steal a hawk—to take its eggs was punished by imprisonment for a year and a day, with a fine at the king's pleasure; in the reign of Elizabeth the imprisonment reduced to three months, the offender to lie in prison till he got security for his good behaviour during seven years; distinctive marks of the tribe called the long-winged hawks; their names and description; have attachment to their feeder, and docility the baser race are strangers to; names of hawks of the baser race; those of the generous breed remarkable for courage, swiftness, and docility, in obeying the commands and the signs of their master; account of the manner of training a hawk; falconers had a language peculiar, in which they conversed and wrote, 513, &c.

Hearing—extreme delicacy of this sense in birds; that sense in whales, 174 to 179.

Hedge-hog—the most harmless of animals; its description; usual appearance upon the approach of danger; time of their coupling; sleep during winter, but do not lay up provisions for that season; at no time eat much, and remain a long time without food; their blood cold, and their flesh not good for food; their skins converted to no use, except to muzzle calves from sucking; destroyed and devoured by the fox; in what manner, 399 to 401.

Hen—of the common sort, moderately fed, lays above a hundred eggs from spring to autumn; after three years becomes effete and barren; clutches one brood of chickens in a season; instances of two very rare; her nest made without care; clucking season artificially protracted, and entirely removed, in what manner; left to herself, would seldom lay above twenty eggs without attempting to hatch them; as she lays, her eggs, being removed, she continues to increase the number; in the wild state, seldom lays above fifteen eggs; particularities of incubation; affection and pride after producing chickens; artificial method of hatching chickens in stoves practised at Grand Cairo; common hen supplies the place of the hen-pheasant when refusing to hatch her eggs, and performs the task with perseverance and success, 526, &c.

Heron-hawking—a favourite diversion among our ancestors; had laws enacted for the preservation of the species; he who destroyed their eggs was liable to a penalty of twenty shillings for each offence, 599 to 602.

Hippopotamus—not afraid singly to oppose the lion; its dimensions—places where it resides; its food; swims with much force, and remains at the bottom thirty or

forty minutes; commits dreadful havoc among the plantations; never attacks mariners in their boats, unless inadvertently struck against, or otherwise disturbed, then it would send them at once to the bottom; instances of its great strength, never goes beyond the mouth of fresh-water rivers; attacked on shore, and incapable of vengeance upon a flying enemy, returns to the river, and plunges in headforemost; uncontrolled master of the river, all others fly at its approach, or become an easy prey; moves slowly upon land; seldom goes from the river side, unless pressed by the necessities of hunger, or of bringing forth its young; lives upon fish and vegetables; natives of Africa say it often devours children, and other creatures surprised upon land; the young are excellent eating; the female seldom produces above one at a time; once in plenty at the mouth of the Nile, now wholly unknown in lower Egypt, and nowhere found but above the cataracts, 458, 459.

Hogs—animals of this kind resemble those of the horse as well as the cow kind, and in what; this kind partakes of the rapacious and the peaceful kinds; offends no animal of the forest; remarkable that none of this kind ever shed their teeth; any animal dying in the forest, or so wounded as to make no resistance, is the prey of the hog, who refuses no animal food, however putrid; in a state of wildness, most delicate in the choice of its vegetables, rejects a greater number than any other; indelicacy of this animal more in our apprehensions than its nature, and why; have had mice burrowing in their backs while fattening in the sty, without seeming to perceive it; scent the hounds at a distance; by nature stupid, inactive, and drowsy, has passions more active only when incited by venery, or when the wind blows with vehemence; foresees the approach of bad weather; much agitated on hearing any of its kind in distress; have often gathered round a dog that teased them, and killed him upon the spot; their various diseases; generally live, when permitted, to eighteen or twenty years; the females produce to the age of fifteen; in the wild state less prolific, 198 to 204.

Horses—characteristic marks given by Linnaeus; near as the ape approaches man in external conformation, so the horse is the most remote; wild horses herded together, and feed in droves of five or six hundred; one among their number always stands a centinel; there are but three animals of the horse kind; a horse will not carry upon his back a weight of more than two or three hundred pounds; from what country the horse came originally uncertain; according to the ancients, wild horses in Europe; the colder climates do not agree with them; how wild horses are caught; countries where wild horses are found; the usual manner of trying the swiftness of Arabian horses by hunting the ostrich—a horse of the first speed is able to outrun it; treat their horses gently; hold a discourse with them; written attestations given to persons who buy Arabian horses; they stand stock still in the midst of their career, the rider happening to fall; keep them saddled at their tents from morning to night to prevent surprise; when the Arabians begin to break their horses; how the Arabians dress and feed their horses; the rapidity of the flight of Arabian horses is such that the dogs give up the pursuit; upon computation, the speed of the English horses is one-fourth greater carrying a rider than that of the swiftest barb without one; Numidian race much degenerated; Spanish genet described—those of Andalusia pass for the best, and preferred as war-horses to every other country; Italian horses have a particular aptitude to prance; the horses of India weak and washy; fed with peas, sugar, and butter; one brought to England not much larger than a common mastiff; climates excessively hot seem unfavourable to horses; Tartar horses very serviceable in war; they were properly the conquerors of China; march two or three days without stopping; continue

five or six without eating more than a handful of grass at every eight hours; and remain without drinking four and twenty hours; lose all their strength when brought into China or the Indies; thrive pretty well in Persia and Turkey; Danish horses of such excellent size and strong make that they are preferred to all others for draught: some streaked like a tiger, or mottled like the leopard; Dutch horses are good for draught; islands of the Archipelago have very good horses; those of the Crete were in great reputation among the ancients, at present used in this country itself, because of the unevenness of the ground; English horses excel the Arabian in size and swiftness; are more durable than the barb, and more hardy than the Persian; one instance of their great rapidity, in the admirable Childers, frequently known to move eighty-two feet and a half in a second; fault of our manner of breaking horses; the French managed horse never falls before, but more usually on one side; the English are for speed and despatch—the French and other nations are more for parade and spirit; English hunters considered the noblest and most useful horses in the world; Roger de Belegme the first recorded to have attempted mending our native breed; number of horses in London in the reign of King Stephen said to have amounted to twenty thousand; in the time of Queen Elizabeth the kingdom could not supply two thousand horses to form the cavalry; Powisland, in Wales, for many ages famous for a swift and generous breed of horses, and why; perfections which a horse ought to have, according to Camerarius; a ruminating animal; in a course of years impoverish the ground, 229 to 239.

Hull—had the honour of first attempting that profitable branch of trade, the whale-fishery, 663.

Human race—varieties of, 189 to 199.

Humber—a new island formed at the mouth of this river; it is about nine miles in circumference, and worth to the proprietor about eight hundred a-year, 41.

Humming-bird—is the smallest of birds, and seems nearly allied to the insect; belongs to the sparrow kind; the smallest of them about the size of a hazel-nut; its description; the larger humming-bird is near half as big as the common wren; its description; are seen fluttering about the flowers without ever lighting upon them; their wings in such rapid motion, it is impossible to discern their colours except by their glittering, but only extracting the honey as with a kiss; their nests and the number of eggs; their time of incubation; instance of their docility; countries where found, 599 to 591.

Hunger—every animal endures the want of sleep and hunger with less injury to health than man; hunger kills man sooner than watchfulness; more dreadful in its approaches than continuance; dreadful effects of hunger, related to the author by the captain of a ship, who was one of six that endured it in its extremities; different opinions concerning the cause of hunger; few instances of men dying, except at sea, of absolute hunger; those men whose every day may be considered as a happy escape from famine at last die of a disorder caused by hunger; the number of such as die in London of hunger supposed not less than two thousand in a year; method of palliating hunger among the American Indians; instances of amazing patience in hunger, 162 to 169.

Hyænas—no words give an idea adequate to this animal's figure, deformity, and fierceness; more savage and untameable than any quadruped; its description; defends itself against the lion, is a match for the panther, and attacks the ounce, which it seldom fails to conquer; an obscene and solitary animal; its first howl sometimes mistaken for the voice of a man moaning; its latter like the violent efforts of reaching; whence it first took its name; native of the torrid zone, resides in the caverns of mountains, the clefts of rocks, or dens it has

formed under earth; taken ever so young, it never can be tamed; sometimes attacks man, and carries off cattle; its eyes shine by night, and it is asserted that it sees better by night than by day; scrapes up graves, and devours dead bodies, how putrid soever; absurdities of the ancients about this animal, 350 to 352.

I

JACKALS—hunt in a pack, and encourage each other by mutual cries; what has given rise to the report of its being the lion's provider; travellers have mistaken the jackal for the fox; one of the commonest wild animals in the East, yet scarce any less known in Europe, or less distinctly described by natural historians; its description; its cry a lamentation resembling that of human distress; is more noisy in its pursuits than a dog, more voracious than the wolf; never goes alone, but always in a pack of forty or fifty together; seems little afraid of man; pursues its game to the doors, without apprehension; enters insolently into sheep-folds, yards, and stables, and, finding nothing else, devours leather harnesses, boots, and shoes; scratches up new-made graves, and devours the corpse, how putrid soever; the corpse, how dug up; follows armies, and keeps in the rear of caravans; the most putrid substances it greedily devours; hides in holes by day, and appears abroad at night-fall; hunts by the scent; irreconcilable antipathy between it and the dog; is as stupid as impudent; instances of it; Indian peasants often chase it as we do foxes, 348 to 350.

Ibex—a native of the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the mountains of Greece; its description, 265.

Ichneumon—by some injudiciously denominated the cat of Pharaoh, one of the boldest and most useful animals of the weasel kind; used in Egypt for the same purposes as cats in Europe; description; discovers and destroys the eggs of the crocodile; serpents its most natural food; grows fast and dies soon; easily strangles a cat stronger and larger than itself; countries where found; attacks every living thing it is able to overcome, and fears not the force of the dog nor the claws of the vulture; takes the water like an otter, and will continue under much longer; not able to support the rigour of our winters; this animal one of those formerly worshipped by the Egyptians, 361, 362.

Ichneumon fly—its weapon of defence; flies of this tribe owe their birth to the destruction of some other insect, within whose body they have been deposited, and upon whose vitals they have preyed till they come to maturity; of all others most formidable to insects of various kinds; it makes the body of the caterpillar the place for depositing its eggs; the tribe is not the caterpillar's offspring, as was supposed, but its murderers; description; whence its name; fears not the wasp, and plunders its habitations; various appetites of the various kinds of this fly; the millions of insects this fly kills in summer inconceivable, 866, 867.

Ignana—description of this animal; its flesh the greatest delicacy of Africa and America; its food; in what manner it is taken, 763 to 771.

Insects—in the internal parts of South America and Africa they grow to a prodigious size, and why; those of the minute kind in the northern climates not half so large as in the temperate zone; the ocean has its insects; their feet are placed upon their backs, and almost all without eyes; in some countries almost darken the air, and a candle cannot be lighted without their instantly flying upon it and putting out the flame; many may be multiplied by being cut in pieces; many of the tribes brought forth from the egg; have no eye-lids whatsoever; the general definition of insects; the different classes; general characteristics of insects without wings; of those that have wings; some continue under the form of an aurelia not ten days; some twenty; some several months, and even for a year; general rule, that the female is larger than the male; every insect that lives a

year after its full growth is obliged to pass four or five months without nourishment, and will seem to be dead all that time; description of that which forms and resides in the gall-nut, 793 to 884.

Isatis—an animal very common in all northern countries bordering upon the icy sea, and seldom found in warm climates; description; burrows like the fox, and when with young, the female retires to her kennel in the same manner as the fox; its kennel very narrow, and extremely deep, has many outlets; manner of coupling, time of gestation, and number of young, all similar to what is found in the fox; brings forth at the end of May or the beginning of June; considered as between the dog and the fox; changes its colour, and is at one time brown, at another white; time when it is called the crossed fox, 350.

Islands—new formed, in two ways; thirteen islands in the Mediterranean appearing at once emerging from the water; one new formed in the year 1720 near that of Tercera; formed at the mouths of many rivers, and how; a beautiful and large one formed at the mouth of the river Nanquin, in China, not less than sixty miles long, and about twenty broad, 39 to 41.

K

KERMES—an insect of great use in medicine and dyeing; its description; the difference of the male from the female; the harvest of the kermes greater or less in proportion to the severity of the winter; women gather them before sun-rising, tearing them off with their nails, 873.

King-fisher—a remarkable bird; its description; places it frequents, and how it takes its prey; the plumage a beautiful variety of brilliant colours; instances of oreclutty with respect to this bird; its nest, or rather hole, very different from that described by the ancients; feeds upon fish in that hole; foetid from the remains of fish: the king-fisher is found with from five to nine eggs, which the female continues to hatch: though disturbed and robbed she returns, and lays again: Reaumur's account of this: season for excluding the brood: the male, faithful beyond the turtle, brings the female large provisions of fish, and keeps her plump and fat: he used to twitter before, but now enters the nest quietly and privately: the young hatched in twenty days: differ in their size and beauty, 643 to 646.

L

LAMA—the camel of the new world: countries where found: their flesh an excellent food: their hair, or rather wool, spun into beautiful clothing: carry their burdens over precipices and craggy rocks, where men can scarce accompany them: description and age: manner of coupling: its food: exceeds the camel in temperance: require little water, being supplied with quantities of saliva, the only offensive weapon it has to testify its resentment: colour and wool: habits and marks of agility in the state of nature: seems the largest of the camel kind in America: the natives hunt the wild lama for its fleece: a smaller weaker sort of the camel kind, called guanaco and paco: the manufacture of stuks, carpets, and quilts made of the wool of the paco form a considerable branch of commerce in South America, and might usefully be extended to Europe, 463 to 465.

Lamprey—a fish, every way resembling the lamprey, was possessed of the numbing quality of the torpedo: people will not venture to touch those of Ireland: a species very different from ours served up as a delicacy among the modern Romans: doubtful whether it be the *mukena* of the ancients, which our lamprey is not: ours differently estimated according to the season: those of the river Severn the most delicate of all fish: description of the fish's extraordinary power of adhering to stones: instance of it: peculiar preparation for spawn-

ing: the young from eggs: the female remains at the place where produced: has her family playing about her, and conducts them in triumph to the ocean: its food: some continue in fresh water till they die: a single brood the extent of the female's fertility, two years being the limits of her existence: best season for them in the months of March, April, and May; are usually taken in nets with salmon, sometimes in baskets at the bottom of the river; old custom for the city of Gloucester annually to present the king with a lamprey pie: a senator of Rome used to throw into the ponds such of his slaves as displeased him, to feed the lamprey, 682 to 684.

Lark—bird of the sparrow kind; the sky, the wood, or the tit lark distinguishable from other little birds by length of heel and loud song; nest, number of eggs, and habits; those that remain with us the year throughout are birds of passage in Sweden, 581.

Leech—different kinds; its description; takes a large quantity of food; has no anus or passage to eject it from the body when digested; in what it differs from the rest of the reptile tribe; the leech used in medicine; a girl of nine years old killed by leeches; best way of applying leeches, 815 to 817.

Leopard—the American is neither so fierce nor so valiant as that of Africa and Asia; the leopard will not fly at the approach of the lion; the large, and the leopard or panther of Senegal; differences between these animals, 821 to 828.

Lion—to compare the strength of the lion with that of man, it should be considered that the claws of this animal gives a false idea of its power, attributing to its force what is the effect of its arms; does not willingly attack the horse, and only when compelled by the keenest hunger; combats between a lion and a horse in Italy; the lion stunned and left sprawling, the horse escapes, but the lion succeeding, sticks to its prey, and tears the horse to pieces instantly; leaps twenty feet at a spring; produced under the burning sun of Africa is the most terrible and undaunted creature; he degenerates when removed from the torrid zone; description of this noble animal; a single lion of the desert often attacks an entire caravan; he crouches on his belly, and continues so with patient expectation, until his prey comes within a proper distance; the female has no mane; his roaring is so loud, that when heard in the night, and re-echoed by the mountains, it resembles distant thunder; in countries tolerably inhabited the lion is cowardly, and often scared by the cries of women and children; attends to the call of the jackal, 311 to 317.

Lizards—along the coast of Guinea their flesh esteemed a delicacy; differ from every other class of animals, and from each other; whence the greatest distinction; general characteristics; the water-kind changes its skin every fourth or fifth day; sprinkled with salt, the whole body emits a vicious liquor, and the lizard dies in three minutes in great agonies; whole of the kind sustain the want of food in a surprising manner, 757, 758.

Lobster—a ruminating fish; very voracious, though without warmth in its body, or red blood in its veins; whatever it seizes upon and has life perishes, however well defended; they devour each other, and, in some measure, eat themselves, changing their shell and stomach every year, the old stomach is the first morsel to glut the new; at first sight the head may be mistaken for the tail; its description; the food of the young; the moulting season; how they change their shells; many die under this operation; speedy growth of the new shell; the claws of unequal magnitude, and why; varieties of this animal with differences in the claws, little in the habits of conformation; the shell black when taken, but turns red by boiling; common way of taking the lobster, 708 to 713.

Locust—the great brown locust seen in several parts of England in 1748; in some southern kingdoms they are still formidable; description of this insect; in what

manner they take the field; their devastations; are still more noxious when dead; instance of it; account of their devastations in Russia, Poland, Lithuania, and Barbary; transformations; eaten by the natives in many kingdoms of the East, and caught in small nets for that purpose; their taste; are considered as a great delicacy in Tonquin by the rich and the poor; must have been a common food with the Jews; description of the great West Indian locust, the most formidable, 822 to 829.

Louse—its description; whether distinguished by the parts of generation into males and females not yet discovered; the lousy disease frequent among the ancients, 804 to 808.

Louse (wood)—the description; of great use in medicine, 809, 810.

Lythophytes and coralline substances, 890 to 892.

M

MAGPIE—thievish; rings found in the nest of a tame magpie; habits and food; when satisfied for the present it lays up the remainder for another time; places where it builds, and nests described; number of eggs; in its domestic state, preserves its natural character strictly; foolish custom of cutting its tongue to teach it to speak; puts the animal to pain, and baulks the intention, 546 to 550.

Maki—the last of the monkey kind; their description; many different kinds of these animals, 441, 442.

Man—endures a greater variety of climates than the lower orders are able to do, and why; difference in his species less than in animals, and rather taken from the tincture of the skin than variety of figure; there are not in the world above six distinct varieties in the race of men; first race in the polar regions, deep brown, short, oddly shaped, savage; second, the Tartar race, olive-coloured, middle sized, ugly, robust; third, the southern Asiatics, dark olive, slender shaped, straight black hair, small eyes, slight limbed, not strong; sixth, the Europeans and bordering nations, white, and of different tints, fine hair, large limbed, vigorous; may be called the animal of every climate; intended naturally to be white; white men resemble our common parent more than the rest of his children; a native of the tropical climates, and only a sojourner more to the north, according to Linnæus; marriageable in the warm countries of India at twelve and thirteen years of age; first sensation of a man newly brought into existence, and the steps by which he arrives at reality pointed out by Buffon; the only animal that supports himself perfectly erect; said to be tall when from five feet eight inches to six feet high; probability that men have been in all ages much of the same size they are at present; proportionably stronger for his size than any other animal; to compare the strength of the lion with that of man, it must be considered the claws of the animal give a false idea of its power, and ascribe to its force the effects of his arms; another manner of comparing the strength of man with that of animals is by the weights which either can carry; more difficult for man than any other animal to procure sleep; man dies under wounds which a quadruped or a bird could survive, 141 to 162.

Manati—may indiscriminately be the last of beasts or the first of fishes; its description; the female has breasts placed forward, like those of women; the tongue so short, some have pretended it has none; never entirely leaves the water, only advances the head out of the stream, to reach the grass on the river sides; it feeds entirely on vegetables; places where found; graze among turtles and other crustaceous fishes, giving or fearing no disturbance; unmolested they keep together in large companies, and surround their young; bring forth in autumn; and supposed to go with young eighteen months; the manati has no voice nor cry; its intestines are longer in proportion than those of any other creature, the horse excepted, 424, 425.

Marmout, or marmotte—a ruminating animal; a native of the Alps; its description; is easily tamed, readily taught to dance, wield a stick, and obey the voice of its master; it has an antipathy to the dog; strength and agility; ludicrous saying that the Savoyards, the only chimney-sweepers of Paris, have learned their art from the marmotte they carry about for show; its food; cleanly, but has a disagreeable scent; sleeps during winter; form of its hole resembles the letter Y; manner of making it; its heat not more than ten degrees above congelation; the flesh said to have a wild taste, and to cause vomiting; countries where it is found; produces but once a year, and brings forth three or four at a time; they grow fast, and their lives not above nine or ten years, 380 to 384.

Meteors—between the tropics and near the poles assume dreadful and various appearances; in those countries where the sun exerts the greatest force in raising vapours there are the greatest quantities of meteors; one of a very uncommon kind seen by Ulloa at Quito, 113 to 122.

Mines—the deepest, that at Cotteberg in Hungary, not more than three thousand feet deep; a coal-mine in the North of England said to be eleven hundred yards deep; air different in them proportionably as the magazines of fire lay nearer the centre; other causes of this difference; Mendip lead-mines in Somersetshire; their description; mines of coal generally less noxious than those of tin, tin than those of copper, but none are so dreadfully destructive as those of quicksilver; deplorable infirmities of workmen in the mines near the village of Idra; salt mines naturally cold; natives of countries naturally abounding in mines too often experience the noxious effect of their vicinity; in a lead-mine in Flintshire were found two grinding teeth, and part of the tusk of an elephant, at forty-two yards depth, 24 to 27.

Mole—a ruminating insect, or seemingly so; no quadruped fatter; none with a more sleek and glossy skin; an utter stranger in Ireland; formed to live under the earth; its description; the ancients and some moderns of opinion that the mole was blind; but Derham, by a microscope, discovered all the parts of the eye known in other animals; a mole let loose in the midst of a field, like a ghost on the stage, instantly sinks into the earth; peculiar advantage of the smallness of its eyes; when once buried in the earth it seldom stirs out; it chooses the looser softer grounds; chiefly preys upon worms and insects; is most active and casts up most dirt immediately before rain, and in winter before a thaw; in dry weather it seldom forms hillocks; description of the mole-hill, in which the female has brought forth her young; the varieties are but few; that of Virginia is black, mixed with a deep purple; that of Poland is white; Agricola says he saw hats made of mole-skins the finest and most beautiful imaginable, 398 to 399.

Monkey—one general description will not serve for all the animals of the monkey kind; of all kind less than the baboon have less power of doing mischief, and their ferocity diminishes with their size; their native woods the pests of other animals, and the masters of the forest where they reside; one only animal in the forest ventures to oppose them—that is the serpent; large snakes often wind up the trees where they reside, and, happening to surprise them sleeping, swallow them whole before they can make a defence; they generally inhabit the tops of trees, and the snakes cling to the branches nearer the bottom, in this manner they are near each other, like enemies in the same field of battle; they provoke the snake as the sparrows twitter at a cat; when attacked, they show perfect skill in defending and assisting each other; they regularly begin hostilities against those who enter their woods; one being wounded, the rest come round, put their fingers into the wound,

as desirous of finding its depth; the blood flowing in any quantity, some stop it, while others get leaves, chew, and thrust them into the opening; chief food of the tribe; dexterity in passing from one tree to another, by forming a kind of chain, locking tail in tail, or hand in hand; savages of Africa and America suppose monkeys to be men—idle, slothful, rational beings, capable of speech and conversation, but obstinately dumb for fear of being compelled to labour; monkeys of Africa most expert and entertaining; show a greater degree of cunning and activity; three marks by which monkeys of the new continent are distinguished from those of the old, 426 to 435.

Monoculus—the arborescent water-flea; its description; are of a blood-red colour; and sometimes in such multitudes on standing waters as to make them appear all over red, whence the water has been thought turned into blood, 810.

Monsters.—after a catalogue of them, Linnæus particularly adds the slender waists of the women of Europe, 199 to 206.

Morse—an animal of the seal kind, might be ranked among the fishes; generally frequents the place where seals reside in; different from the rest in a very particular formation of the teeth; resembles a seal, except that it is much larger; are rarely found but in the frozen regions near the pole; its teeth generally from two to three feet long; the ivory more esteemed than that of the elephant; the fishers have formerly killed three or four hundred morses at once; their bones are still lying in prodigious quantities along those shores they frequented, 424.

Moths—difference from butterflies, 842 to 847.

Mouflon—the sheep in a savage state, a bold, fleet creature, able to escape from greater animals, or oppose the smaller; its description, 261, 262.

Mountains—rising from places once level; give directions to the courses of the air; how formed and for what designed; upon our globe considered as angles of small lines in the circumference of a circle; countries most mountainous are most barren and uninhabitable; some valleys are fertilized by earth washed down from so great a height; the more extensive the mountain the greater the river; tops of the highest mountains bare and pointed, and why; tops of land-mountains appear barren and rocky, of sea-mountains verdant and fruitful; the highest in Africa, those called *of the moon*, giving source to the Niger and Nile in Africa, the greatest and highest under the line; some rise three miles perpendicularly above the bottom of the ocean; highest in Asia; Mount Caucasus makes near approaches to the Andes in South America; burning in Europe; in Asia; in the Molucco Islands; in Africa; in America; those of the Andes; those of Arequipa, Carassa, Malahallo, and Cotopaxi; description of the latter by Ulloa, and an eruption of it, 42 to 60.

Multivalve shells—third division of shells by Aristotle; two principal kind of multivalve shell-fish, moving and stationary, 742 to 746.

Mummy—formerly a considerable article in medicine; Paræus wrote a treatise on the inefficacy of mummy in physic; counterfeited by the Jews, and how; the method of seeking for mummies; found in the sands of Arabia, in Egypt, in wooden coffins, or in clothes covered with bitumen; remarkable mummy dug up at Auvergne, in France; an injection of petroleum inwardly, and a layer of asphaltum without, suffice to make a mummy, 205 to 212.

Musk—among the numerous medicine procurable from quadrupeds, none except the musk and hartshorn have preserved a degree of reputation; a doubt whether the animal producing it be a hog, an ox, a goat, or a deer; no animal so justly the reproach of natural historians as that which bears the musk; formerly in high request as a perfume; has for more than a century been

imported from the East; is a dusky redish substance, like coagulated blood; a grain of it perfumes a whole room; its odour continues for days without diminution, and no substance known has a stronger or more permanent smell; the bags of musk from abroad supposed to belong to some other animal, or taken from some part of the same, filled with its blood, and enough of perfume to impregnate the rest; it comes from China, Tonquin, Bengal, and often from Muscovy; that of Thibet reckoned the best, and of Muscovy the worst, 278, 274.

N

NARWHALE—the sea-unicorn, its description; errors concerning the teeth of this animal; the most harmless and peaceful inhabitant of the ocean; the Greenlanders call it the forerunner of the whale, and why; its food; is a gregarious animal; a century ago its teeth considered the greatest rarity in the world; they far surpass ivory in quality, 665 to 667.

Nightingale—a bird of the sparrow kind; description of its melody by Pliny; its residence; for weeks together, undisturbed, it sits upon the same tree; its nest and eggs; its song in captivity not so alluring; its food, and in what manner they must be kept; manner of catching the nightingale, and of managing them when caught, 577 to 581.

Nile—its course; its sources ascertained by missionaries; takes its rise in the kingdom of Goiam; receives many lesser rivers; the cause of its annual overflowings; time of their increase and decrease more inconsiderable now than in the time of the ancients, 65.

Nyl-ghaw—an animal between the cow and the deer, native of India; its description; dispositions and manners of one brought over to this country; its manner of fighting; at all our settlements India considered as a rarity, 465, 466.

O

OCEAN—occupies considerably more of the globe than the land; its different names; all the rivers in the world flowing into it would, upon a rude computation, take eight hundred years to fill it to its present height; savages consider it as an angry deity, and pay it the homage of submission; the bays, gulfs, currents, and shallows of it much better known and examined than the provinces and kingdoms of the earth, and why; when England loses its superiority there, its safety begins to be precarious; opinions concerning its saltness, and that of Boyle particularly; winds never change between the tropics in the Atlantic and Ethiopic Oceans; each has its insects and vegetables, 70 to 76.

Opossum—the female's belly found double; when pursued, she instantly takes her young into a false belly nature has given her, and carries them off, or dies in the endeavour; an animal in North and South America, of the size of a small cat, and of the monkey kind; its description; a minute description of it; the young, when first produced, are very small, and immediately on quitting the real womb they creep into the false one, but the time of continuing there is uncertain; Ulloa has found five young hidden in the belly of the dam, alive and clinging to the teat, three days after she was dead; chiefly subsists upon birds, and hides among the leaves of trees to seize them by surprise; cannot run with any swiftness, but climbs trees with great ease and expedition; it often hangs by the tail, and for hours together, with the head downwards, keeps watching for its prey; by means of its tail flings itself from one tree to another, hunts insects, and escapes its pursuers; eats vegetable as well as animal substances; is easily tamed, but a disagreeable domestic, from its stupidity, figure, and scent, which though fragrant in small quantities, is ungrateful when copious; during its gestation the bag in which the young are concealed may be opened and examined without inconvenience, 443 to 445.

Ostrich—manner in which the Arabians hunt them; an Arabian horse of the first speed scarcely outruns them; its flesh proscribed in Scripture as unfit to be eaten; the greatest of birds; makes near approaches to the quadruped class; its description; appears as tall as a man on horseback; brought into England above seven feet high; surprising conformation of its internal parts; a native only of the torrid regions of Africa; not known to breed elsewhere than where first produced; places they inhabit; some of their eggs weigh fifteen pounds; lay from forty to fifty eggs at one clutch; a single egg sufficient entertainment for eight men; eggs well tasted, and extremely nourishing; of all chases, that of the ostrich, though most laborious, the most entertaining; use they make of its skin; often ridden upon and used as horses; of all animals using wings with legs in running, these are by far the swiftest, 492 to 497.

Otter—the link between land and amphibious animals; resembles the terrestrial animals in make, and aquatic in living; swims faster than it runs; is brown, and like an overgrown weasel; its description; tears to pieces the nets of the fishers; its retreat the hollow of a bank made by the water; there it forms a gallery several yards along the water; description of its habitation; way of training it up to hunt fish; marks of its residence; bites with great fierceness, and never lets go its hold; brings forth its young under hollow banks upon beds of rushes, flags, or weeds; manner of taking the young alive; how fed when taken; some dogs trained up to discover its retreat; otters met with in most parts of the world; in North America and Carolina found white, inclining to yellow; description of the Brazilian otter, 414 to 416.

Ouran-outang—the wild man of the wood, an animal nearly approaching the human race, is the foremost of the ape kind; this name given to various animals walking upright, but of different countries, proportions, and powers; its description in a comparative view with man; gigantic races of it described by travellers truly formidable; many are taller than man, active, strong, intrepid, cunning, lascivious, and cruel; countries where found; goes in companies, and this troop meeting one of the human species without succour show him no mercy; they jointly attack the elephant, beat him with clubs, and force him to leave that part of the forest they claim as their own; is so strong that ten men are not a match for him; a Negro boy taken by one of these, and carried into the woods, continued there a whole year without any injury; they often surprise the female Negroes going into the woods, and keep them against their will for their company, feeding them plentifully all the time; they build sheds, and use clubs for their defence; sometimes walk upright, and sometimes upon all-fours, when fantastically disposed, 426 to 432.

Owl—description of the common horned owl; the screech-owl and its distinctive marks; common mark by which all birds of this kind are distinguished from others; general characteristics of birds of the owl kind; description of the great horned owl; names of several owls without horns; sport of bird-catchers by counterfeiting the cry of the owl; in what manner the great horned owl is used by falconers to lure the kite, when wanted for training the falcon; places where the great horned owl breeds; its nest, and number of eggs; the lesser owl takes by force the nest of some other bird; number of eggs; the other owls build near the place where they chiefly prey; a single owl more serviceable than six cats in ridding a barn of mice; are shy of man, extremely untractable, and difficult to tame; the white owl in captivity refuses all nourishment, and dies of hunger, 519 to 523.

P

Paca—improperly called American rabbit, an animal

of South America; its cry, and manner of eating; is most like the agouti, yet differs in several particulars; its description; places where generally found; persecuted not only by man, but by every beast and bird of prey; breeds in such numbers the diminution is not perceptible, 385, 386.

Pangolin—vulgarly the scaly lizard, is a native of the torrid climates of the ancient continent; of all animals the best protected from external injury; its description; at the approach of an enemy it rolls itself up like the hedge-hog; its flesh is considered by the Negroes of Africa as a great delicacy; it has no teeth; lives entirely upon insects; there is not a more harmless, inoffensive creature than this, unmolested; countries where found, 405, 406.

Panther—the foremost of the mischievous spotted kind, by many naturalists mistaken for the tiger; the panther of Senegal; the large panther; difference between these two; that of America, or jaguar, compared with the two former; sometimes employed in hunting; the gazelle or leveret are its prey; it sometimes attacks its employer, 322 to 328.

Parrot—the middle or second size of the kind described; the ease with which this bird is taught to speak, and the number of words it is capable of repeating are surprising; a grave writer affirms that one of these was taught to repeat a whole sonnet from Petrarch; the author has seen one taught to pronounce the ninth commandment articulately; account of a parrot belonging to Henry VII.; common enough in Europe, will not, however, breed here; instances of sagacity and docility, particularly of the great parrot called *aiourous*; their habits; their nests and the number of eggs; useful method of taking the young; always speak best when not accustomed to harsh, wild notes; natives of Brazil shoot them with heavy arrows, headed with cotton, which knock down the bird without killing it; the green paroquet, with a red neck, the first of the kind brought into Europe, and the only one known to the ancients from Alexander the Great to Nero; disorders peculiar to the parrot kind; one well kept will live five or six and twenty years, 556 to 561.

Partridge—in England, a favourite delicacy at the tables of the rich, whose desire of keeping them to themselves has been gratified with laws for their preservation, no way harmonising with the general spirit of English legislation, and why; there are two kinds, the grey and the red; the grey is most prolific, and always keeps on the ground; the red less common, and perches upon trees; the partridge is found in every country and climate; partridges of all sorts agree in one character—being moderately addicted to venery, often to an unnatural degree; the male pursues the hen to her nest, and breaks her eggs rather than be disappointed; the young having kept in flocks during the winter, break society in spring, when they begin to pair, and terrible combats ensue; their manners otherwise resemble those of poultry, but their cunning and instincts are superior; the covies are from ten to fifteen, and, unmolested, they live from fifteen to seventeen years; method of taking them in a net with a setting-dog the most pleasant and most secure; they are never so tame as our domestic poultry, 538 to 540.

Peacock—a saying among the ancients, as beautiful as is the peacock among birds, so is the tiger among quadrupeds; varieties of this bird; some white, others crested; that of Thibet the most beautiful of the feathered creation; our first were brought from the East Indies, and they are still found in flocks in a wild state in the islands of Java and Ceylon; in the times of Francis I. it was a custom to serve up peacocks to the tables of the great, not to be eaten, but seen; in what manner they served them; its flesh is said to keep longer unputrefied than any other; has a predilection for barley; but as a proud and fickle bird there

is scarce any food it will at all times like, it strips the tops of houses of tiles or thatch, lays waste the labours of the gardener, roots up the choicest seeds, and nips favourite flowers in the bud; is still more falacious than the cock; requires five females at least to attend him, and the number not sufficient, will run upon and tread the sitting hen; the peahen as much as possible hides her nest from him, that he may not disturb her sitting; she seldom lays above five or six eggs in this climate; Aristotle describes her laying twelve; in forests where they breed naturally they are very numerous; this bird lives about twenty years, and not till the third year has that beautiful variegated plumage of its tail; in the kingdom of Cambaya, says Taverner, near the city of Baroch, whole flocks of them are in the field; description of their habits; decoy made use of to catch them there, 523 to 530.

Pelican—a ruminating bird; a native of Africa and America; its description; their flesh rancid, and tastes worse than it smells; use made by the Americans of their pouches; is not entirely incapable of instruction in a domestic state; instances of it; Aldrovandus mentions one believed to be fifty years old, 616 to 619.

Penguin—a heavy water-fowl; the wings of this tribe unfit for flight, and their legs still more awkwardly adapted for walking; they dive to the bottom, or swim between two waters; they never visit land but when coming to breed; their colour; are covered more warmly with feathers than other birds; description of the Magellanic penguin; they unite in them the qualities of men, fowls, and fishes; instances of its gluttonous appetite; their food and flesh; are a bird of society, 628 to 630.

Penpark-hole—in Gloucestershire; its description, 21.

Pheasants—at first propagated among us, brought from the banks of the Phasis, a river of Colchis, in Asia Minor, whence they still retain their name; description of this beautiful bird; wild among us, is an envied ornament of our parks and forests, where he feeds upon acorns and berries; in the woods the hen pheasant lays from eighteen to twenty eggs in a season; but in a domestic state seldom above ten; it is better left at large in the woods than reduced to its pristine captivity; its fecundity when wild is sufficient to stock the forest, and its flesh acquires the highest flavour from its unlimited freedom; many varieties of pheasants; of all others, the golden pheasant of China the most beautiful 532 to 534.

Pie—no class of birds so ingenuous, active, and well-fitted for society; they live in pairs, and their attachments are confined to each other; they build nests in trees or bushes; the male shares in the labour of building, and relieves his mate in the duties of incubation; and the young once excluded, both are equally active in making them ample provision; general laws prevail, and a republican form of government is established among them; they watch for the general safety of every bird of the grove; they are remarkable for instinct and capacity for instruction; instances of it; the few general characters in which they all agree, 541, 542.

Pigeons—are ruminating birds; those that live in a wild state by no means so fruitful as those in our pigeon-houses nearer home; the tame pigeon and all its beautiful varieties owe their origin to one species—the stock-dove; various names of tame pigeons; attempts made to render domestic the ring dove, but hitherto fruitless; the turtle-dove a bird of passage; pigeons of the dove-house not so faithful as the turtle-dove; near fifteen thousand pigeons may in four years be produced from a single pair; the stock-dove seldom breeds above twice a year; have a stronger attachment to their young than those who breed so often; the pigeons called carriers used to convey letters, not trained with as much care as formerly, when sent from a besieged city to those coming to relieve it; in an hour and a half they perform a journey of forty miles, 561 to 564.

Plague—not well known whence it has its beginning; is propagated by infection; some countries, even in the midst of Africa, never infected with it; others generally visited by it once a year, as Egypt; not known in Nigritia; Numidia it molests not once in a hundred years; plague spread over the world in 1346, after two years travelling from the great kingdom of Cathay, north of China, to Europe; the plague desolated the city of London in 1665; for this last age, it has abated its violence, even in those countries where most common, and why; a plague affected trees and stones, 101, 102.

Pole-cat—a distinct species from the ermine; resembles the ferret so much, that some have thought it the same animal; there are many distinctions between them; description of the pole-cat, very destructive to young game; the rabbit its favourite prey; one pole-cat destroys a whole warren by a wound hardly perceptible; generally reside in woods or thick brakes, making holes two yards deep under ground; female brings forth in summer five or six young at a time, and supplies the want of milk with the blood of such animals as she can seize; an inhabitant of temperate climates, being afraid of cold as well as heat; the species confined in Europe to a range from Poland to Italy; pole-cat of America and Virginia are names for the squash and the skink; distinctions of these animals; seizes the flying squirrel, 357 to 360.

Polypus—very voracious; its description; uses its arms as a fisherman his net; is not of the vegetable tribe, but a real animal; it hunts for its food, and possesses a power of choosing it or retreating from danger; dimensions of the sea-polypus, and of that which grows in fresh waters; the power of dissection first tried upon these animals to multiply their numbers; their way of living; arms serve them as lime-twigs do a fowler; how it seizes upon its prey; some propagated from eggs; some produced by buds issuing from the body, as plants by inoculation; while all may be multiplied by cuttings to an amazing degree of minuteness; of those produced like buds from the parent stem, should the parent swallow a red worm it gives a tincture to all its fluids, and the young partakes of the parental colour; but if the latter should seize upon the same prey, the parent is no way benefited by the capture, all the advantage thus remains with the young; several young of different sizes are growing from its body; some just budding forth, others acquiring perfect form, and others ready to drop from the original stem; those young, still attached to the parent, bud and propagate also, each holding dependence upon its parent; artificial method of propagating these animals by cuttings, 886 to 890.

Porcupine—its description; of all those brought into Europe not one ever seen to launch its quills, though sufficiently provoked; their manner of defence; directs its quills pointing to the enemy; feeds on serpents and other reptiles; porcupine of Canada subsists on vegetables; those brought to this country for show usually feed on bread, milk, and fruits; do not refuse meat when offered; is extremely hurtful to gardens; time of their gestation; the female brings forth one at a time; she suckles it about a month, and accustoms it to live like herself upon vegetables and the bark of trees; manner of escaping when hunted by a dog or a wolf; description of one kept in an iron cage; the porcupine of America differs much from that of the ancient continent; two kinds; the couando and the ursou; description of both, 401 to 404.

Porpoise—a fish less than a grampus, with the snout of a hog; its description and habits; possess, proportionably to their bulk, the manners of whales; places where they seek for prey; manner of killing them in the Thames; yield a large quantity of oil; the lean of some not old said to be as well tasted as veal; caviare prepared from the eggs of this fish, 668 to 670.

Poultry—general characteristics of the poultry kind;

nearly all domestic birds of this kind maintained in our yards are of a foreign extraction; the courtship of this kind is short, and the congress fortuitous; the male takes no heed of his offspring; though timorous with birds of prey, he is incredibly bold among his own kind; the sight of a male of his own species produces a combat; the female takes all the labour of hatching and bringing up her young, choosing a place remote from the cock, 523, 524.

Prickly-finned fishes—described, 692 to 694.

Q

QUADRUPEDS—they bear the nearest resemblance to man; the weaker races exert all efforts to avoid their invaders; next to human influence, the climate seems to have the strongest effects upon their nature and form; both at the line and the pole the wild are fierce and untamable; America inferior to us in these productions; opinion that all in South America are a different species from those most resembling them in the old world; such as peculiarly belong to the new continent are without any marks of the perfection of their species; the large and formidable produce but one young at a time, while the mean and contemptible are prolific; those that ruminate are harmless and easily tamed; they are chiefly the cow, the sheep, and the deer kind; the largest are found in the torrid zone, and these are all fond of the water; the chevrotin, or little Guinea-deer, the least of all cloven-footed animals, and perhaps the most beautiful; its description; none can be more beautiful than the tiger; change of colour in the hair obtains in them all to a degree plainly observable; the carnivorous have not milk in plenty; are not fond of engaging each other; general description of amphibious quadrupeds, 219 to 228.

Quail—a bird of passage; description of it, 540 to 541.

R

RABBIT—a ruminating animal; rabbit and hare distinct kinds; a creature covered with feathers and hair, said to be bred between a rabbit and a hen; breed seven times a year, and bring eight young each time; various colours of rabbits; the mouse-colour kinds originally from an island in the river Humber; still continuing their general colour after a number of successive generations; account of their production; the rabbit generally fatter, and lives longer than the hare; native of the warmer climates; it has been imported into England from Spain; in some of the islands in the Mediterranean they multiplied in such numbers, that military aid was demanded to destroy them; love a warm climate, 374 to 376.

RACCOON—with some the Jamaica rat; its description and habits; do more injury in one night in Jamaica than the labours of a month can repair; capable of being instructed in amusing tricks; drinks by lapping as well as by sucking; its food, 469, 470.

RATS, MUSK—three distinctions of that species—the ondatra, desman, and pilori; in what they resemble each other; the savages of Canada think the musk-rat intolerably foetid, but deem its flesh good eating; great rat, called also rat of Norway, though unknown in all northern countries; originally from the Levant, and a new comer into this country: first arrivals upon the coasts of Ireland; with ships trading in provisions to Gibraltar; a single pair enough for the numerous progeny now infesting the British empire; the feeble animals do not escape the rapacity of the Norway rat; except the mouse, they eat and destroy each other; produce from fifteen to thirty at a time, and bring forth three times a year, 388 to 396.

RATTLE-SNAKE—kind of friendship between it and the armadilla, or tatou, frequently found in the same hole; its description and dimensions; effects of its bite; the

remedies against it; power of charming its prey into its mouth; facts related to this purpose, 787, 788.

RAVENS—how distinguished from the carrion-crow and the rook; manners and appetites; ravens found in every region of the world; amusing qualities, vices, and defects; food in the wild state; places for building nests; number of eggs; will not permit their young to keep in the same district, but drive them off when sufficiently able to shift for themselves; some have lived near a hundred years; the horned Indian raven, 542 to 546.

RAY—figure of the fish of this kind, and their differences; amazing dimensions of one speared by Negroes at Guadaloupe; to credit the Norway bishop, there are some above a mile over: supposed to be the largest inhabitant of the deep; three hundred eggs taken out of the body of a ray; in what manner the eggs drop into the womb from the ovary, or egg-bag, 676 to 682.

RHINOCEROS—a ruminating animal; not afraid singly to oppose the lion; next to the elephant the most powerful of animals; general outline of it; the elephant defeated by it; its horn sometimes found from three feet to three feet and a half long; this horn composed of the most solid substance, and pointed so as to inflict the most fatal wounds; a rhinoceros sent from Bengal to London, not above two years old, cost near £1,000 for his conveyance and food; in some parts of Asia these animals are tamed, and led into the field to strike terror into the enemy, but are as dangerous to the employers; method of taking them; some found in Africa with a double horn, one above the other, 456, 457.

RIVERS—all our greatest find their source among mountains; their production, according to De la Hire; other hypothesis upon the same subject; make their own beds, and level the bottom of their channels; their sinuosities and turnings more numerous as they proceed; a certain sign with the savages of North America they are near the sea, when they find the rivers winding and often changing their direction; a little river received into a larger without augmenting either width or depth, and why; instance of it; a river tending to enter another either perpendicularly or in an opposite direction will be diverted by degrees from that direction, and obliged to make itself a more favourable entrance with the stream of the former; whatever direction the ridge of the mountain has the river takes the opposite course; every great river, whose source lies within the tropics, has its stated inundations; those of countries least inhabited are very rocky and broken into cataracts, and why; at the poles necessarily small, and why; the rivers of Europe more navigable and more manageable than those of Africa and of the torrid zone; all rivers in the world flowing into the sea, with a continuance of their present stores, would take up at a rude computation 800 years to fill it to its present height, 60 to 69.

RUMINANT QUADRUPEDS—birds, fishes, insects; men known to ruminate; instance in a young man at Bristol; those of the cow kind hold the first rank; all of this class internally much alike; have not the upper fore-teeth; the stag performs this with more difficulty than the cow or sheep, 246 to 369.

S

SABLE—its description, from Mr. Jonelin, the first accurate observer of this animal; sables leap with ease from tree to tree, and are afraid of the sun; different colours of their fur; hunting the sable chiefly the lot of soldiers and condemned criminals; how directed to shoot them, 360, 361.

SALAMANDER—there is no such animal existing as that described by the ancients; the modern salamander a lizard; its conformation and habits; reports concerning their venom: idle notions of its being inconsumable in fire, 765 to 768.

SAVAGES—more difficult in point of dress than the fashionable or tawdry European; instances of it; per-

form a journey of twelve hundred leagues in less than six weeks; oblige their women to a life of continual labour; are surprised an European walks forward for his amusement and returns back again, 154, &c.

Scolopendra—the centipes, a hideous angry worm, 814, 815.

Scorpion—four principal parts distinguishable in this animal; the reservoir where its poison is kept; effect of its sting upon a dog, in an experiment made by M. Maupertuis; experiments made upon other dogs; instances of its irascible nature and malignity; when driven to extremity destroys itself; instance of it; captivity makes it destroy its young; a scorpion of America produced from the egg, 811 to 814.

Sea—was open to all till the time of the Emperor Justinian; sensibly retired in many parts of the coasts of France, England, Holland, Germany, and Prussia; Norwegian Sea has formed several little islands from the main land, and still daily advances upon the continent; its colour not from anything floating in it, but from the different reflections of the rays of light; a proof of it; the sea grows colder in proportion as divers descend; smokes like an oven near the poles when the winter begins; no fish imbibe any of the sea saltness with food or in respiration, 83 to 92.

Seal—its description; the varieties innumerable; the brain largest of any animal; the *foramen ovale* in its heart never closing, fits it for continuing under water; the water its habitation; seldom at a distance from the shore; found in the North and icy seas, and on those shores in flocks; gregarious and migrant; direct their course to northern coasts, and seas free of ice, in two departures, observing time and track; how and by what passages they return unknown; females in our climates bring forth in winter; where they rear their young; hunt and herd together, and have a variety of tones like dogs and cats, to pursue prey or warn of danger; how the Europeans and Greenlanders destroy them; in our climate they are wary, and suffer no approach; never sleep without moving, and seldom more than a minute; taken for the skin and oil the fat yields; the flesh formerly at the tables of the great; an instance of it, 420 to 424.

Serpents—the sea about the islands of Azores replenished with them for want of motion; the various hissings at the close of the evening make a louder symphony in Africa than birds in European groves in a morning; to believe all said of the sea-serpent is credulity, to refuse assent to its existence is presumption; sea-serpent, the clops described; marks distinguishing them from animals; their conformation; progressive motion; the only animal in the forest that opposes the monkey; entwines and devours the buffalo; no animal bears abstinence so long as they; little serpents live for several years in glasses, never eat at all, or stain the glass with excrements; little serpent at the Cape of Good Hope, and north of the river Senegal; long serpent of Congo; some bring forth their young alive, some bring forth eggs; some venomous, and some inoffensive; animals which destroy them; boasted pretensions of charming serpents; all amphibious; their motion, swimming in liquids; the Æsculapian serpent; seat of poison in venomous serpents; instrument by which the wound is made; those destitute of fangs are harmless; various appearances the venom produces; may be taken inwardly without sensible effects or prejudice to the constitution; their principal food birds, moles, toads, lizards; the prince of serpents, a native of Japan, the greatest favourite of savages, 771 to 794.

Shammoy—see chamois.

Shark—description of the great white shark; no fish swims so fast; outstrips the swiftest ships; instances of frightful rapacity in this fish; its enmity to man; usual method of sailors to take them; no animal harder to kill; how killed by the African Negroes; the remora,

or sucking-fish sticks to it; for what purpose; brings forth living young; Rondeletius says the female of the blue shark lets her brood, when in danger, swim down her throat, and shelter in her belly, 672 to 675.

Sheep—the author saw one that would eat flesh; proper care taken of the animal produces favourable alterations in the fleeces here and in Syria; in course of time impoverish the pasturage; in the domestic state stupid, most defenceless and inoffensive; those without horns more dull and heavy than the rest; those with longest and finest fleeces more subject to disorders; the goat, resembling them in many respects, much their superior; they propagate together, as of one family; distinguished from deer; do not appear from old writers to have been bred in early times in Britain; no country produces such sheep as England, larger fleeces, or better for clothing; sheep without horns the best sort; the sheep in its noblest state is in the African desert, or the extensive plains of Siberia; sheep in the savage state; the woolly sheep is only in Europe, and in the temperate provinces of Asia; subsists in cold countries, but not a natural inhabitant of them; the Iceland sheep have four, and sometimes eight horns; with broad tails, common in Tartary, Arabia, Persia, Barbary, Syria, and Egypt; the tail often weighs from twenty to thirty pounds; those called strepsicheros, a native of the Archipelago; Guinea sheep described; bring forth one or two at a time, sometimes three or four; bear their young five months; the intestines thirty times the length of their body; in Syria and Persia remarkable for fine gloss, length, and softness of hair, 257 to 262.

Shell-fish—described, 707 to 723.

Silkworm—the most serviceable of all such creatures; its real history unknown among the Romans to the time of Justinian, and supposed only brought into Europe in the twelfth century; two methods of breeding them; Pausanias's description of this worm; changes its skin in three weeks or a month; gummy fluids forming the threads; preparations made before spinning the web; the cone or ball of silk described; effort to burst the cone, free from confinement, it neither flies nor eats; few of these animals suffered to come to a state of maturity, and why, 848 to 851.

Sleep—with some of the lower animals takes up the greatest part of their lives; man the only creature requiring sleep from double motives, for the refreshment of the mental and of the bodily frame; want of it produces madness; procured to man with more difficulty than to other animals; in what manner sleep fetters us for hours together, according to Rohault. bodily labour demands a less quantity of it than mental; the famous Philip Barretier slept twelve hours in the twenty-four; numberless instances of persons who, asleep, performed many ordinary duties of their calling, and, with ridiculous industry, completed by night what they failed doing by day; remarkable instance related in the German Ephemerides, 162 to 169.

Sloth—two different kinds of that animal, the air and the unan; both seem the meanest and most ill-formed of all animals that chew the cud; formed by nature to climb; they get up a tree with pain, but are utterly unable to descend; drop from the branches to the ground; strip a tree of its verdure in less than a fortnight, afterwards devour the bark, and in a short time kill what might prove their support; every step taken sends forth a plaintive melancholy cry; like birds, have but one vent for propagation, excrement, and urine; their looks piteous, to move compassion, accompanied with tears, that dissuade injuring so wretched a being; one fastened by its feet to a pole, suspended across two beams, remained forty days without meat, drink, or sleep; an amazing instance of strength in the feet instanced, 472 to 474.

Smelling—Brahmins of India have a power of smelling equal to what is in other creatures; can smell the

water they drink, to us quite inodorous; Negroes of the Antilles by smell distinguish the footsteps of a Frenchman from those of a Negro; gives often false intelligence; natives of different countries, or different natives of the same, differ widely in that sense; instances of it; mixtures of bodies void of odour produce powerful smells; a slight cold blunts all smelling; smallest changes in man make great alterations in this sense; delicacy of smelling in birds instanced in ducks, 179 to 184.

Snail, garden—is surprisingly fitted for the life it is to live; organs of life it possesses in common with animals, and what peculiar to itself; every snail at once male and female, and while it impregnates another is impregnated in turn; coupling of these animals; possessed of the power of mending the shell; come to full growth, they cannot make a new one; Swammerdam's experiment to this purpose; salt destroys them, so does soot; continue in a torpid state during the severity of winter; so great their multiplication in some years, that gardeners imagine they burst from the earth: wet seasons favourable to their production; common garden-snail compared with the fresh-water snail and sea-snail; fresh-water snail brings forth young alive, with shells upon their backs; at all times of the year fresh-water snails opened are pregnant with eggs, or with living snails, or with both together; sea-snails found viviparous, others lay eggs; manner in which the sea-snails impregnate each other; different orifices or verges of snails; the difference between land and sea-snails; of the trochus kind, have no mouth; their trunk; are among snails as the tiger, the eagle, or the shark among beasts, birds, and fishes; food of all sea snails lies at the bottom; of sea-snails, that most frequently swimming upon the surface, whose shell is thinnest and most easily pierced, is the nautilus; its description; peculiarity by which the nautilus is most distinguished; the sea-snail; a cartilaginous fish, described, 729 to 736.

Soft-finned fishes—described, 696.

Sparrows—house-sparrow; various birds of the sparrow kind; their food; songsters of this class; their migration, 564 to 571.

Spiders—in South America and Africa as large as sparrows; the spider for several months together subsists upon a single meal; chief of our native spiders; not venomous; Martinico spider's body as large as a hen's egg; manner of making their webs; Lister has distinguished the sexes of this animal; experiment made by Mr. Reaumur to turn their labours to the advantage of man, 798 to 804.

Spinous—class of fishes already extended to four hundred sorts; Gouan's system and arrangement of the various sorts of spinous fishes; their general leading marks and difference from others, 690, 692—696 to 707.

Sponges—opinion of Count Marfigli and others about them, 890 to 892.

Spoonbill—descriptions of the European and American spoonbill, 604, 605.

Squirrel—a ruminating animal; classed as such by Pyerius; the kind has as many varieties as any wild animal; enumeration of some; its way of moving is by bounds; few animals so tender, or so unfit for a change of abode; some live on the tops of trees, others feed on vegetables below, where also they take shelter in storms; description of its qualities, food, and mansion; the martin destroys the squirrel, then takes possession of its mansion, 376 to 380.

Stag—first in rank among quadrupeds; its elegant form described; no obvious difference between the internal structure of the stag and the bull but to a nice observer; ruminates not so easily as the cow or sheep, reason why; manner of knowing its age; differs in size and horns from a fallow-deer; seldom drinks in winter, and less in spring; different colours of stags; of animals, natives of this climate, none such a beautiful eye as the stag; horns increase in thickness and height from the

second year of age to the eighth; grow differently in stags from sheep and cows; horns resembled to a vegetable substance, grafted upon the head of the stag; time of feeling impressions of rut, or desire of copulation; effects the rut causes; stag lives about forty years; voice in the time of rut terrible, and then keeps dogs off intrepidly; a stag and tiger enclosed in the same area, the stag's defence so bold, the tiger was obliged to fly; the stag in rut ventures out to sea from one island to another, and swims best when fattest; the hind, or female, uses all her arts to conceal her young from him, the most dangerous of her pursuers; stag remaining wild in England, called red-deer, found on moors bordering on Cornwall and Devonshire; different names given them according to their ages; terms used by hunters pursuing the stag, 275 to 284.

Star-fish—general description of the tribe; are also called sea-nettles; cut in pieces, every part survives the operation, becoming a perfect animal, endued with its natural rapacity, 884 to 886.

Stinkard—name given by our sailors to one or two animals of the weasel kind, chiefly found in America, and by the savages of Canada to the musk-rat, 362 to 364.

Stork—a ruminating bird; true difference between it and the crane; are birds of passage; returning into Europe in March; the Dutch attentive to the preservation of the stork in their republic, the bird protected by the laws and the prejudices of the people; countries where found; ancient Egyptian's regard for ibis bird carried to adoration; the ancient his supposed the same which at present bears the same name, 596, 597.

Sturgeon—a cartilaginous fish of a considerable size, yet flies terrified from the smallest fishes; its description; three kinds of it; the largest caught in Great Britain taken in the Eske, where frequently found weighing four hundred and fifty pounds; live in society among themselves; and Gesner has seen them shal together at the notes of a trumpet; in the water it is one of the strongest fishes, and often breaks the nets that enclose it, but its head once raised above water, its activity ceases; two methods of preparing it; that from America not so good as from the north of Europe; caviare made with the roe of all kinds of sturgeon; manner of making it, 684 to 687.

Sunk Island, 41.

Swallows—time of their migrations; departure of some, and retreat of others into old walls, from the inclemencies of winter, wrap the migrations of birds in great obscurity; experiment of Mr. Buffon to this purpose; with us birds of passage; breed in upper Egypt and the land of Java, and never disappear; house-swallow; characteristics of the swallow tribe; at the end of September they depart; those migrating first seen in Africa, in the beginning of October, having performed their journey in seven days; sometimes seen, interrupted by contrary winds, wavering in their course at sea, and lighting upon the ships in their passage; a doubt whether all swallows thus migrate, or some other of this species externally alike and internally different, be differently affected by the approach of winter; observations made to this purpose by Reaumur, Frisch, and Klein; Chinese pluck them from rocks, and send great numbers into the East Indies for sale; gluttons esteem them great delicacies dissolved in chicken or mutton broth; the number of their eggs, 585 to 588.

Swan—a stately web-footed water fowl; doubt whether the tame kind be in a state of nature; none found in Europe; the wild swan, though strongly resembling it in colour and form, yet another bird; difference between wild and tame swans; the tame most silent, the wild has a loud and disagreeable note; from thence called the hooper; accounts sufficient to suspend an opinion of its musical abilities; two months hatching, and a year growing to proper size; longest in the shell of any

bird; said to live three hundred years; by an act of Edward IV. the son of the king was allowed to keep a swan, and no others, unless possessed of five marks a year; punishment for taking their eggs, imprisonment for a year and a day, and a fine at the king's will; places which abound with them, 635 to 637.

T

TAPIR—the largest animal of America, not comparable to the elephant in size of Africa; considered as the hippopotamus of the new continent, 469.

Taste—in all substances on mountain tops and valley bottoms; to determine somewhat upon the nature of tastes, bodies to be tasted must be moistened or dissolved by saliva to produce a sensation, the tongue and body to be tasted being dry, no *taste* ensues; relish of tastes stronger in children than in persons advanced in life, 179 to 184.

Thrush—a slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind; its song; 571 to 577.

Tides—with Pliny, were influenced partly by the sun, and in a greater degree by the moon; Kepler first conjectured attraction the principal cause of them; the precise manner discovered by Newton; high tides happen at the same time on opposite sides of the globe, where waters are farthest from the moon; solar and lunar tides; greatest in syzgies, least in quadratures; flows strongest in narrowest places; Mediterranean, Baltic, and Black Sea, no sensible tides, the gulf of Venice excepted, and why; higher in the torrid zone than in the ocean; greatest at the river Indus, rising thirty feet; remarkably high on the coasts of Malay, in the straits of Sunda, the Red Sea, the gulf of St. Lawrence; along the coasts of China and Japan, at Panama, and in the gulf of Bengal; those at Tonquin most remarkable in the world—one tide and one ebb in twenty-four hours; twice in each month no tide at all; in the straits of Magellan it rises twenty feet, flows six hours, and the ebb lasts but two hours, 76 to 83.

Tiger—leaps twenty feet at a spring; defeated by a stag; taught to defend herds; attacks the lion; often bigger than the lion; nothing tames it; perfectly resembles the cat; three sorts in Sundah Rajah's dominions; the royal tiger; carries a buffalo over its shoulder to its den; said to follow the rhinoceros for its excrements; other tales about it; under Augustus, a tiger an extraordinary sight; the species scarce; opinion of Varo, that it was never taken alive; the ancients commended it for beauty among quadrupeds, equal to that of the peacock among birds; supposed to bring forth four or five young at a time; expresses his resentment as the lion; the skin esteemed in the east, particularly in China; battle of one tiger and three elephants at Siam described; another between a crocodile; the red tiger, Mr. Buffon's cougar; common in Guinea, Brazil, Paraguai, and other parts of South America; the flesh superior to mutton, and esteemed by the Negroes as a dainty, 317 to 322.

Tipula—long-legged gnat; description, 878 to 880.

Toad—some bigger than ducks; their flesh as a delicacy on the coast of Guinea; differences between the frog and it as to figure and conformation; their nature, appetites, and food; coupling; difficulty in bringing forth; curious particulars relating to this animal; one swallowing a bee alive, the stomach stung, and the insect vomited up again; toads not venomous; accounts of toads taken inwardly; difficult to be killed; lives for centuries in a rock, or within an oak, without access, nourishment, or air, and yet found alive and perfect; accounts of this; toads suck cancerous breasts, and perform a cure; progress of this operation; the rubeth, the land-toad, alone has the property of sucking; doubtful whether they die by internal or external application of the cancerous matter; description of the Surinam toad, called pipal, 751 to 757.

Tornado—a formidable tempest, so called by the Spaniards, 111, 112.

Torpedo—its description; by an unaccountable power, the instant touched, even with a stick, when immediately taken out of the sea, it numbs the hand and the arm, or whole body; the shock resembles an electric stroke—sudden, tingling, and painful; accounts by Kempfer of numbness produced by it; he believes holding in the breath prevents the violence; implicit belief of efficacy would be painfully undeceived; this power not exerted upon every occasion; trials by Reaumur to this purpose; opinions concerning the cause of this strange effect; the fish dead, the power destroyed, then handled or eaten with security; the power not extended to the degree some believe—reaching fishermen at the end of a line, or numbing fishes in the same pond; ridiculous excess of this numbing quality in the history of Abyssinia by Godignus; Lorenzini, from experiments, is convinced the power resides in two thin muscles of the back; several fishes have acquired the name of torpedo possessed of the same quality; Moore's and Condamine's accounts of them, 680 to 682.

Tortoise—ranked among crustaceous fishes, though superior to them all; amphibious, according to Seba, distinguished in two classes, the land-tortoise and the sea-turtle; differ more in habits than conformation; description; principal distinctions; varieties; all generally found in warm countries, without retiring; the shell never changes, and, growing with the body, is formed in pieces; a defence against dangerous attacks; the blood warm and red; how circulated; turtle larger than tortoise; weighs from fifty to five hundred pounds; ancients speak of some of amazing sizes; live to 80 and 120 years; can live without limbs, head, or brain, proved by experiments of Rhedi; moves with great weight upon it; hears distinctly by means of an auditory conduit opening into the mouth; sighs when ill situated, and sheds tears when distressed; torpid during winter, sleeping in some cave, and breathing imperceptibly; account of a land-tortoise caught in a canal at Amsterdam, and of a turtle in the Loire, in 1729; the food chiefly vegetables, though believed to eat insects, snails, and bugs, 715 to 723.

Turkey—bird of the poultry kind; its native country disputed; arguments for the old and new continent; first seen in France in the reign of Francis I., and in England in the reign of Henry VIII.; its tenderness with us, when young, argues not for our climate; in the wild state, hardy and numerous in the snowy forests of Canada; also larger and more beautiful than in the domestic state; the savages weave the feathers into cloaks, and fashion them into fans and umbrellas; hunting the turkey a principal diversion with them, its flesh chiefly supporting their families; manner of hunting, 580 to 592.

Turtle—prepares for laying, and deposits her eggs in the sand, where in twenty-six days they are hatched by the sun; lay from 150 to 200 in a season; the young from the egg, with their shell, seek their food untaught, and at the size of quails, run by instinct into the sea, ignorant of all danger; propagated on shore only; comes from sea on purpose in coupling season; female is passive and reluctant; the male is slow, but grasps so fast nothing can loose the hold, 719 to 723.

Tusks—those of a boar sometimes a foot long; of the babrouessa a fine ivory, smoother and whiter than the elephant's, but not so hard; of enormous size; those of a boar broken abate his fierceness and vengery, producing nearly the same effect as castration; of the mammoth weigh four hundred pounds; those of the elephant from Africa, two hundred and fifty; some remarkable lately found near the Ohio and Miume, in America; Dr. Hunter thinks them of a larger animal than the elephant; of the narwhale, or sea-unicorn, a cetaceous fish with teeth, from nine to fourteen feet long, 305, &c.

V & U

VAPOUR—of metals in mines not so noxious as those of substances with which ores are usually united, such as arsenic, cinnabar, &c.; fragrance of their smell; warnings about them; disengaged from water, and attenuated, ascends into the atmosphere, where condensed and acquiring weight as it rolls, falls down in a shape suitable to the temperature of its elevation; most foetid, breathed from the jaws of the wolf, 24, &c.

Vegetables—vegetable earth; the bed of it in an inhabited country must be always diminishing, and why; plant with a round bulbous head, which, when dried, becomes of amazing elasticity; grows near the extremity of that region on mountains where continual snow reigns; like fluids and mineral substances, produce air in a copious manner; totally unprotected, and exposed to every assailant; those in a dry and sunny soil are strong and vigorous, not luxuriant; those the joint product of heat and moisture are luxuriant and tender; different kinds appropriated to different appetites of animals, and why; birds distribute the seeds of vegetables where they fly; vegetables cover the bottom of many parts of the sea; but few noxious; that life as much promoted by human industry as animal life is diminished; the ass gives preference over others to the plantain; the sole food of ruminating animals; animals feeding on vegetables most inoffensive and timorous; some possessed of motion; what constitutes the difference between animal and vegetable life difficult, if not impossible, to answer; not possessed of one power which animals have—the actual ability or awkward attempt at self-preservation; those called marine grow to a monstrous size, 17, &c.

Vesuvius—its eruptions, the most remarkable described by Valetta; account of another by Bishop Berkeley, 28 to 31.

Viper—See serpents.

Unicorn—see narwhale.

Universe—a sketch of the, 1.

Volcano—opinions of philosophers and ignorant men about it; three very remarkable in Europe; Alboursas most famous in Asia; one in the island of Ternate; in the Molucca islands, in Japan, in Java and Sumatra, in the Cape de Verde islands, the peak of Teneriffe, and also in America; marine ones not very frequent, and why, 27 to 32.

Vulture—bird of prey, next in rank to the eagle, less generous and bold; countries where found; unknown in England; flocks of them near Grand Cairo not permitted to be destroyed, as they devour all the filth and carrion there; in company with wild dogs, tear and devour together without quarrelling; wonderful method of separating the flesh from the bones, and leaving the skin entire; smell carrion from afar; follow those that hunt for skins alone, and so voraciously fill themselves as merely to waddle, and to want disgorging before they fly away; are little apprehensive of danger, and allow themselves to be approached; an eagle falling in upon their meals keeps them at a distance till he be satiated; an ox returning home alone, lying down by the way, becomes their prey, and is devoured alive; attempt oxen grazing, destroy lambs, and feed much upon serpents, rabbits, hares, and what game they can overpower; also demolish whole broods of crocodiles; lay two eggs at a time, and produce but once a year; make nests in inaccessible cliffs and remotest places; their flesh lean, stringy, nauseous, tasting and smelling of carrion; the down of their wings makes a pretty kind of fur, commonly sold in Asiatic markets, 509 to 512.

W

WARBLING—of birds, so loud and various in modulation, not easily to be accounted for, 581 to 583.

Wasps—ruminating insects, or seemingly such; their description and habits; their habitation scarcely completed when the inhabitant dies; have two or three

hundred queens in a hive; their nest a most curious object; the social wasps gather no honey themselves, though fond of sweets; fierce battles with the bees, who make up by conduct and numbers the deficiency of prowess; their depredations; where found, other flies desert the place; live but one season; cannot endure winter; before the new-year they wither and die, having butchered their young; in every nest one or two females survive; impregnated the preceding season, she begins in spring to lay eggs; and before June produces ten thousand young, which are nursed and fed by her alone; solitary wasp, its manners; provisions made for the young at leaving the egg; the provisions arranged and laid in, the old one closes the hole and dies; the young leaving the egg are scarcely visible; how the life of the young is spent; wasps of Europe innocent compared to those of tropical climates; description of those of the West Indies, and their habits; pains of their sting insupportable, more terrible than of a scorpion, the part swells, and people are so disfigured as scarce to be known, 861 to 866.

Water—its parts infinitely small; driven through the pores of gold; penetrating through all substances, except glass; enters the composition of all bodies, vegetable, animal, and fossil; birds, beasts, fishes, insects, trees, and vegetables, with their parts, have grown from it, and by putrefaction become water; gives all other bodies firmness and durability; a phial, hermetically sealed, kept fifty years, deposited no sediment, and continued transparent; gathered after a thunder-clap, in sultry weather, deposits a real salt; spring-water collected from the air; of river waters, the Indus and the Thames offer the most light and wholesome; lightness, and not transparency, the test of purity; purest waters distilled from snow on tops of highest mountains; different kinds adapted to different constitutions; fresh-water at sea putrefies twice, sometimes thrice in a voyage; a month at sea, sends up a noisome and dangerous vapour, which takes fire from a flame; elementary water not compounded; is ice kept in fusion; dilates in bulk by cold; confirmed by experiments; very comprehensible and elastic; made to resemble air; a drop of water converted into steam, capable of raising twenty tons weight; keeps its surface level and even; a single quart sufficient to burst a hogshead, and how; water of the sea heavier and more buoyant than fresh water, 51 to 60.

Water-hen—its description, 613 to 615.

Water-fowl—described, 615, 616.

Wax—the first fifteen days the bees make more wax than during the rest of the year; of two kinds gathered by common bees; that produced by black bees in tropical climates only used for medicinal purposes, being two soft for candles, as in Europe, 558, &c.

Weasel—a small carnivorous animal; marks common to the kind; these differ from the cat kind in the formation and disposition of claws; differ from the dog kind in a clothing of fur rather than hair; one of the species is like all the rest; this the smallest of the whole kind; its description; untameable and untractable; hides and sleeps three parts of the day, and sallies forth for prey in the evening; attacks animals much above its own size; catches rats and mice better than cats, also small birds; destroys young poultry, and sucks the eggs; so nimbly runs up high walls, no place is secure from it; in cultivated lands, it thins the number of hurtful vermin; never cries but when struck; all the kind have glands near the anus, secreting a substance foetid in some, and a perfume in others; this most offensive in summer, and insufferable when irritated; one sort in America is by sailors called the stinkard; confined to a cage, is ever in uneasy agitation; must have leave to hide itself; eats only by stealth, and will not touch the food until it begins to putrefy; the female makes an easy bed for her young, and generally brings forth from three to five at a time, and with closed eyes; account

of a weasel's forming her nest, and bringing forth her young in the putrid carcase of a wolf; the white ermine found in Great Britain is called the white weasel; its fur among us of no value; of the weasel kind, the martin the most pleasing; the boldest and most useful of all is the ichneumon, 352 to 369.

Whale—the largest animal known; no precise anatomy of this fish yet given; two centuries ago, they were described two hundred and fifty feet long; Biscayaners practised the whale fishery near Greenland soon after the year 1300; seven different kinds, distinguished by external figure or internal conformation; are gregarious animals, make migrations from one ocean to another, and generally resort where they have the least disturbance; great Greenland whale, its description; from sixty to seventy feet long; the head one-third of its bulk; its hearing is acute; breathes air at the surface of the water, and cannot remain under it like other fishes; it blows loudly through the spout-holes, and most fiercely when wounded; whalebone different from the bones of the body; the fins are from five to eight feet long; the throat is so narrow, nothing larger than a herring can be swallowed; the tail, its only weapon of defence, is twenty-four feet broad, and strikes hard blows; one seen by Ray marbled, with the figures 122 distinctly marked upon it; the blubber and other parts turn out to very good account; the flesh palatable to some nations; the female and male keep much together; their fidelity exceeds that of birds; do not cross breeds; she goes with young nine months, is then fatter than at other times; produces two breasts and teats at pleasure; suckles her young a year, and how; is very tender of them; defends them fiercely when pursued; instance of it; dives with them, and comes up soon to give them breast; during the first year called short-heads, and then yields fifty barrels of blubber; at two years they are stunts, and after that skull-fish; the food of this animal an insect called medusa by Linnæus, and walfischoas by the Icelanders; pursues no other fish, and is inoffensive in its element; the whale-louse, of the shell-fish kind, sticks to its body as to the foul bottom of a ship, gets under its wings, and eats through the skin into the fat; the sword-fish affrights the whale, avoids the stroke of its tail, bounds upon its back, and cuts into it with the toothed edges of its bill; the killer, a cetaceous fish of great strength with powerful teeth, besets the whale as dogs do a bull, tears it down, and then devours only its tongue; old manner of taking the whale; improvements hinted, 659 to 665.

Whale (spermaceti)—see cachelot.

Wheat-ear—a short-billed bird of the sparrow kind, though foreign, 569.

Whin-chat—a slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind, 569.

Whiskers—a man without them formerly considered as unfit for company in Spain; Nature denying, Art supplied the deficiency; a Spanish General borrowing money of the Venetians, pawned his whiskers, and took care to release them; part of the religion of the Tartars consists in the management of their whiskers, and they waged war with the Persians as infidels, whose whiskers had not the orthodox cut; the kings of Persia wore them matted with gold thread, and the kings of France, of the first races, had them knotted and buttoned with gold, 154, &c.

White-bait—shoals appear near Greenwich in July, 702.

Wild man of the woods—see ouran-outang.

Winds, irregular and regular—currents of air; artificial; causes assigned for the variety, activity, continual change, and uncertain duration of it; in what manner to foretell the certainty of a wind, as the return of an eclipse; to account for variations of wind upon land, not at present expected; recourse to be had to the ocean, and why; in many parts of the world the wind pays stated visits; in some places they blow one way by day and another

by night; in others, for one half-year they go in a direction contrary to their former course; in some places the winds never change; the wind which never varies is the great universal wind, blowing from the east to the west in all extensive oceans, where the land does not break the general current; the other winds are deviations of its current; many theories to explain the motion of the winds; that of Dr. Lister; theory of Cartesius; Dr. Halley's more plausible. Trade winds blow from the poles towards the equator; were the surface of the globe the sea, the winds would be constant, and blow in one direction; various circumstances break its current, and drive it back against its general course, forcing it upon coasts that face the west; want of a true system of trade-winds supplied by an imperfect history of them; north wind prevails during October, November, December, and January, in the Atlantic, under the temperate zone; north winds reign during the winter in Nova Zembla and other arctic countries; south wind prevails during July in the Cape de Verde islands; north-west wind blows during September at the Cape of Good Hope; regular winds produced by various causes upon land; ancient Greeks first observed them; in general, wherever a strong current of water, there is a wind to attend it; regular wind: produced by the flux and reflux of the sea; winds called monsoons; some peculiar to certain coasts; south wind constant upon those of Chili and Peru; other winds particular to various coasts. Land winds puff by intervals, and why; not so at sea; east wind more constant than any other, and generally most powerful; wind blowing one way and clouds moving another forerunners of thunder; cause of this surprising appearance remains a secret; winds from the sea generally moister than those over tracts of land; more boisterous in spring and autumn than at other seasons; their force does not depend upon velocity alone, but also upon density; reflected from sides of mountains and towers often more powerful than in direct progression; raise sandy deserts in one country to deposit them upon some other; south winds in summer so hot in Egypt as almost to stop respiration, and produce epidemic disorders when continuing for any length of time; deadly along the coasts of the Persian Gulf and of India; assume a visible form, 104 to 113.

Wolga—its length; abounds with water in May and June; at other times very shallow; the English disappointed in a trade into Persia through it; receives thirty-three lesser rivers, in its course; has seventy openings into the Caspian Sea, 65, &c.

Wolf—wild dogs partake of the disposition of the wolf; the wolf taken young is gentle only while a cub; as it grows older discovers its natural appetite for rapine and cruelty; experiments prove neither wolf nor fox of the same nature with the dog, but each a distinct species; a fierce, strong, cunning, carnivorous quadruped, externally and internally so nearly resembling the dog, they seem modelled alike, yet have a perfect antipathy to each other; description of the wolf; principal distinction from the dog is the eye, which opens slantingly upwards in the same direction with the nose; the tail is also long, bushy, hanging lank; the wolf lives about twenty years; it is not much with those of his kind, yet hunts in packs with them; quarrelling, they devour each other; is watchful, and easily waked; supplied with water, lives four or five days without food; carries off a sheep without its carcase touching the ground, and runs with it swifter than his pursuers; smells a carcase at a great distance; leaving the wood, goes out against the wind; particularly fond of human flesh; follow armies, and arrive in numbers upon a field of battle; two or three wolves keep a province for a time in continual alarm; distinguished by huntsmen into young, old, and great wolf; manner of hunting them; young dogs shudder at their sight; the wolf killed, no dogs show an appetite to enjoy their victory; the flesh so

very indifferent, no creature eats it but the kind itself; breathe a most foetid vapour from their jaws; often die of hunger, after running mad by furious agitations; season for coupling lasts but fifteen days; no strong attachment appears between male and female; seek each other only once a year; couple in winter, several males then follow one female, dispute cruelly, growl, and tear each other, and sometimes kill that preferred by the female; she flies from all with the chosen when the rest are asleep; males pass from one female to the other; time of pregnancy about three months and a half; couple like the dog, and the separation hindered by the same cause; bring forth from five to six, or as many as nine at a litter; the cubs brought forth with eyes closed; young wolves play with hares or birds brought by their dams, and end by killing them; able to engender when two years old; France, Spain, and Italy much infested with them; England, Ireland, and Scotland happily free; King Edgar first attempted to rid this kingdom, and in what manner; Edward I. issued a mandate to Peter Corbet for the destruction of them; some quite black, some white all over; found in Asia, Africa, and America; in the East trained up for show, taught to dance and play tricks; one thus educated sells for four or five hundred crowns; in Lapland the wolf never attacks a rein-deer when haltered; wolves of North America used in hunting; caught in pit-falls; a wolf, a friar, and a woman taken in one the same night, 339 to 345.

Wolf-fish—the anarbias, a soft-finned apodal fish, its description, 694.

Wolf (Golden)—the Latin name for the jackal.

Woman—some continue pregnant a month beyond the usual time; those of Africa deliver themselves, and are well a few hours after; in barbarous countries the laborious duties of life thrown upon the women; the chief and only aim of an Asiatic is possession of many women; instance in our own country of a fine woman married to an eunuch; a principal employment of those of Thibet is reddening the teeth with herbs, and making their hair white; the body arrives at perfection sooner than the men; the persons of women as complete at twenty as those of men at thirty; less apt to become bald than men; Mr. Buffon thinks they never become bald; there are too many instances to the contrary; lower eye-lids drawn downwards when with child; the corners of the mouth also; then, likewise, high-shouldered; circumstances under which the midwives call them all mouth and eyes; the shoulders narrower and the neck proportionably longer than in men; first impulse of savage nature confirms women's slavery—the next of half barbarous nations appropriates their beauty; that of the perfectly polite engages their affections; the bones, cartilages, muscles, and other parts of the body softer than in men; a woman of sixty has a better chance than a man of that age to live to eighty; women longer in growing old than men; in the polar regions as deformed as the men; women of India described; marry and consummate at eight, nine, or ten years old, and have children at that age; cease bearing before the age of thirty; those of savage nations in a great measure exempt from painful labours; after a catalogue of deformities, Linnæus puts down the slender waists of women in Europe, by tight lacing, destroying their health through a mistaken notion of improving their beauty; remarkable instance of the power of imagination upon the foetus, 146 to 149.

Woodcock, or cock of the wood—of the grouse kind; places which this bird inhabits; how distinguished from the other birds of the poultry kind; the delicacy of its flesh; its food and habitation; amorous desires first felt in spring; keeps to the place where he first courts, and continues till the trees have their leaves and the forest is in bloom; its cry, clapping of wings, and ridiculous postures in this season, during which the females, attending his call, are impregnated; sportsmen use this time to fire at them, and take many while thus tame, though at others it is most timorous and watchful; the female much less than her mate, and so unlike him in plumage, she might be mistaken for another species; number and size of the eggs; she hatches them without the cock, and when obliged to leave them in quest of food, so covers them with moss or leaves it is difficult to find them; she is then extremely tame and quiet; keeps her nest, though attempted to be driven away; the young being hatched, they run with agility after the mother, though scarcely disengaged from the shell; their food ant's eggs and wild mountain berries; older, they feed upon the tops of heather and cones of pine-trees; are hardy; the clutching time over, the young males forsake the mother, and keep together till spring, when the first genial access sets them at variance for ever; fight each other like game-cocks, and easily fall a prey to the fowler, 537, 538.

Woodpecker—of this bird there are many kinds and varieties in each; general characteristics; description of the green woodpecker or wood-spice, called the rain-fowl in some parts; food; its tongue the instrument for killing and procuring food; want that intestine which anatomists call the cæcum; in what manner they make their nests, and how delicate in the choice; number of eggs; nests in warmer regions of Guinea and Brazil; little woodpecker, called by the natives of Brazil guirama, 550 to 552.

Worms—of different kinds infest each species of fish; sea-worms make the shells of fishes their food; within the body of the caterpillar devour its entrails without destroying its life, 882 to 884.

ZEBRA—the most beautiful, but wildest animal; a native of the southern parts of Africa; nothing exceeds the delicate regularity of its colour; description; watchful and swift; its speed a proverb among Spaniards and Portuguese; stands better upon its legs than a horse; in what countries found; the Portuguese pretend to have tamed and sent four from Africa to Lisbon, to draw the king's coach; some sent to Basil could not be tamed, Merolla asserts, when tamed, they are still as estimable for swiftness as beauty; their noise resembles the confused barking of a mastiff; in two, the author saw the skin below the jaw upon the neck hung loose in a kind of dewlap; they are easily fed; some in England eat bread, meat, and tobacco; the Emperor of Japan made a present of sixty thousand crowns' value for one received from a governor of Batavia; Great Mogul gave two thousand ducats for another; African ambassadors to the court of Constantinople bring some with them as presents for the Grand Seigneur; zebra and wild ass of a very different species, 243 to 246.

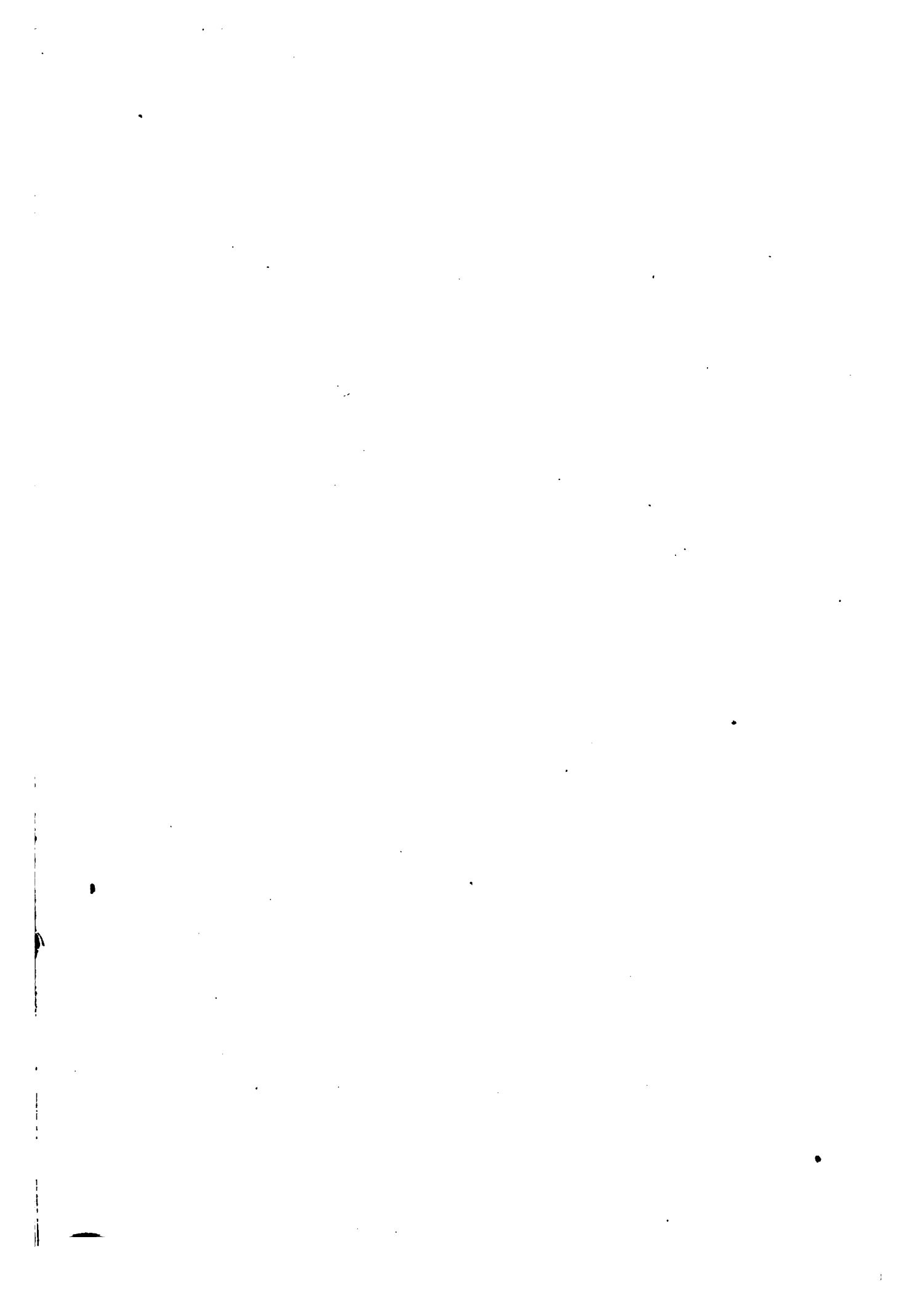
Zoophytes—name of Vegetable Nature endued with animal life; first class of zoophytes; all the tribe continue to live in separate parts; one animal by cuttings divided into two distinct existences, sometimes into a thousand; second class, 880 to 882.

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